FAO-ILO GOOD PRACTICE GUIDE
FOR
ADDRESSING CHILD LABOUR IN FISHERIES AND AQUACULTURE:
POLICY AND PRACTICE

PRELIMINARY VERSION

December 2011
Cover photographs:
Courtesy of O. Barbaroux, A. Conti, N. Franz, J. Isaac, K. Pratt, K. Vijaykumar, J. Villamora, L. Westlund
Status and preparation of this document

This report is a preliminary version of the FAO-ILO Good practice guide for addressing child labour in fisheries and aquaculture: policy and practice. The document has been prepared within the framework of a current Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and international Labour Organization (ILO) collaboration on decent work and child labour in the food and agriculture sector. It is based on the outcomes and recommendations of the FAO-ILO workshop on child labour in fisheries and aquaculture that was held in 2010 and responds to a need to better understand and address child labour in this sector.

The document draws on available information and material on child labour and the fisheries and aquaculture sector. Inputs were also provided in an FAO-ILO workshop for capacity development on child labour in agriculture (including fisheries and aquaculture) organized in Senga Bay, Malawi, in May 2011. It has been drafted by Lena Westlund, FAO consultant, with important support from FAO and ILO colleagues (in particular Jacqueline Demeranville, Nicole Franz, Carlos Fuentevilla, Paola Termine, Bernd Seiffert, Brandt Wagner, Rolf Willmann and Yoshie Noguchi). Comments made by Katrien Holvoet (FAO Fisheries and HIV/AIDS in Africa programme) and Tomoko Horii and Bruce Grant (UNICEF Malawi) are also gratefully acknowledged. The publication of this document was made possible thanks to Swedish funding through the FAO Multi-Partner Programme Support Mechanism (FMM).

By first making this preliminary version available, all stakeholders, including international and national social and development partners and colleagues, are encouraged to provide comments and inputs to improve the document before it is published and disseminated more widely. Feedback and suggestions are hence solicited and should be submitted to the contacts listed below by 30 April 2012. After this, a final version will be prepared and circulated in July 2012.

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Abstract

Child labour is a great concern in many parts of the world and it is estimated that there are some 215 million child labourers globally. While exact data on child labour in fisheries and aquaculture are scarce, case specific evidence suggests that the numbers could be important. Children engage in a wide variety of activities, both in the actual harvesting and farming of fish, i.e. in capture fishing and aquaculture and in all associated operations: processing, marketing and other post-harvest activities, as well as in upstream industries such as net-making and boat building. Child labour appears to be particularly widespread in the informal small and medium-scale sectors. Tackling child labour is difficult because of its close link to overall poverty and social injustices.

Although there is an international policy and legal framework for addressing child labour, many instruments still need to be translated into national legislation and to be implemented in practice. Laws are only effective if they are implemented and enforced, and incentives are required to ensure compliance. Community engagement and buy-in are essential for successful results.

More information on children’s work and child labour is needed to raise awareness at all levels. A critical first step towards eliminating child labour is to understand what constitutes hazardous work – not all work performed by children is child labour. Child labour has been defined by the ILO as work that impairs children’s well-being or hinders their education, development and future livelihoods.

Concerted efforts are needed to effectively address child labour. This requires the involvement of governments, development partners, civil society organizations, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), employers’ and workers’ associations and other socio-professional organizations, and communities. By applying holistic, participatory, integrated and practical approaches, a better life for millions of children can be created.
## Contents

Status and preparation of this document ........................................... i
Abstract .................................................................................. ii
List of tables ........................................................................... iv
List of figures ........................................................................... iv
List of boxes ........................................................................... iv
Abbreviations and acronyms ....................................................... vi
Executive summary ................................................................... vii

INTRODUCTION ........................................................................ 1
  Background ........................................................................... 1
  Purpose and structure of this document ..................................... 2

PART 1: CHILD LABOUR IN FISHERIES AND AQUACULTURE: CONCEPTS AND CURRENT SITUATION .......................... 3
  The need for knowledge .............................................................. 3
    1. What is child labour? .......................................................... 3
      1.1. Defining child labour .................................................... 3
      1.2. Causes of child labour .................................................. 5
      1.3. Data on child labour ..................................................... 6
    2. The fisheries and aquaculture sector .................................. 9
      2.1. Characteristics and role in securing livelihoods ............... 9
      2.2. Challenges and opportunities ...................................... 9
      2.3. Health and safety in fisheries and aquaculture .......... 10
    3. Children in fishing and aquaculture .................................. 16
      3.1. What jobs do children do? ........................................... 16
      3.2. Gender considerations ................................................ 17
      3.3. Acceptable work vs. hazardous labour ....................... 17
      3.4. Worst forms of child labour ........................................ 19
      3.5. Links between child labour, poverty and unsustainable fisheries livelihoods ........................................ 21

PART 2: GUIDANCE ON HOW TO ADDRESS CHILD LABOUR IN FISHERIES AND AQUACULTURE ......................... 24
  The need for action .................................................................. 24
    4. Ensuring adequate policy, legal and institutional frameworks 24
      4.1. International legislation and collaboration ..................... 24
      4.2. National implementation and regional collaboration .... 27
      4.3. Engagement of communities and civil society organizations 29
    5. Deciding what constitutes child labour ............................... 31
      5.1. Risk assessments ......................................................... 31
      5.2. Hazardous work lists .................................................... 33
      5.3. Criteria relevant to fisheries and aquaculture ............. 34
    6. Closing the data and knowledge gap ................................... 36
      6.1. Why is information needed? ......................................... 36
      6.2. Improving data collection and analysis .......................... 36
      6.3. Integration into existing information systems ............... 36
      6.4. Specific assessments .................................................... 37
      6.5. Utilising information: raising awareness, strengthening capacities and improving policy coherence .................. 38
    7. Taking action to combat child labour .................................. 39
      7.1. Action framework ....................................................... 39


7.2. Preventing child labour 39
7.3. Withdrawing trafficked children and abolishing worst forms of child labour 44
7.4. Protecting children 45
8. Finding entry points, partners and tools 47

Summary of good practices 52

References 54

Appendix 1: Developmental differences between child and adult workers 59

List of tables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table 1</td>
<td>Supply and demand determinants of child labour in fisheries and aquaculture</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 2</td>
<td>Selected list of common fishing and aquaculture tasks, hazards and potential consequences</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 3</td>
<td>The components of an OHS risk assessment</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

List of figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Figure 1</td>
<td>Basic distinctions in ILO child labour standards</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2</td>
<td>The virtuous cycle of appropriate actions</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

List of boxes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Box</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Box 1</td>
<td>ILO Convention on Minimum Age (C138)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Box 2</td>
<td>Reasons for fatal accidents in the USA commercial fishing fleet</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Box 3</td>
<td>Risks and dangers in small-scale capture fisheries</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Box 4</td>
<td>Jermal fishing in Indonesia</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Box 5</td>
<td>Gender roles in fisheries</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Box 6</td>
<td>Why are children at greater risk than adults from health and safety hazards in the workplace?</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Box 7</td>
<td>Examples of hazardous child labour in fisheries and aquaculture</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Box 8</td>
<td>Trafficking of children for fishing in Ghana</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Box 9</td>
<td>Child labour and environmental degradation</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Box 10</td>
<td>ILO Work in fishing recommendation No 199 (2007)</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Box 11</td>
<td>Examples of national child labour legislation</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Box 12</td>
<td>What are hazards and risks?</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Box 13</td>
<td>Study on child labour and children’s work in agriculture in Ghana</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Box 14</td>
<td>Simple check-list for addressing child labour in fisheries and aquaculture support programmes</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Box 15</td>
<td>Junior Farmer Field and Life Schools (JFFLS)</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Box 16</td>
<td>Port state control measures</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Box 17</td>
<td>Trafficked children on Lake Volta, Ghana</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Box 18</td>
<td>The Ghanaian chorkor oven</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Box 19: Safety at sea 48
Box 20: Government agency coordination in Brazil 49
Box 21: Theatre for development 50
Box 22: Child labour monitoring 50
Abbreviations and acronyms

CCRF: Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries
CGIAR: International Food Policy Research Institute
CLM: Child Labour Monitoring
CONITPA: National Coordination of Port and Waterway Labour Inspection (Brazil)
CRC: Convention on the Rights of the Child
FAO: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
ICLS: International Conference of Labour Statisticians
ICSF: International Collective in Support of Fishworkers
IFAD: International Fund for Agricultural Development
IFAP: International Foundation for Accident Prevention
IFPRI: International Food Policy Research Institute
ILO: International Labour Organization
IMO: International Maritime Organization
IPCC-LA: International Partnership for Cooperation on Child Labour in Agriculture
IPEC: International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (ILO)
IUF: International Union of Food, Agricultural, Hotel, Restaurant, Catering, Tobacco and Allied Workers’ Associations
JFFLS: Junior Farmer Field and Life Schools
LSMS: Living Standard Measurement Surveys
MDGs: Millennium Development Goals
OHCHR: Office of the High Commissioner of Human Rights
OHS: Occupational health and safety
PPE: Personal Protective Equipment
REC: Regional Economic Communities
RFB: Regional Fishery Bodies
SAR: Search and Rescue
SIMPOC: Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour
TFD: Theatre for development
UNESCO: United National Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF: The United Nations Children’s Fund
UNODC: United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
USA: United States of America
Executive summary

Child labour continues to be a great concern in a large part of the world. It has been estimated that there are some 215 million child labourers globally and that some 60 percent of them work in the agriculture sector, including in fisheries and aquaculture. Tackling child labour is difficult because of its close link to overall poverty and social injustices. There is also often a lack of reliable data, particularly in the fisheries and aquaculture sector.

The FAO-ILO Good practice guide for addressing child labour in fisheries and aquaculture: policy and practice aims at improving the understanding of the nature and scope, causes and contributing factors, and consequences of child labour in fisheries and aquaculture by providing information and an analysis of current issues. Their objective is to contribute to the elimination of child labour in the fisheries and aquaculture sector by assisting governments and development partners to classify child labour in fisheries and aquaculture, to mainstream child labour considerations in relevant development and management policies, strategies and plans, and to take practical action against child labour. The document is directed to government officials and their development partners, employers’, workers’ and producers’ organizations and other stakeholder and socio-professional organizations in the formal and informal sector. The current document is a preliminary version and feedback and suggestions for how to improve the Good practice guide are solicited.

Work performed by children and child labour are not necessarily the same thing. While child labour by definition is unacceptable and should be abolished — in particular the worst forms of child labour — there is work that is not harmful to children and that can even be beneficial to them. Child labour has been defined by the ILO as work that impairs children’s well-being or hinders their education, development and future livelihoods.

In the fisheries and aquaculture sector, children engage a wide variety of activities, both in the actual harvesting and farming of fish — i.e. in capture fishing and aquaculture — and in all associated operations: processing, marketing and other post-harvest activities, as well as in upstream industries such as net-making and boat building. Children also perform household chores in their fishing and fish farming families and communities. Child labour appears to be particularly widespread in the informal small- and medium-scale sectors.

There is an international policy and legal framework for tackling child labour, but many instruments still need to be translated into national legislation and implemented. A fundamental international commitment with regard to children is the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. The ILO Minimum Age for Employment convention (C138) and the ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour convention (C182) are particularly important to child labour. There are also relevant instruments and guidelines specific to fisheries and aquaculture, e.g. the FAO Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries and the ILO Convention on Working in Fishing (C188).

Governments need to ensure that national policy, legal and institutional frameworks are in place to address child labour. However, laws are only effective if they are implemented and enforced, and incentives are required to ensure compliance. Regional and cross-border collaboration may be required where migration is a common livelihood strategy, which it is in many small-scale fishing communities. In the informal sector, community engagement and stakeholder participation are particularly important. Ensuring community awareness and buy-in are essential for successful results.
A critical first step towards eliminating child labour is to understand what constitutes hazardous work. A classification is needed for distinguishing between acceptable work for children, and child labour and worst forms of child labour. Criteria for defining hazardous work onboard a fishing vessel could include hours at sea, weather conditions, type of gear used and related work processes, need for diving, and general working (and living) conditions onboard the vessel. In the post-harvest sector, in boat building and in aquaculture, there are other potential hazards including the exposure to smoke (when smoking fish), the noise level (in a boat building workshop) or the use of toxic substances (in aquaculture).

More information on children’s work and child labour is needed and can be obtained by integrating data collection needs into existing information systems and processes, and by carrying out specific assessments in collaboration with stakeholders. Information is required for awareness raising at all levels. It is also important for cross-sectoral capacity development in support of policy coherence; child labour concerns should be taken into account in fisheries and aquaculture policies and programmes, and the characteristic of fisheries and aquaculture need to be considered in child labour strategies.

With regard to taking practical action against child labour, ILO classifies these actions into three categories, (i) prevention, (ii) withdrawal and (iii) protection:

- Prevention is the most important approach for addressing child labour and achieving long-term sustainable results. It includes poverty focused, participatory and integrated programmes aiming at turning the vicious cycle of poverty and child labour into a virtuous cycle leading to pro-poor growth. Making adequate and affordable education available is key at the same time as incentives may be required to ensure that children attend school, e.g. school feeding programmes or separate schools for girls. Changing attitudes and promoting corporate social responsibility as well as introducing technologies and practices that reduce the demand for child labour are other preventive strategies.

- Sometimes urgent action, like withdrawal, is needed to rescue and rehabilitate children engaged in the worst forms of child labour. Close community participation and collaboration are important for sustainable results.

- Especially for the age group 15-17 years, when children usually are allowed to carry out certain types of work, improved protection can change the working conditions sufficiently so that they are safe. Onboard fishing vessels, the availability and use of life jackets are particularly important.

Entry points, partners and tools that are suitable and work in the particular local context are needed:

- Entry points could be, for example, overall occupational health and safety (OHS) assessments and improvement actions and – in fishing – safety at sea.

- Partners are needed both at national and local levels and include different line ministries and government agencies (needed for an integrated approach), socio-professional organizations and employers’ and workers’ organizations.

- There are many potential tools. In addition to risk assessments and check lists for reviewing child labour in a particular situation, examples include policy, legal and institutional analyses, drawing up national action plans through participatory workshops, improving knowledge through making reports and events on child labour available, and – at the community level – using working methods and communication tools such as participatory assessments, radio and TV programmes, public and village meetings, and theatre for development.
Concerted efforts are needed to effectively address child labour. This requires the involvement of governments, development partners, civil society organizations, NGOs, employers’ and workers’ associations and other socio-professional organizations, and communities. By applying holistic, participatory, integrated and practical approaches, a better life for millions of children can be created.
INTRODUCTION

Background

Child labour continues to be a great concern in many parts of the world. In 2008, some 60 percent of the 215 million boys and girls estimated to be child labourers worldwide were engaged in the agriculture sector, including in fisheries, aquaculture\(^1\), livestock and forestry (ILO, 2010). In addition to work that interferes with schooling and is harmful to personal development, many of these children work in hazardous occupations or activities that may threaten their health and lives. Children carry out work that is prohibited under international conventions and/or national legislation, a situation that is a menace not only to themselves but to poverty alleviation and sustainable development initiatives for their families and communities.

However, tackling child labour is not an easy task. The occurrence of child labour is entwined in poverty and social injustices and cannot be addressed in isolation. Moreover, some types of work are not harmful and can even be beneficial for children. While ‘worst forms of child labour’ may be relatively easy to identify and agree on eliminating, the distinction between acceptable work and harmful labour is not always clear and assessments can be muddled by local and traditional practices and beliefs. This is often the case in the informal sector where child labour is particularly common – such as in small-scale agriculture, fisheries and aquaculture – and there is a need to work closely with communities to carefully analyse existing situations and raise the awareness and understanding of child labour issues. By taking a participatory approach along with promoting the application of existing conventions, legislation and guidelines, child labour can be addressed directly as well as integrated into broader policies and programmes. Improvements have been proven possible and the total number of child labourers in the world has in fact declined since the year 2000\(^2\).

Information on child labour in fisheries and aquaculture is limited, and data on child labour in agriculture are generally not disaggregated by subsector. Nevertheless, case studies and specific surveys indicate that the numbers are significant. Children work in a large variety of activities, as part of family enterprises, as unpaid family workers, self-employed or employed by others. They are found, for example, working onboard fishing vessels, unloading catches, preparing nets and baits, feeding and harvesting fish in aquaculture ponds, and sorting, processing and selling fish.

There are a number of factors that influence whether a task should be considered acceptable work, child labour or a worst form of child labour. With the support of initiatives such as the International Partnership for Cooperation on Child Labour in Agriculture (IPCCA), launched by key international agricultural organizations in 2007\(^3\), the knowledge base and guidance on how to classify and tackle

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\(^1\) Aquaculture is the farming of aquatic plants and animals in marine, freshwater or brackish water environments.

\(^2\) See the section on Data on child labour in Part 1 below.

\(^3\) Current members of the IPCCA are the International Labour Organization (ILO), Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) of the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR), and the International Union of Food, Agricultural, Hotel, Restaurant, Catering, Tobacco and Allied Workers’ Associations (IUF) – representing workers and their organizations. See the ILO website on the International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC).
child labour in agriculture have improved during the last decade. Still, there is an urgent need to learn more about and address the specific situation with regard to child labour also in fisheries and aquaculture. As part of the reinforced effort to eliminate child labour in agriculture, especially hazardous child labour, the ILO and FAO are collaborating on developing guidance on policy and practice in this respect. In April 2010, an FAO Workshop on Child Labour in Fisheries and Aquaculture was organised in cooperation with the ILO (FAO, 2010). This document has been developed based on recommendations given in the workshop and forms part of a broader long-term commitment to fight poverty and achieve sustainable livelihoods and equitable development for all.

**Purpose and structure of this document**

The objective of this Good practice guide is to contribute to the elimination of child labour in the fisheries and aquaculture sector. Their purpose is to assist governments and development partners to classify child labour in fisheries and aquaculture, to mainstream child labour considerations in relevant development and management policies, strategies and plans, and to effectively tackle child labour in fisheries and aquaculture. The document aims at improving the understanding of the nature and scope, causes and contributing factors, and consequences of child labour in fisheries and aquaculture by providing information and an analysis of current issues. It includes examples of best practices with regard to priority actions to be taken by governments, their development partners and sector representatives.

The target audience of the Good practice guide includes government officials and their development partners; those involved in the fisheries and aquaculture sector and those in other areas where child labour occurs and where a better understanding of issues particular to fisheries and aquaculture is needed. The Good practice guide is also directed to employers’, workers’ and producers’ organizations and other stakeholder and socio-professional organizations in the formal and informal sector. Concerted efforts are needed to address child labour and all concerned parties need to be involved and take action.

After this introductory chapter, *Part 1* gives an overview of the concepts, definitions and recent data relevant to child labour. It presents the characteristics and role of the fisheries and aquaculture sector and its different subsectors and discusses child labour within this context. It provides examples of what work children do in fisheries and aquaculture and what the related risks and hazards are.

*Part 2* starts with an overview of existing legal and policy frameworks relevant to child labour, while emphasizing the importance of community engagement and awareness-raising. It presents best practices and gives suggestions for how to classify, mainstream and address child labour in fisheries and aquaculture.

The Good practice guide is global in scope and is intended to apply to all the different fisheries and aquaculture subsectors – small and large-scale capture fisheries, aquaculture and post-harvest activities. However, because of the higher prevalence of child labour in the informal sector and the particular circumstances and poverty context that is often part of the reality of small-scale capture fisheries in developing countries, a certain emphasis has been given to this part of the sector.
PART 1: CHILD LABOUR IN FISHERIES AND AQUACULTURE: CONCEPTS AND CURRENT SITUATION

The need for knowledge

In order to address child labour, we need to understand what the issues are and how child labour relates to poverty and other surrounding circumstances. Part 1 of the Good practice guide provides information on child labour, on the fisheries and aquaculture sector- including safety and health issues- and on the overall vulnerability context. The different tasks that children undertake in fisheries and aquaculture are discussed and examples of hazardous activities are identified. The information in Part 1 provides background and a framework for the subsequent discussion in Part 2 on what is needed to address child labour in fisheries and aquaculture.

1. What is child labour?

1.1. Defining child labour

According to the 1989 UN Convention on the Rights of the Child⁴, a child is a person under 18 years of age. The 1999 ILO Convention on Worst Forms of Child Labour (C182) also states that the term “child” shall apply to all persons under 18 years. Not all work performed by children is child labour that must be eliminated. While child labour by definition is unacceptable and should be abolished – in particular the worst forms of child labour as a matter of urgency – there is work carried out by children that is not harmful but that can even be beneficial to them.

Child labour has been condemned internationally⁵ as work that impairs children’s well-being or hinders their education, development and future livelihoods. It is work that is damaging to a child’s physical, social, mental, psychological or spiritual development, because it is performed at too early an age or otherwise unsuitable for children, e.g. due to hazardous nature or conditions of the work. It deprives children of their childhood, their dignity and rights.⁶ According to the basic principle of international standards, “child labour concerns work for which the child is either too young – work done below the required minimum age – or work which, because of its detrimental nature or conditions, is altogether considered unsuitable for children and is prohibited.”⁷ C182 defines worst forms of child labour as all forms of slavery, trafficking of children, forced recruitment for armed

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⁴ See [http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/crc.htm](http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/crc.htm) for the text of the Convention, usually referred to as the CRC.
⁵ See, for instance, Article 32 of the CRC.
conflict, use of children in illicit activities, sexual exploitation, and hazardous work (also covered by C138) and insists on the urgency of immediate and effective action against them.

The ILO 1973 Convention on Minimum Age (C138) calls for national policies on child labour elimination and the establishment of a general minimum working age of 15 (allowing for certain flexibility under specific circumstances, including the possibility of setting the limit at 14 years in developing countries – see Box 1).

Figure 1 gives an overview of the basic distinctions according to international standards on child labour⁸.

Figure 1: Basic distinctions in ILO child labour standards

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age of the child</th>
<th>Work excluded from minimum age legislation</th>
<th>Light work</th>
<th>Non-hazardous, non-light work</th>
<th>Hazardous work and other worst forms of child labour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>18 years</td>
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<tr>
<td>14/15/16 &lt;minimum age&gt;</td>
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The ILO Convention on Work in Fishing (C188) sets the minimum age for work on fishing vessels at 16. However, the competent authority may relax this to 15 years of age for persons who are no longer subject to compulsory schooling but engaged in vocational training in fishing. Persons of 15 years of age and still in school may also be authorised to perform light work during school holidays. On the other hand, the convention sets a minimum age of 18 for assignment to activities on board fishing vessels that are likely to jeopardize health, safety or morals. Persons between 16 and 18 years of age are only allowed exceptionally to do such work if their health, safety and morals are fully protected and the person has received adequate specific instruction or vocational training as well as basic pre-sea safety training. There is also a minimum age of 18 for night work, though the competent authority may again make an exception for training purposes if it has been determined that the work does not have a detrimental impact on health or well-being. Decisions on these matters are to be made following consultation with employers' and workers' organizations (fishing vessel owner and fisher organizations).

⁸ Adapted from Figure 2 of the ILO Global Report “A future without child labour”, 2002
Box 1: ILO Convention on Minimum Age (C138)

The main requirements of the ILO Minimum Age convention include the need for member States to specify a minimum age for admission to employment or work below which no child may be engaged in work. This age should not be lower than the age of completing compulsory schooling and, in any case, not less than 15 years. However, an exception to this rule gives discretion to States whose economy and educational facilities are insufficiently developed to specify a lower minimum age (14 years) after consultation with their social partners (organizations of employers and workers concerned).

C138 leaves many decisions to be taken at the national level, and some countries, including developing countries, have set the minimum age at 16, e.g. Brazil, China and Kenya. C138 also includes the exceptional permission of light work at an age no less than 13 years (or 12, where the general minimum age is 14) as long as the work does not interfere with the child’s schooling or is physically, mentally or socially damaging. For hazardous work – i.e. work likely to jeopardise the child’s health, safety or morals, and to be determined at the national level after consulting employers and workers representatives - the minimum age must be 18, with some exceptions for children between 16 and 18 under specific conditions (health, safety and morals are fully protected and adequate training and supervision is provided). Other requirements of the ILO Minimum Age convention include measures to be taken to provide free and compulsory education to all children up to the minimum age for employment, as well as the need to determine in laws or regulations the types of hazardous work to be prohibited for persons below 18, and also what penalties exist for employers in violation of said provisions.


Conventions, international instruments and guidelines relevant to child labour in fisheries and aquaculture are further discussed in the section on International legislation and collaboration at the beginning of Part 2 below.

1.2. Causes of child labour

Poverty is the major cause behind child labour, but it is further influenced by the effects of social inequalities, structural unemployment, vulnerability to shocks and demographic and migratory developments. Many children work for their survival and parents depend on their children’s work even if they know it is wrong. In other situations, there is a lack of awareness where children working may be seen as normal and parents do not understand the difference between children’s work and child labour. Child labour tends to occur in environments with cheap and unorganised labour. Poor quality, low relevance or absence of formal education, costs of schooling and low levels of parental education are important additional causes of child labour. In communities in remote rural areas where access to schools is poor, child labour can be expected to be more common. Cultural practices, such as social attitudes towards child work and labour, also contribute to the prevalence of child labour. Gender roles are another factor; poor parents tend to prefer – if the choice has to be made – a boy child to attend school while girls are kept at home (and help in household chores and family activities). The absence of appropriate national policies and legislation on child labour as well as inadequate enforcement of existing legal frameworks further exacerbates the situation.

9 “Household chores” refer to work that usually takes place in the own home and in which children may be involved, sometimes as substitutes for adults who carry out economic activities outside household. “Domestic work” refers to – formal or informal – employment to work in someone else’s household.
Table 1 provides examples of factors influencing the supply and demand for child labour. Supply factors refer to the macro level and household situations and decisions that make children available for work, and the demand factors are those that contribute to creating employment and labour opportunities for children.\(^\text{10}\)

### 1.3. Data on child labour

Official statistics on children’s work and labour in accordance with the International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) standards\(^\text{11}\) refer to the age group 5-17 years. There are children under 5 years who work, but almost all child labour involves those between 5 and 17 years. In 2008, there were a total of 1.586 million children in this age group in the world. 306 million – or 19 percent - were in some sort of employment. Some of this work is considered permissible according to existing international conventions, but it is estimated that 215 million children were involved in non-acceptable work, i.e. child labour, in 2008. Some 115 million of these were engaged in hazardous work (ILO, 2010).

| Table 1: Supply and demand determinants of child labour in fisheries and aquaculture |
|----------------------------------------|----------------------------------------|
| **Supply factors**                     | **Demand factors**                      |
| Poverty and need to supplement household income | Cheap labour as children are often paid less than adults (or unpaid) and have weaker negotiating power with regard to terms and conditions of work |
| Lack of access to adequate schools, particularly in remote areas (insufficient number of schools, geographical distance, poor quality and non-relevant curricula) and interruption in education due to migration | Insufficient labour at peak (fishing) seasons |
| Inadequate and insufficient information on behalf of parents, e.g. perceived irrelevance of education or low awareness of hazards of certain work | Substitution of adults in household chores and labour when parents are working, sometimes away from home |
| Lack of financial services that would allow the household to redistribute expenses and income over time | Perception that children’s fingers are nimble or their (smaller) bodies better for certain tasks, such as net repairs, diving deep distances to hook/unhook the nets from fishing boats, etc. |
| Attitudes, values and norms: children’s participation in fisheries and aquaculture considered a way of life and necessary to pass on skills (fishing, net making/repair, fish processing and trading) | Children, in particular girls, are considered to be more docile workers |
| Need to cope with shocks such as a natural disaster and/or the loss of a household breadwinner (accident at sea, HIV/AIDS) | Certain work is considered ‘children’s work’, e.g. herding cattle or fetching water |
| Cultural perception of masculinity and desire to earn income making boys want to go to sea for fishing early. Girls wanting to make money work in fish processing and marketing. |  |

*Source: Adapted from FAO/IFAD/ILO, 2010; ILO/IPEC-SIMPOC, 2007; ILO, 2002.*

\(^{10}\) See also the section below on *Links between child labour, poverty and unsustainable fisheries livelihoods.*

\(^{11}\) See footnote 8.
The number of child labourers has fallen during the last decade – from 246 million in 2000 to the reported 215 million in 2008. Also the number of those doing hazardous work has declined by 10 percent from 2004 to 2008. However, this development is not uniform across the world; most progress has been made in Latin America, less so in Asia-Pacific, and in sub-Saharan Africa total child labour has increased. Moreover, the trends are different for different age groups. After a decline in the beginning of the millennium, hazardous child labour in the age group 15-17 increased (in particular for boys), from 52 million in 2004 to 62 million in 2008 (ILO, 2010).

Some 60 percent of the world’s child labourers work in the agriculture sector, including fisheries, aquaculture, livestock and forestry. As already mentioned above, child labour is particularly prevalent in the informal sector and as unpaid family labour. It is estimated that only one in five working children is in paid employment; the majority are unpaid family workers (ILO, 2010). Among those that are paid, many are unfairly paid. There are also self-employed children working to provide for their own basic needs.

While there has been progress in the availability of statistics on child labour in general through the ILO Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour (SIMPOC)\textsuperscript{12}, established in 1998, information on child labour in fisheries and aquaculture continues to be scarce. Global data are usually not disaggregated for fisheries and aquaculture but included in agriculture as a whole. Hence, the information available tends to be from specific case studies and surveys, or even anecdotal (Mathew, 2010). Estimates from four developing countries (Bangladesh, El Salvador, Ghana and the Philippines) indicate that child labour in fisheries represents some 2-5 percent of the total number of child labourers in the countries. Children, of whom a majority – up to 91 percent – were boys, constituted about 9-12 percent of the total fisheries labour force in these countries (Allison \textit{et al}, 2011). However, the limited estimates available indicate large variations both between and within countries. It has been estimated that 29 percent of the total workforce in the fisheries sector in Senegal are children under the age of 15. Among crews the share was some 27 percent and among those engaged in trade-related activities 41 percent (O’Riordan, 2006). In addition, a survey on child labour in the Baluchistan coast of Pakistan revealed a 30 percent incidence of child labour with children accounting for 27 percent of workers employed in the fishing sector (Hai, Fatima & Sadaqat, 2009). According to a survey on Lake Volta in Ghana, it appears that at least one child (boy) is employed as crew on all boats, including the small boats that only hold two people. However, it is difficult to assess how many of these children should be classified as child labourers and how many are doing acceptable work (Zdunnek \textit{et al}, 2008).

Surveys on child labour tend not to take household tasks or chores in their own homes into account and accordingly, the ‘double-burden’ of many children, especially girls – working both at home and in an economic activity – is often overlooked. When a broader definition of work including non-economic activities is used by the country in child labour statistics, more girls work than boys. Girls also tend to work longer hours than boys. This is a big challenge for child labour statistics in general, noted also in the Resolution concerning statistics of child labour\textsuperscript{13} adopted by ICLS in 2008.

The above fisheries child labour figures also exclude children in aquaculture activities. It is hence difficult to estimate the total number of child labourers in fisheries and aquaculture in the world, but it is likely to be many millions.

\textsuperscript{12} See \url{http://www.ilo.org/ipec/ChildlabourstatisticsSIMPOC/lang--en/index.htm}.

KEY MESSAGES 1

- A child is a person under the age of 18 years.
- There is a need to distinguish between acceptable (and often beneficial) work performed by children and child labour. Child labour is by definition harmful and unacceptable and should be abolished.
- Child labour is particularly widespread in the informal small-scale sector. Poverty is the main cause of child labour, but child labour is highly contextual and its causes (demand and supply factors) and consequences need to be understood in the specific situation.
- The total number of child labourers in the world was estimated at 215 million in 2008. Data on child labour in fisheries and aquaculture are lacking, but case studies and anecdotal evidence indicate that the numbers are significant. Also, work done especially by girls in the household sphere is often overlooked when assessing child labour.
2. The fisheries and aquaculture sector

2.1. Characteristics and role in securing livelihoods

Both capture fisheries and aquacultures are extremely diverse subsectors – with regard to the techniques used, the environments in which the activities take place and their scale. Work tasks span from the production and sale of inputs (fishing gear, bait, aquaculture seeds and feed, etc.) and the actual catching, farming and harvesting of fish, to fish processing, marketing and distribution. Production takes place in and around both inland and marine waters – although fish marketing and distribution can take fish workers far from the original fish harvesting point – and at widely different scales. In capture fisheries, a large variety of fishing techniques are deployed ranging from simple hand held gear to sophisticated trawls or purse seines operated by industrial fishing vessels. The small-scale sector, which is often informal and based around family labour, employs the vast majority of fishers and fish workers; over 90 percent of the estimated 120 million people working in capture fisheries and related activities are small-scale operators. The bulk (97 percent) lives in developing countries. Adding another estimated 60 million people engaged in aquaculture takes the total employment of the sector to 180 million full-time and part-time workers. This figure does not include occasional and subsistence fishing and fish farming often carried out as a supplementary but vital livelihood activity at the household and family level (World Bank/FAO/WorldFish Center, 2010; FAO, 2010b).

Fisheries and aquaculture make important contributions to meeting the UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) on poverty reduction and food security and can be a source of wealth creation, supporting national economic development, as well as providing essential nutritional benefits. In general, small-scale fisheries and aquaculture are more directly contributing to attaining these goals than industrial-scale operations, even though the economic contribution of the latter can be significant at the national level (Béné, Macfadyen & Allison, 2007).

2.2. Challenges and opportunities

Many wild fishery resources around the world are today in a precarious state due to overfishing, irresponsible practices and pollution. In aquaculture, the development and promotion of better management practices have made important contributions to responsible fish farming but there are still many concerns with regard to environmental sustainability. While the consequences of resource depletion and environmental degradation can be felt by fishers, fish farmers and fish workers in both small and large-scale settings, in developing as well as in developed countries, the situation in small-scale fishing and fish farming communities in developing countries is often aggravated by poverty and marginalisation. Poverty in fishing and fish farming communities is a complex issue and encompasses aspects related to social structures and institutional arrangements, including insecure rights to land and fishery resources, inadequate or absent health and educational services and social safety nets, vulnerability to natural disasters and climate change and exclusion from wider development processes due to weak organizational structures and representation and participation in decision-making (FAO, 2010c). Migrants within poor fishing communities often belong to the most vulnerable population groups (Njock & Westlund, 2010).

While the challenges of sustainable fisheries and aquaculture are numerous, the sector also presents an increasing number of opportunities. Progress has been made with regard to enhancing the
understanding of the complexity of the poverty and vulnerability context as well as of the range of coping strategies applied by fishing and fish farming communities to address threats and sustain livelihoods. Increased recognition is given to the need to apply a human rights approach and to achieve adequate livelihoods and equitable benefits for all members of society – women, men, youth, elderly and children (FAO, 2011).

2.3. Health and safety in fisheries and aquaculture

As the fisheries and aquaculture sector is diverse and represents a wide range of activities, the associated occupational health and safety (OHS) concerns also vary according to the subsector and particular circumstances. Fishing from a small boat in an enclosed lake or a large industrial vessel in the open sea, processing fish in a small-scale traditional way or in a large mechanised factory, or tending to fish in an intensive aquaculture system or in a homestead pond all have different risks.

Fishing onboard vessels

Fishers onboard fishing vessels tend to work under conditions that are quite different from other professional groups. The environment where fishing takes place is often hazardous and vessels tend to be in constant motion, even in relatively good weather conditions. In bad weather, movements can be violent and unpredictable. There is often no clear separation between working and personal time and space, especially during multi-day fishing trips. Fishers may both work and live on the vessel under cramped and congested conditions. Sometimes there are long periods away from home. Lack of recreational activities, limited access to adequate food and clean water, and fatigue because of long working hours have been identified as problems. Moreover, fishers are often employed under different conditions from other shore-based workers. Many are self-employed or paid in relation to the catch and profit made by their fishing vessel (ILO, 2007; ILO, 2000).

Fishing at sea is probably the most dangerous occupation in the world (ILO, 1999). Many accidents occur as a result of poor judgment during fishing operations related to a pressure to increase profits or ensure a decent income. The human factor is estimated to be responsible for 80 percent of accidents. In the current situation of increased competition for dwindling fishery resources, fishers may be inclined to take bigger risks, including working longer shifts ignoring fatigue, reducing crew sizes, disregarding safety equipment investment needs or not paying heed to bad weather warnings. On many fishing vessels, especially smaller ones, crews have to work on deck in all weathers, frequently with hatches open, in order to locate, gather and process their catch (FAO, 2003; Safety for fishermen website)\(^\text{14}\). According to an ILO survey carried out in 1999, the most common types of accidents were stepping on, striking against or being struck by an object, falling, and overexertion. The main causes for these accidents were reported to include “rough weather, fatigue, poor technical condition of the vessel, inadequate or inappropriate tools, equipment, personal protective equipment and inattention” (Box 2.1, ILO, 2000). In Box 2, some statistics on fatal fishing accidents from the United States of America (USA) are presented.

\(^\text{14}\) See http://www.safety-for-fishermen.org/en/
Box 2: Reasons for fatal accidents in the USA commercial fishing fleet

In spite of a gradual decline in fatalities since 1992, a recent survey of commercial fishing deaths in the USA revealed that fishing was still the occupation with the highest number of fatalities in the country. Among the 504 deaths reported in the period 2000-2009, most were caused by a vessel disaster, a fall overboard or an injury onboard. The risk factors for vessel disasters varied between different types of fisheries but reasons included flooding, vessel instability and being struck by a large wave. Severe weather conditions contributed to over 60 percent of the fatal vessel disasters. None of the crew members who died from falling overboard were wearing a life jacket and the majority was alone on deck when they fell. The falls were generally caused by trips or slips, losing balance or gear entanglement.

Source: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2010.

Fishers also experience other occupational health problems. The 1999 ILO survey indicated that fishers often suffer from skin and respiratory diseases, and consequences of noise and vibration onboard vessels. The survey showed diagnoses such as hypertension, coronary heart diseases and cancer of the lungs, bronchus and stomach as well as diseases typically associated with fishers: salt-water boils, allergic reactions to cuttlefish and weeds, fish erysipeloid (a bacterial infection also called “fish handler’s disease”), acute tenosynovitis of the wrist (“fisher’s tenosynovitis”), conjunctivitis and poisonous fish stings (ILO, 2000). Moreover, particularly in tropical inland waters, fishers can be exposed to waterborne diseases such as bilharzia, or threatened by wild animals in lakes and estuaries (e.g. hippopotamuses and crocodiles).

Working conditions and efficiency may have improved in some ways with increased mechanization, but many of the underlying issues remain and workers are now exposed to new dangers. In the small-scale fisheries sector, the increased availability of outboard engines coupled with a need to go further offshore to find fish (because of depleted inshore resources) can lead to accidents that did not happen earlier, for example because of engine failure or sudden rough weather for which a small craft may not be suitable. The common characteristics of small-scale fisheries, in particular in remote areas in developing countries – lacking communication and safety equipment, inadequate search and rescue (SAR) services, poor port and landing facilities, and insufficient medical care onshore – exacerbate the risks and increases vulnerability to accidents and their potential consequences.

Box 3 summarises some of the risks and dangers in fishing with particular reference to the small-scale fisheries sector.

Box 3: Risks and dangers in small-scale capture fisheries

Risks and dangers that are particularly relevant to the small-scale fisheries sector include:

- **Bad weather:** Sudden gales, major storms and heavy fog are significant causes of small boat accidents often resulting in capsizing, grounding, becoming lost and collisions. Several types of artisanal fishing craft are buoyant and do not sink even when capsized, which increases the survival chances of their crews. Where weather warning systems and radio communication with fishermen at sea are poor or non-existent, casualties due to bad weather are more frequent.
- **Loss of power:** This is a major cause of accidents. Many small fishing boats are powered by an outboard motor and do not carry either a spare engine or sailing rig.
- **Fire on board:** This is less common on board small fishing craft, as most of them are open boats or rafts where fire detection is usually instantaneous. However, fire on board canoes (and pirogues) powered with outboard engines and carrying large amounts of spare fuel is extremely dangerous.
Aquaculture

In the aquaculture sector, there are many different tasks involving a variety of equipment, chemicals, biological agents and physical environments. OHS hazards exist in hatcheries and grow-out facilities (ponds, pens, cages, etc) as well as in feed mills. The aquaculture sector is generally very dynamic and has shown great growth during the last decade. In many parts of the industry, health and safety hazards may therefore not be well studied (Moreau & Neis, 2009).

Some identified OHS risks include musculoskeletal injury due to, for example, heavy lifting or long hours of repetitive hand feeding, physical injuries caused by slips or falls on wet and slippery surfaces, cuts from using knives and wounds from other equipment or machinery. Chemicals are used for a number of reasons in aquaculture, e.g. for disease control or to fertilise fish ponds. Direct contact with some chemicals can lead to burns, skin irritation or allergies. Inhalation of other substances can cause respiratory problems, including asthma. Exposure to biological substances by, for example, workers employed in feed milling facilities with poor ventilation systems can lead to allergies and asthma (Erondu & Anyanwu, 2005).

Risks from handling fish are similar to those in the capture fisheries sector and include cuts, bites and puncture injuries from sharp teeth, spines or bones. In addition, there are other biological risks.
when submerging or diving in fish ponds or other grow-out facilities, including parasitic infestation and pathogenic infections (Moreau & Neis, 2009; Erondu & Anyanwu, 2005).

**Boat building**

Boat builders are exposed to a variety of substances and materials (styrene, resins, solvents, paints, welding fumes, and coating systems) that can cause injuries, illnesses or allergies. In addition, wood can create hazards, and there are toxic wood types. Inhalation of wood particles, in particular fine wood dust, but also direct contact with hard wood, can lead to poisoning and wood dermatitis. Those who saw, plane and sand wood are also at risk for asthmas and allergies (Brigham & Landrigan, 1985; Hausen, 1986).

Furthermore, there are risks of explosions and burns from the flammable solvents and other products used in boat building. OHS hazards also include injuries due to falls, repetitive motions and noise (Brigham & Landrigan, 1985).

**Fish processing and marketing**

Fish and seafood processing involve a large spectrum of techniques and final products. Large-scale processing can take place onboard factory vessels or at shore-based plants. Freezing is globally the most common method of processing fish, followed by canning. Fish may be degutted and filleted.

In the small-scale or artisanal sector, fish processing often takes place close to the landing site or homestead. Salting and fermenting are common in Asia, and smoking is mainly used in Africa. Throughout the tropics, drying is widely practiced. To avoid spoilage, insecticides are sometimes used, including chemical products that do not meet food standards (because these are less expensive). Such practices entail risks to human health, both for the processor and the consumer.

Skin rashes, allergic reactions and asthmatic symptoms are reported to be some of the common ailments among processing plant workers (Lopata et al, 2004). In the artisanal sector, fish smoking can also present hazards. Particularly in Africa, many women and girls are involved in smoking fish using inefficient smoking ovens and are exposed to health risks posed by the dense smoke and heat that are generated.

Fish marketing may involve the carrying of heavy loads and handling fish by hand, which can lead to musculoskeletal injuries, allergic reactions and fish erysipeloid. Another aspect of fish marketing that is particularly harmful in the small scale fisheries of developing countries, involves potential hazards when transporting fish to far away markets, where there are risks related to road safety and personal security.

It has been shown that the HIV/AIDS prevalence in fishing communities is often higher than national averages and women fish processors and traders (as well as fishermen) may be at risk if transactional sex – fish-for-sex – is practiced. Fish-for-sex is a phenomenon that has been observed in many different developing countries but particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa. It is an arrangement between female fish traders and fishermen whereby women secure their supply of fish by making (part of) the payment in sexual services (Béné & Merten, 2008).
Other characteristics and circumstances that are common to fishing and fish farming communities and that should be considered in the context of health and safety include migration, the high prevalence of HIV and AIDS, gender-based violence, sexual exploitation and drug abuse:

- **Migration** is a common livelihood strategy among many fishing communities and child labour “hotspots” are often linked to situations with high levels of migration. Mobility within fishing communities has a long history, but while the reason for migrating originally may have been mainly linked to the movements of the fish, there are today many economic and social reasons to move. Children, both boys and girls of all ages, participate in migration, often already working or training to become fishers or fish workers. Transferring from one place to another tends to negatively impact education, and there may also be a lack of schools in receiving areas. Moreover, coupled with the frequent travelling, implicit or explicit demands to help in work may also contribute to children leaving school prematurely (Njock & Westlund, 2010).

- The mobility of fishers and fish workers is also considered to be one cause of the often high HIV and AIDS prevalence rates in fishing communities. Frequent travel and migration may change sexual behaviour from more constrained home norms. Another factor that can contribute to more risky sexual behaviour is that fishing is a high-risk occupation, which can lead to risk denial. Fish-for-sex transactions, lack of health services, lack of prevention, treatment and mitigation measures, and daily cash that can be spent on sexual services and alcohol may be other contributing factors (Allison & Seely, 2004; Westlund, Holvoet, & Kébé, 2008).

- Excessive alcohol consumption can lead to violence and women and girls are particularly vulnerable to sexual abuse. In some areas, the lack of security in this respect is an important concern (ICSF, 2010). This lack of security in combination with promiscuity at landing and processing sites, where children and youths may spend a large part of both their work and leisure time, constitutes a risk for early involvement in sex and violence. Smoking and drug abuse may also be particular problems in fishing communities. An ILO-supported study on fishers in Indonesia found that almost all the fishers, even children, smoke, and that alcohol and drug use is acknowledged as a problem (Markkanen, 2005).

The safety and health risks described here are general to all those who work in the fisheries and aquaculture sector and should be eliminated, avoided or mitigated. In the context of children’s work and labour, it is important to understand that children are at even greater risk than adults. This is because their minds, bodies and judgment are still developing, (see also Box 6).
KEY MESSAGES 2

- Fisheries and aquaculture, in particular the small-scale sector, make important contributions to poverty reduction and food security. Over 90 percent of all fishers and fish workers are small-scale operators and the bulk live in developing countries.

- While the understanding of poverty in general as well as in fishing and fish farming communities has improved, there are still considerable challenges to achieving sustainable livelihoods. In addition to concerns related to overfishing and resource depletion, these challenges include economic and political marginalisation, limited access to social services and resources, and often high levels of vulnerability to natural disasters and climate change.

- Fishing at sea is probably the most dangerous occupation in the world. Occupational hazards also exist in the post-harvest sector, aquaculture and in upstream activities such as boat building.

- Other common characteristics to fishing and fish farming communities that are relevant in the context of health and safety include migration, the high prevalence of HIV and AIDS, gender-based violence and drug abuse.
3. Children in fishing and aquaculture

3.1. What jobs do children do?

Children engage in a wide variety of activities, both in the actual harvesting and farming of fish – i.e. in capture fishing and aquaculture – and in all associated operations: processing, marketing and other post-harvest activities, as well as in upstream industries such as net-making and boat building. Children also perform household chores in their fishing and fish farming families and communities. As mentioned above and further discussed below, some of these tasks are considered acceptable work whereas others should be classified as child labour or even worst forms of child labour.

Child labour appears to be particularly widespread in the informal small- and medium-scale sectors. Because over 90 percent of the world’s small-scale fishers, fish farmers and fish workers live in developing countries and because of the relationship between poverty and child labour, child labour is more frequently found in poorer countries and areas. Children often work in small-scale, private or family-based enterprises, commonly as unpaid family labour.

In capture fishing, children are engaged in all phases of a fishing trip, including onshore preparations before leaving, tasks during the trip as well as work at the time of return to shore or harbour. Activities cover, for example, preparation and loading of gear and other equipment, procurement, carrying and loading of food and water, and launching of the boat. On board the vessel, children may engage in rowing or steering the boat, keeping watch, bailing water, casting and pulling nets or using other gear (e.g. line fishing), operating machinery, diving to disentangle nets or in other ways attend to gear (reset or check), and sorting and cleaning fish. Upon return, children help in pulling the boat onshore, unloading, sorting and cleaning the catch, cleaning the net and hull, and boat and net repair. Children can also be involved in near shore collection of fish and shellfish on foot or by diving, or carry out other types of fishing that are not onboard vessels (see Box 4). They can also be involved in illicit practices such as fish poisoning and fishing with explosives (FAO, 2010; Mathew, 2010).

### Box 4: Jermal fishing in Indonesia

One special type of small-scale fishing found in parts of Asia and which can involve child labour is the use of fishing platforms, called *jermals*. A *jermal* is a platform supported with wooden tree trunks usually built in shallow waters, 7-8 kilometres out to sea. The platforms are built over traps and accommodate men and boys working on the catch who can work there for extensive periods. The *jermal* catch includes mostly shrimp and other small seafood.

*Source: Markkanen, 2005.*

Children also participate in boat building activities, net making and repairing, and other maintenance work that could include boat waxing and painting, upkeep of outboard engines, and general carpentry.

In the post-harvest sector, children are also active in the whole process from unloading fish from the boat to transport, marketing and distribution. Fish processing activities include sorting, peeling, slicing and filleting, and fish salting, smoking, curing, and drying as well as packing. Children help carry loads, and to transport and sell fish.
In aquaculture, children usually assist in various types of farm operations – e.g. feeding and fertilising, cleaning ponds and harvesting fish. They can also be engaged in the collection of shrimp seed (although wild shrimp seed have nowadays been largely replaced by hatchery production), seaweed farming and processing, ornamental fish culture, cage culture in rivers and estuaries and mariculture in coastal waters (FAO, 2010; Mathew, 2010).

3.2. Gender considerations

In accordance with common gender lines among adults, boys tend to be involved in fishing and girls more in post-harvest activities. While data on child work and labour in fisheries is limited, and even more so for the aquaculture sector, it is likely that girls help in feeding fish, in particular at homestead ponds, and collecting seeds, while boys may be more involved in the harvesting of fish. However, as in the adult world, gender roles in child work and labour are variable and should be understood in the local context (see Box 5).

Box 5: Gender roles in fisheries

While the generalisation of the professional roles of men as fishers and women as fish processors and sellers is largely correct, a closer examination of gender in fisheries reveals a more complex situation according to local and cultural contexts. In some countries, it is common that women fish or collect seafood, for example mussels and clams, in coastal or inland waters. This is sometimes done as a side-activity but with great importance for the nutrition of their families. Women participate as entrepreneurs and as fish buyers; it is not unusual that they advance money to finance fishing trips or give loans to fishers against a guaranteed supply of fish when the catch is landed.


3.3. Acceptable work vs. hazardous labour

Not all work carried out by children is child labour that needs elimination. Above a certain minimum age (but never less than 12 years), some non-hazardous work can be an acceptable and sometimes beneficial activity for children. Participating in light work, with the family or community, can give children an opportunity to develop skills and also improve their sense of belonging and self esteem. Children who have reached the legislative minimum age can also work full-time in non-hazardous work. The work becomes an issue when it interferes with schooling, is hazardous, dangerous or harmful and when children are exploited or under age. Hazardous work, among child labour, particularly needs urgent action.

Hence, there is work that is not considered child labour. Some activities in fisheries and aquaculture can be positive, providing children with practical and social skills for work as adults. There is often a tradition of fathers passing on their fishing knowledge to their sons – and mothers doing the same with regard to fish processing and marketing to their daughters. However, while these types of arrangements tend to be considered educational, or as helping within the family context, the line can be very fine as to whether it is acceptable work or child labour that should be avoided.

Hence, whether an activity is considered acceptable work, child labour or hazardous child labour depends on a range of factors and conditions. In addition to the age of the child, some of these factors relate to the characteristics of the fishing and related professions and the safety and health issues outlined above. Because of their still immature physical and mental state, children are
generally more vulnerable to hazardous conditions that already pose threats to the health and safety of adults such as bad weather during fishing at sea or continued exposure to smoke during certain types of fish processing. It could be argued that some of these most dangerous jobs should not be carried out by anyone – adult or child – and efforts should be made to ensure that appropriate safety standards and equipment are in place (e.g. appropriate design of vessels, life jackets, etc), that the work conditions change through improved techniques or practices (e.g. improved fish smoking ovens, training of crew in safety procedures on fishing vessels), or that the need for human labour is avoided in certain situations (e.g. refraining from going to sea in bad weather, mechanization of dangerous work tasks).

There are other tasks that are unsuitable for children precisely because they are children and their bodies are not yet fully developed and hence they are at greater risk than adults (see Box 6). This includes physically demanding work that can cause injuries or harm to children’s physical development. Such work also includes tasks where there is a risk of exposure to noise, poison or toxics (from animals/fish, chemicals or other) or other substances or conditions to which children are likely to have lower tolerance than adults. Some of the negative effects of child labour – to health, education and development – may not show immediately but only become apparent later in life. In the fisheries and aquaculture sector this type of work could include operating certain types of gear requiring physical strength, carrying heavy loads (beyond limits specified by national regulations), high-risk diving (e.g. at excessive depths, with risk for being caught in gear or encounter dangerous animals), handling certain animals or fish, etc. Box 7 gives some examples of hazardous child labour in fisheries and aquaculture.

**Box 6: Why are children at greater risk than adults from health and safety hazards in the workplace?**

Child labourers are susceptible to all the dangers faced by adult workers when placed in the same situation. However, the results of exposure to workplace hazards and safety risks can often be more devastating and long-lasting for them. It can result in permanent disabilities, and children can also suffer psychological damage from working and living in an environment where they are denigrated, harassed or exposed to violence.

When speaking of child labourers it is important to go beyond the concepts of work hazard and risk as applied to adult workers and to expand them to include the developmental aspects of childhood. Because children are still growing they have special characteristics and needs that must be taken into consideration when determining workplace hazards and the risks associated with them, in terms of physical, cognitive (thought/learning) and behavioural development and emotional growth. Likewise, their judgment may not be the same as that of an adult and this could lead to additional risk taking.

It is also important to bear in mind that the consequences of some health and safety problems do not develop, show up, or become disabling until the child is an adult and so this aspect must be factored in when considering the long-term effects of working as a child labourer. Examples would be carrying heavy loads as a child resulting in long term musculoskeletal problems later in life; or cancer developing in adulthood resulting from exposure to pesticides as a child labourer.

For more information on specific developmental differences between adult and child workers, see Appendix 1.

*Source: ILO, 2006.*
Box 7: Examples of hazardous child labour in fisheries and aquaculture

In the Philippines, children are engaged as swimmers and divers in *muro ami* (a type of net) fishing targeting reef fish, an extremely hazardous form of work. Child labourers are reportedly at risk of ear damage, injuries from falls, shark attacks, snake bites, and drowning (ILO, 1998).

Child labourers in shrimp processing (de-heading) depots in Bangladesh tend to work hours that prevent them from attending school. They often work for 9 hours without a break in extremely unsanitary conditions, and are frequently cheated of their pay. Cuts to hands and feet are common and can become badly infected, abscessed and swollen. Sexual abuse, including rape, is also reportedly common. For unmarried girls, the very fact they work in the industry can mean their reputations and marriage prospects are tarnished, regardless of whether or not they engage in sexual activity (EJF, 2003).

On Lake Malawi, young boys are sometimes used for bailing out water of the small fishing boats operating on the lake. These *chimqubidi* (“water pumps”) have to work throughout the fishing trip, often lasting over night, and are not allowed to fall asleep or get seasick. If they fail on these accounts, they get only half pay, and if they get seasick, they have to drink lake water (to ‘treat the sickness’) (pers. comm. fishing community during field trip to Senga Bay, Malawi). On Lake Chilwa, young boys work as *bila boys* to guide and disentangle the seine nets when it is pulled in. This is a dangerous task, requiring being in the water for a prolonged period of time and diving to unsafe depths (Lugano & Zacharias, 2009).

The duration and timing of work also determine whether it is acceptable for children. Children who are 10 to 18 years old require 9.5 hours of sleep in order to support their holistic development. Work at night or long working hours, leading to fatigue, are considered hazardous. Working hours that interfere with school or leisure time are also considered child labour. In fisheries, working hours are typically irregular and can also be extremely long – conditions that are not suitable for children. Examples include going out on fishing boats at night or attending to and processing fish when landed at very early or late hours of the day.

Table 2 gives examples of tasks, hazards and potential health consequences for children in the fisheries and aquaculture sector.

### 3.4. Worst forms of child labour

Worst forms of child labour are defined in Article 3, ILO Convention on Worst Forms of Child Labour – C182 and include:

- All forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and servitude and forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict;
- The use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances;
- The use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties;
- Work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children.
Table 2: Selected list of common fishing and aquaculture tasks, hazards and potential consequences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tasks</th>
<th>Hazards</th>
<th>Injuries and potential health consequences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sorting, unloading and transporting catches</td>
<td>Heavy loads; large machines with moving parts</td>
<td>Joint and bone deformities; blistered hands and feet; lacerations; back injury; muscle injury; amputation of fingers, toes and limbs; noise-induced hearing loss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooking on fishing vessels</td>
<td>Sharp blades; stoves in poor repair</td>
<td>Cuts; burns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diving for various aquatic species, to free snagged nets, or to scare fish into nets</td>
<td>Deep water; dangerous fish; boat propellers; fishing nets; entanglement</td>
<td>Drowning; hypoxia; decompression illness; dizziness; emphysema; bites or stings from fish; hearing loss from ear infections or rapid pressure change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actively fishing; pulling fish onto boat</td>
<td>Heavy loads; sharp objects</td>
<td>Blistered hands and feet; lacerations; back injury; muscle injury; fish poisoning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleaning fish and shellfish; processing, smoking or selling fish</td>
<td>Sharp tools; smoke and chemicals; long hours standing or bending</td>
<td>Blistered hands and feet; lacerations; backaches and other musculoskeletal strains and disorders; exhaustion;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repairing nets, vessels</td>
<td>Sharp or heavy tools</td>
<td>Blistered hands and feet; lacerations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tending aquaculture farms</td>
<td>Disease control compounds; mosquitoes</td>
<td>Injury from falls; drowning; malaria or dengue; pesticide poisoning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work on boats and water in general</td>
<td>Crowded conditions; deep water; cold water; polluted water; slippery walkways; fumes and other odours; loud equipment; lack of drinking water; long hours</td>
<td>Drowning; hypothermia; nausea; claustrophobia; schistosomiasis, guinea worm and similar parasitic infections; broken bones and head injuries from slips; physical or emotional abuse; exhaustion; hunger; dehydration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long periods at sea on boats or fishing platforms</td>
<td>Sexual abuse, intimidation, exposure to and pressure or enticement to engage in adult behaviours</td>
<td>Sexually transmitted diseases; alcoholism, drug use and smoking; diminished sense of self-worth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Table 52, page 26, IPEC, 2011.

The ILO estimates that at least 40 percent of forced labour victims worldwide are children. According to some reports, in certain regions of Africa forced child labour is “linked to traditional practices of placing children in foster care with relatives in distant cities. While parents are promised education for their children, the boys and girls are often ruthlessly exploited as domestic servants, in agriculture and fishing or in the sex industry” (page 8, Andrees, 2008).

See Box 8 for an example on child trafficking in Ghana.
Box 8: Trafficking of children for fishing in Ghana

In Ghana, cases of children being traded as commodities for monetary benefits have been reported. They are trafficked through middlemen to faraway destinations, unknown to both parents, to work in fisheries. These children are trafficked, for example, from their home villages to catch *kapenta* (*Limnothrissa* spp.) in Lake Volta. The depletion of fishery resources in the lake is ostensibly the reason attributed to this ‘hiring’ of children as workers, since they are considered a source of cheap labour. Their smaller fingers are also believed to be efficient in removing *kapenta* from small-meshed gillnets. The children often also have to dive to release entangled gillnets from tree stumps in the shallow bottoms of the lake. In the process, they endure high rate of parasitism such as schistosomiasis and guinea worm disease and sometimes even drown. Night fishing involving children also leads to high rates of school drop outs.


3.5. Links between child labour, poverty and unsustainable fisheries livelihoods

As in the agriculture sector in general, poverty and social inequalities are the main causes behind child labour in fisheries and aquaculture at the same time as child labour perpetuates poverty. Child labour often has a negative impact on literacy rates and school attendance and limits children’s mental and physical health and development, which can reinforce poverty and marginalisation. Hence, in addition to being potentially harmful for the child as an individual, there are negative consequences from a broader poverty alleviation, development and sustainable resource utilisation perspective. An example specific to capture fisheries is when child labour occurs to substitute adult labour and reduce costs – because of poor profitability as a consequence of overfishing – further exacerbating the problem of unsustainable resource utilisation. Since children are paid less, child labour allows fishing to continue in situations where it would otherwise have stopped because of poor profits. As a consequence, overfishing and unsustainable resource utilisation persists.

Poverty and marginalization also work the other way around, i.e. child labour hazards are reinforced when conditions of poverty prevail. For example, if appropriate health care is lacking, there is an increased risk that the consequences from injuries and other physical and mental problems caused by child labour become more severe. This can be an issue in many fishing communities that are located in remote areas with limited access to adequate social services.

However, the causes for and the negative consequences and impacts of child labour are highly contextual. In poorer fishing communities, deprived from education and alternative employment opportunities, sons following their fathers in fishing – and girls their mothers in fish processing and marketing – may be the only viable options for professional training. If schools and educational opportunities do not exist or are of low quality, parents may see no alternative than to have children work to learn a trade. In other cases, children may have to work to help support their families because the indirect or opportunity costs for sending them to school (even when education exists and is free of charge) may simply be unacceptable (see also Box 9). The recent global food and financial crises have been particularly severe for poorer population groups and the effects may be felt for some time yet with increased pressure on households to make ends meet and hence also on
the supply of child labour. Moreover, if the crisis leads to a cut in national education budgets, it is likely that more children will not attend school and instead become available for work.\(^\text{15}\)

**Box 9: Child labour and environmental degradation**

There are links between poverty and the environment that can lead to increased child labour. Where fishers start to earn less from fishing, because resources have become scarce or pollution is threatening the ecosystem, the decline in income may force parents to take their children out of school. A case reported recently concerns mussel collectors in North Jakarta, Indonesia. Wives of local fishermen often earn a living from collecting green mussels to sell to restaurants, but recently the size of the mussels that can be found has become smaller at the same time as demand has fallen. As mussels are sensitive to pollution, it is believed that the deteriorating environment has contributed to the current situation. Under these circumstances, there is a risk that children discontinue school to instead go fishing with their fathers or pick up other work to help support their families.

*Source: ICSF, 2011.*

Considering the complexity of child labour and its causes, and its links to the overall poverty context, removing children from work in fisheries must be done with caution, especially if alternatives are scarce – perhaps both with regard to education and work opportunities outside fisheries (Allison, Béné & Andrew, 2011). A thorough understanding of the particular context is hence required for tackling child labour in an effective and integrated manner. By addressing the root causes along with dealing with specific incidences of child labour, more sustainable results are likely to be achieved. Examples of areas for action include education and development of alternative livelihoods arrangements for improved resource governance and fisheries management. In Part 2 of this document, strategies and practices for addressing child labour in fisheries and aquaculture will be discussed.

\(^{15}\) See also Table 1 above for causes behind child labour.
KEY MESSAGES 3

- Children engage in a wide variety of tasks in the fisheries and aquaculture sector, such as in fishing, in preparations before a trip, in post-harvest activities – processing and marketing – in feeding and harvesting fish in ponds and cages, in boat building and net making/mending.

- According to common gender lines in fisheries and aquaculture activities, boys tend to be more involved in fishing and girls in postharvest activities.

- Participating in some work can be beneficial for children, on the condition that they are above a certain minimum age (never less than 12 years) and that the work is light and not mentally or physically harmful.

- Children, because of their developmental status, are more at risk than adults from health and safety hazards. There are many tasks in fisheries and aquaculture that children should not do.

- A priority is to eliminate worst forms of child labour, i.e. all forms of slavery, the use of children in prostitution or pornography, or in illicit activities (e.g. drug trafficking), as well as other work that is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of the child. There are examples where children have been trafficked to work in fisheries.

- Poverty, marginalisation and child labour constitute a vicious cycle. Child labour needs to be tackled in an integrated and holistic manner.
PART 2: GUIDANCE ON HOW TO ADDRESS CHILD LABOUR IN FISHERIES AND AQUACULTURE

The need for action

Although, as reported above, the incidence of child labour in the world has decreased recently, there is still much to do. The aim of Part 2 of this document is to provide guidance to governments, development partners and other fisheries and aquaculture sector stakeholders on important considerations and actions needed to effectively address child labour. It provides an overview of existing international legal and policy frameworks, and it emphasises the need to engage with communities to address child labour, in particular in the informal sector. Based on the concept of OHS risk assessment as well as the requirements stipulated in the ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour convention, the need for identifying hazardous work in the fisheries and aquaculture sector and drawing up national lists is raised and a process for this work is suggested. Furthermore, the need for better information, and how to obtain data, is discussed. Against this background, a framework for how to take action against child labour, based on strategies defined by the ILO (prevention; withdrawal, referral and rehabilitation; and protection) is presented. The importance of finding entry points, partners and tools is discussed and good practices are given for how governments, development partners and civil society as well as employers’ and workers’ associations and socio-professional organizations can engage in addressing child labour.

4. Ensuring adequate policy, legal and institutional frameworks

4.1. International legislation and collaboration

The international policy and legal framework for addressing child labour in fisheries and aquaculture consists of a variety of conventions, other international instruments and guidelines. While some have been widely ratified or sanctioned, as well as translated into national legislation and implemented, others are still only acceded to by a limited number of countries and/or are not yet applied. This collection of obligations and guidance provides a policy and legal basis for tackling child labour. It also provides technical advice, and countries are encouraged to accede to and implement these instruments as they can be of great assistance in achieving results.

One of the basic documents with regard to children’s rights and wellbeing is the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) that entered into force in 1990. It spells out the basic human rights that children everywhere have: the right to survival; to develop to the fullest; to protection from harmful influences, abuse and exploitation; and to participate fully in family, cultural and social life. The four core principles of the convention are non-discrimination; devotion to the best interests of the child; the right to life, survival and development; and respect for the views of the child. Every right spelled out in the convention is inherent to the human dignity and harmonious development of very child.
The convention protects children’s rights by setting standards in health care; education; and legal, civil and social services.\textsuperscript{16}

More recently, attention has been given to the MDGs constituting a global commitment to combat poverty. They were agreed by world leaders in 2000 and specify eight areas with targets. In order to achieve the overarching goals and targets, child labour will also have to be addressed.

The key ILO conventions\textsuperscript{17} relevant to child labour in fisheries and aquaculture were mentioned in the section \textit{What is child labour?} in Part 1 above. The \textit{ILO Convention on Worst Forms of Child Labour} (C182) is among the most widely ratified ILO conventions (174 countries) and defines worst forms of child labour, including hazardous work. The \textit{ILO Convention on Minimum Age} (No 138) has been ratified by 161 countries and sets the minimum age for when children should be allowed work (see also Box 1). Within the overall framework of urging the elimination of child labour, both conventions assign responsibilities to countries to take action and to consult with employers and workers organizations on a number of issues.\textsuperscript{18}

\textit{The Hague Global Child Labour Conference 2010} evaluated progress made since the adoption of the Worst Forms of Child Labour convention. The mainstreaming of child labour issues into education, development and human rights frameworks was promoted. The participants (over 500 representatives from 97 countries) adopted the \textit{Roadmap for Achieving the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour by 2016}.

The \textit{ILO Convention on Working in Fishing} (C188), also mentioned above, stipulates age limits for work onboard fishing vessels. The approach taken by this convention is quite similar to the one of C138 but is more specific to fishing. The convention calls for a determination to be made, among other things, of what activities on board fishing vessels are likely to jeopardize the health, safety or morals of young persons, taking the risks involved into account as well as applicable international standards. The related ILO Recommendation No 199 provides non-binding guidance of the implementation of C188 (see Box 10).

In the fishing arena, there are other international instruments that are of importance. The FAO \textit{Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries} (1995 – CCRF) is a voluntary undertaking that has become probably the most important guiding document for fisheries management and fishing operations globally. It also addresses aquaculture and post-harvest and related activities. The CCRF has no specific provisions for child labour but covers more generally health and safety standards and adherence to other international instruments. Accordingly, it declares that “States should ensure that health and safety standards are adopted for everyone employed in fishing operations. Such standards should be not less than the minimum requirements of relevant international agreements on conditions of work and service” (Article 8.1.5).

Another development that supports the abolishment of child labour in fisheries is the recent agreement of the FAO Committee for Fisheries to develop \textit{international guidelines on securing...}

\textsuperscript{16} The above description is from the UNICEF website: \url{http://www.unicef.org/crc/}. The full text of the Convention is available from the webpage on international law of the Office of the High Commissioner of Human Rights (OHCHR): \url{http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/}.
\textsuperscript{17} See the ILO Child Labour webpage for full texts of conventions: \url{http://www.ilo.org/global/topics/child-labour/lang--en/index.htm}.
\textsuperscript{18} The ILO Minimum Age Convention is in fact not obligatory for the informal sector as governments may opt to exclude “family and small-scale holdings producing for local consumption and not regularly employing hired workers” (Article 5.3).
\textsuperscript{19} See \url{http://www.fao-ilo.org/fileadmin/user_upload/fao_ilo/pdf/270510_Rapport_Outcome_document.pdf}.
sustainable small-scale fisheries. FAO is acting as the Secretariat for this exercise and one of the suggested thematic areas of these guidelines is social and gender equality, including addressing child labour in fisheries and aquaculture²⁰.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Box 10: ILO Work in fishing recommendation No 199 (2007)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The ILO Work in fishing recommendation states, in Part 1 on Part I. Conditions for work on board fishing vessels, the following with regard to the protection of young persons:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Members should establish the requirements for the pre-sea training of persons between the ages of 16 and 18 working on board fishing vessels, taking into account international instruments concerning training for work on board fishing vessels, including occupational safety and health issues such as night work, hazardous tasks, work with dangerous machinery, manual handling and transport of heavy loads, work in high latitudes, work for excessive periods of time and other relevant issues identified after an assessment of the risks concerned.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The training of persons between the ages of 16 and 18 might be provided through participation in an apprenticeship or approved training programme, which should operate under established rules and be monitored by the competent authority, and should not interfere with the person’s general education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Members should take measures to ensure that the safety, lifesaving and survival equipment carried on board fishing vessels carrying persons under the age of 18 is appropriate for the size of such persons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The working hours of fishers under the age of 18 should not exceed eight hours per day and 40 hours per week, and they should not work overtime except where unavoidable for safety reasons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Fishers under the age of 18 should be assured sufficient time for all meals and a break of at least one hour for the main meal of the day.</td>
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The FAO Technical Guidelines on Aquaculture Certification were approved in 2011. They have been established to guide the development, organization and implementation of credible aquaculture certification schemes. Among the criteria included, the guidelines state that “child labour should not be used in a manner inconsistent with ILO conventions and international standards”.

The present document is one outcome of ongoing collaboration between FAO and the ILO on addressing child labour as well as promoting decent work in the wider agriculture sector, including fisheries and aquaculture. A joint FAO-ILO workshop on child labour in fisheries and aquaculture was held in April 2010. Its participants agreed on a number of recommendations for tackling child labour relating to legal and enforcement measures, policy interventions and practical actions. The need for awareness raising and provision of guidance were also among the workshop recommendations (FAO, 2010).

Cooperation among UN agencies is also established on related issues. The ILO, IMO and FAO have jointly prepared a Code of Safety for Fishermen and Fishing Vessels and Voluntary Guidelines for the Design, Construction and Equipment of Vessels. The application of these two instruments is limited to fishing vessels of 24m in length and over. More recently, they have been complemented with Voluntary Guidelines for the Design, Construction and Equipment of Small Fishing Vessels (2005) and there has also been agreement on a final draft on Safety Recommendations for decked fishing vessels of less than 12 metres in length and undecked fishing vessels. In addition to providing comprehensive

information on safety standards, the draft also specifically refers to the requirements on children’s size life jackets onboard small fishing vessels.

Extensive collaboration among partners takes place within ILO’s *International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC)*. IPEC was created in 1992 with the overall goal of the progressive elimination of child labour, which is to be achieved through strengthening the capacity of countries to deal with the problem and promoting a worldwide movement to combat child labour. IPEC currently has operations in 88 countries and is the largest programme of its kind globally and the biggest single operational programme of the ILO.  

### 4.2. National implementation and regional collaboration

Ratification and endorsement of international conventions and agreements are important policy statements for promoting international cooperation and coordination, and for providing a framework for action at the national level. However, to create real impact, these commitments need to be translated into national legislation and implemented. As explained above, the ILO international agreements give quite substantial ‘homework’ to countries on precise issues, aiming at facilitating the combat against child labour. This includes, among other things, identification and definition of worst forms of child labour and hazardous work (C182) and deciding on minimum ages (C138).

Countries should also make other provisions, as required, in addition to those prescribed in the ILO international conventions to ensure that the rights of children are protected in accordance with the CRC. There is a need to ensure that there is adequate legislation in all relevant areas, such as OHS and fisheries management and these laws and regulations should make reference to children. For example, OHS laws and regulations could restrict the amount of weight that can be carried by children. In Box 11, a couple of examples of national legislation are given.

In order to ensure collaboration and coordination on child labour across different sectors, there is a need to establish institutional arrangements for this purpose between the ministries, government agencies and other involved stakeholders. Mechanisms and procedures to facilitate collaboration between different actors may be required both at the national and local level. They could be in the form of new structures and designations (focal points, child labour committees, technical working groups, etc) or additions to the mandates of existing coordination mechanisms (child protection committees, OHS working groups, etc). In areas and situations where migration takes place – something that is common in many small-scale fisheries communities – regional and cross-border collaboration will also be essential. Regional organizations such as Regional Fishery Bodies (RFBs) and Regional Economic Communities (RECs) could be useful players in this context.

Laws and regulations only become effective when they are implemented and enforced. Effective implementation tends to be based around incentives and governments need to ensure that such frameworks and measures are in place. These can be negative in the form of penalties for non-compliance or positive inducing the desired behaviour. A combination of different incentives is generally required and they should be relevant to and based on an understanding of the national and local context. There may be a need to strengthen labour inspection, port state control, border controls and other relevant enforcement mechanisms – including training of labour inspectors and other monitoring bodies – at the same time as ensuring that, for example, adequate and affordable schools that meet the needs of fishing and aquaculture communities are available. Economic incentives can involve improved access to markets (see also the chapter on *Taking action to combat* .

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child labour below). Some of these arrangements may be a particular challenge in the often remote small-scale fishing communities and will hence require special attention.

**Box 11: Examples of national child labour legislation**

**The Indian Constitution and the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act**

Although India has yet to ratify the ILO Convention on Minimum Age (C138) and the ILO Convention on Worst Forms of Child Labour (C182), it has made provisions in national and state legislation to deal with child labour issues. According to Article 24 of the Indian Constitution, it is a fundamental right that no child below the age of 14 years be employed to work in any factory or mine or engaged in any other hazardous employment. It is also a fundamental right that the State should provide education to all children from the age of 6 to 14 years for the completion of elementary education—meaning education from class I to class VIII. Further, it is a fundamental duty of a parent or guardian to provide opportunities for education to his child/ward between the age of 6 and 14. The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act (2009) came into force on 1 April 2010 with the aim of establishing in the entitlement to education of children in the 6-14 age group in the Indian Constitution. Compulsory education means to provide elementary education to every child between the ages of 6 and 14 years, and to ensure compulsory admission, attendance, and completion of elementary education by every child in this age group. The government should also provide early childhood care and free pre-school education to children above the age of 3 to prepare them for elementary education. India has also created a national commission, as well as state commissions, for the protection of the rights of the child.

**Employment of Children and Child Labour Legislation: the United States**

Under the Federal Law for net fishing in the United States, children below the age of 15 can work outside school hours up to three hours on a school day and up to eight hours on a non-school day, subject to a maximum of 18 hours in any week when school is in session and no more than 40 hours per week when school is not in session. They can be employed from 7 am to 7 pm (except when the evening hours are extended to 9 pm between 1 June and 5 September). Minors under the age of 18 are prohibited from activities such as operating power driven hoisting apparatus; operating, setting up, adjusting, repairing, oiling, cleaning power driven meat processing machines regardless of the product being processed by these machines, including seafood; and operating circular saws, band saws, or guillotine shears. Minors under the age of 16 are prohibited from operating or tending of hoisting apparatus, from filleting fish, and work in any of the occupations determined to be hazardous by the Secretary of Labour. Parents are prohibited from employing their own children in hazardous occupations.

*Source: Boockmann, 2009; and US Department of Labour, 2004, referred to in Mathew, 2010.*

Institutional and social incentives include “participatory governance arrangements that induce support from stakeholders” and “community-based institutions and social environments that create peer pressure on individuals to comply with agreed-upon community rules” (page 83, De Young, Charles & Hjort, 2008). Such incentives, including buy-in by communities and stakeholders, are particularly important in the informal sector. Because of the key role of community participation, various aspects of this issue are discussed in several of the following sections (see directly below as well as the chapter on *Closing the data and knowledge gap*).
4.3. Engagement of communities and civil society organizations

While appropriate policy, legal and institutional frameworks are fundamental for addressing child labour, such formal arrangements are likely to be insufficient in the informal sector, in particular where poverty is an underlying issue and the traditional ways of organising work in fisheries and aquaculture include children’s labour. Many children work helping their parents or family members without being employed. This work takes place in the household sphere, assisting in chores in the home, as well in fisheries and aquaculture activities. In many communities, there is likely to be very limited awareness of the consequences of child labour and – because ‘children have always worked’ – parents and community members may be ignorant about the issue. There may also be resistance to abiding by rules administered ‘from above’ (central government) and, especially in remote areas, difficulties in monitoring and ensuring that laws and regulations are followed. While the responsibility of ensuring that child labour legislation is implemented lies with national governments, there needs to be strong collaboration from the grass root level to make things happen in practice. The process of addressing child labour hence needs to start with assessments and cautious debates that are context specific and participatory.

Alternative approaches are needed to engage with communities and create awareness on child labour and ensure that parents and communities understand the importance of investing in their children’s education and future. This is likely to require not only awareness raising, but also more in-depth training and capacity and organizational development. Some of this work and efforts could be included in existing strategies, plans and initiatives by governments or development partners for fisheries and aquaculture management and development, or in communication and extension projects. It should be ensured that the required knowledge and competencies are available within relevant existing community organizational structures, e.g. school management committees or fisheries management councils. Employers’ and workers’ associations should be encouraged to also reach out to the informal sector and self-employed fishers, fish farmers and fish workers. Communities could also be encouraged to establish protection networks and community watch systems to identify, address or refer cases of child labour to the appropriate authorities or organizations for further action (see also the section on Utilising information: raising awareness, strengthening capacities and improving policy coherence).
KEY MESSAGES 4

- There is an international policy and legal framework for tackling child labour, but many instruments still need to be translated into national legislation and implemented. A fundamental international commitment with regard to children is the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. The ILO conventions on Minimum Age (C138), on Worst Forms of Child Labour (C182) and on Work in Fishing (C188) are particularly important to child labour. There are also instruments and guidelines specific to fisheries and aquaculture, e.g. the FAO Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries.

- Governments need to ensure that national policy, legal and institutional frameworks are in place to address child labour. However, laws are only effective if they are implemented, and incentives are required to ensure compliance. Regional and cross-border collaboration may be required where migration is a common livelihood strategy, which it is in many small-scale fishing communities.

- In the informal sector, community engagement and stakeholder participation are particular important. Ensuring community awareness and buy-in are essential for successful results.
5. Deciding what constitutes child labour

5.1. Risk assessments

A critical first step towards eliminating child labour is to understand what constitutes hazardous work. A classification is needed for distinguishing between acceptable work for children, child labour and worst forms of child labour. Risk assessment is an important tool for identifying and addressing safety and health hazards in general. Informed risk assessment, through community participation, bringing in expertise on OHS as well as specific knowledge on fisheries and aquaculture operations, is also important for determining what types of activities and specific tasks pose risks to children and young persons and, if possible, how to eliminate or mitigate these risks.

Box 12: What are hazards and risks?

“Hazard” and “risk” are two terms that are used frequently in the context of risk assessment and also when talking about OHS and child labour in other respects. A “hazard” is anything with the potential to do harm. A “risk” is the likelihood of potential harm from that hazard being realized. For example, the hazard associated with fishing at sea in bad weather might be falling overboard and drowning. The risk will be high if the vessel is not built and equipped to the required safety standards for the operations to be carried out and the expected weather conditions. If however, the vessel is fitted with safety equipment and proper safety procedures are used, the risk is likely to be lower.

Source: Adapted from IPEC.

A risk assessment consists of three main parts: (i) identifying the hazards, (ii) evaluating the risks, and (iii) introducing health and safety measures:

• The first step is to identify the hazard(s), defined as the potential to cause harm. Hazards can include bad weather, machinery, tools, transport, processes, substances such as chemicals, dust, noise, and disease, etc. The aim is to spot the hazards that could result in harm to the safety or health of those working. A systematic approach should yield information on:
  ➢ What work activities and processes are dangerous; and
  ➢ How many workers are at risk for each hazardous activity, and whether they are women, men, boys or girls?
• The next step is to evaluate the nature and level of risk for each hazard identified (as different risk reduction measures will be required for each hazard). Risk can be defined as the likelihood that the harm from a particular hazard is realised.
• Finally, the health and safety measures that need to be put in place for each hazard to prevent or reduce the risk of occurrence of fatalities, injury or illness should be identified. These measures can be divided into six categories and should be applied in this order, i.e. a category 2 measure should only be considered when a category 1 measure is not feasible or not sufficient, a category 3 measure only when category 2 does not work, etc. There may also be cases where children need to be removed from certain work, or prohibited to carry it out, if the risks are considerable.

1 Eliminating the risk is always the best solution. For example, by not allowing fishing under certain weather.
2 **Substitution** that implies a reduction of risk is the next best risk reduction option after elimination. For example, substituting a toxic chemical used in aquaculture with a less toxic one.

3 **Introducing new or additional technology** may be an effective action to reduce the risk if elimination or substitution is not feasible. For example, soundproofing a noisy machine, installing dust-extracting equipment in the boat building workshop, or using a wheelbarrow or hand cart to carry heavy loads of fish or nets.

4 **Using safe work practices, procedures and methods, linked to appropriate information and training** can reduce the risk related to certain work by ensuring that dangerous tasks are carried out in a safe – or safer – manner. This would require that the workplace is well organised and that those concerned are properly trained. The ILO Convention on Work in Fishing specifically stipulates the need for countries to establish regulations obliging vessel owners to establish “on-board procedures for the prevention of occupational accidents, injuries and diseases, taking into account the specific hazards and risks on the fishing vessel concerned” (Article 32).

5 **Providing medical health prevention measures** may help workers not to fall ill by detecting any potential harm or warning signs early on when carrying out hazardous work. For example, regular lung function tests for workers exposed to potentially harmful levels of dust.

6 **Utilisation of Personal Protective Equipment** (PPE - a term which includes clothing). Generally, PPE should never be the first way in which to protect workers. However, in fishing, especially onboard vessels, the availability and use of life jackets constitute a basic requirement that dramatically reduces the risk of drowning from falling over board. PPE should be provided to supplement other health and safety measures and has to be of good quality to provide genuine health and safety protection. Children’s PPE need to be the right size to provide protection against drowning.

With regard to risk assessments on fishing vessels, guidance is found in the ILO/IMO/FAO codes and voluntary guidelines mentioned above. In accordance with the ILO Work in Fishing convention (C188), government authorities should put in place the necessary framework to ensure that “fishing vessel owners, skippers, fishers and other relevant persons be provided with sufficient and suitable guidance, training material, or other appropriate information on how to evaluate and manage risks to safety and health on board fishing vessels” (Article 32). Moreover, on the issue of medical health checks, C188 stipulates that, in general and in particular for workers onboard vessels of 24 metres in length that normally remain at sea for more than three days, no fishers shall work “without a valid medical certificate attesting to fitness to perform their duties” (Article 10).

The basic principles and steps of a risk assessment are the same whether carried out in a large work place (a fish processing plant or larger aquaculture farm), for a small family business (a small-scale fishing boat or fish smoking facility) or for a sector or industry segment (a certain type of fishery or aquaculture) but the scale and scope will of course vary.

In the context of child labour, the risk assessment should of course focus on the risks to children. As noted above (see Box 6), children tend to be at greater risk than adults. This means that hazards identified for adults need to be evaluated in relation to children, using the appropriate criteria and standards. It also means that work tasks that are not considered hazardous for adults may be so for children and should hence be included in the child work risk assessment. Where general OHS risk assessments have already been done, these could constitute useful starting points, but it should be noted that additional assessments will be needed focusing specifically on evaluating the risks posed to children. IPEC in Cambodia has developed special checklists for self-monitoring of children OHS in different types of fisheries related work places. The checklists provide an easy system for assessing
the extent to which child labour regulations are communicated and followed, identifying hazards and safety measures taken in the workplace as well as detecting available (or missing) personal welfare facilities (e.g. safe drinking water). Once the checklist has been filled in, it can be used for taking action on priority issues (IPEC-ILO Cambodia, 2003).

Below, the work on establishing national lists on hazardous work and defining what is child labour is discussed. This is linked closely to the first part of the risk assessment process described above (identification of hazards). The subsequent chapter proposes actions for improving the data available on child labour, something that would be an important input particularly into the second part of the risk assessment process (evaluation of the nature and level of risks). The third chapter discusses actions for how to eliminate child labour, including risk reduction measures as covered by risk assessment part three (putting health and safety measures in place).

Table 3 summarises the different steps and components of a risk assessment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Health and safety risk assessment form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>STEP 1</strong> WORK HAZARDS and possible INJURIES or HEALTH EFFECTS (for each hazard)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>STEP 2</strong> WORKERS MOST AT RISK (for each hazard)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>STEP 3</strong> RISK REDUCTION MEASURES (for each hazard, use the list below in the order it is written)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: The components of an OHS risk assessment

- Adult female worker
- Adult male worker
- Young female worker
- Young male workers

1. Elimination of risk
2. Substitution
3. Technology measures
4. Work organization, information & training
5. Medical/health control measures
6. Personal protective equipment

5.2. Hazardous work lists

Risk assessments as described above can be used as a tool by governments in the process of identifying hazardous work for children in accordance with the ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour convention. Countries that have ratified this convention are obligated under Article 4 to draw up a list of hazardous work activities and sectors that are prohibited for children. Moreover, the ILO Work in Fishing convention requires countries to determine what activities should and should not be carried out by those less than 18 years of age, and by children between 15 or 16 and 18 (Article 9). In drawing up a national list, countries must also identify where such hazardous work is found and devise measures to implement prohibitions or restrictions based on the hazards included in their list. Because this list is critical to subsequent efforts to eliminate hazardous child labour, the convention
emphasizes the importance of a proper consultative process, especially with workers’ and employers’ organizations, in drawing up, implementing and periodically revising it.

Advice for governments and the social partners on some hazardous child labour activities that should be prohibited is given in Paragraph 3 of the ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour Recommendation No. 190 (1999), which accompanies the ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour convention: “In determining the types of work referred to under Article 3(d) of the convention, and in identifying where they exist, consideration should be given, inter alia, to:

(a) work which exposes children to physical, psychological or sexual abuse;
(b) work underground, under water, at dangerous heights or in confined spaces;
(c) work with dangerous machinery, equipment and tools, or which involves the manual handling or transport of heavy loads;
(d) work in an unhealthy environment which may, for example, expose children to hazardous substances, agents or processes, or to temperatures, noise levels, or vibrations damaging to their health;
(e) work under particularly difficult conditions such as work for long hours or during the night or work where the child is unreasonably confined to the premises of the employer.”

5.3. Criteria relevant to fisheries and aquaculture

Based on the framework and good practices described above, critical activities, circumstances, substances and processes that are relevant to hazardous work for children in the fisheries and aquaculture sector should be identified. Building on these factors, criteria for evaluating hazards in the sector should be developed. These need to be appropriately defined in the national and local context and should facilitate the drawing up of national – and/or local – lists of hazardous work to support the establishment of appropriate national legislation on child labour in fisheries and aquaculture.

Particularly in situations with limited resources, it is likely that efforts need to be focused on the most common types of work in which children are engaged. Hence, depending on the types of fisheries and aquaculture activities that exist or are most widespread in a particular location or country, the priority hazards to investigate may vary.

Examples of criteria that could be considered for fisheries and aquaculture in order to define hazardous work include:

- **In capture fishing:**
  - The hours required to be on board the vessel at sea. Children should not be out at sea at night and the number of hours per day and week should be limited (see the ILO Work in Fishing convention).
  - Weather conditions and distance from shore in combination with the size and type of vessel and availability of safety equipment as well as SAR services. Also, exposure to sun or cold during many hours.
  - The type of gear used and the physical strength required as well as involvement in mechanised work processes that could be considered dangerous.
  - If diving, the depth required and the potential hazards in the form of gear entanglement or exposure to animals or plants that can cause harm.
  - The working (and living) conditions onboard the vessel with regard to space, availability of sanitary facilities, and food and drinking water.

- **In boat building:**
  - The level of exposure to noise, (saw) dust and toxic chemicals.
The need to operate tools or be involved in work processes that could be considered dangerous.

- **In aquaculture:**
  - Exposure to toxic chemicals, including fertilisers.
  - The potential exposure to waterborne diseases (in freshwater) or other risks (e.g., gear entanglement or dangerous animals or plants) when submerged in water or diving.
  - The existence of security risks, especially if working at night or in pond guarding functions.

- **In fish processing and marketing:**
  - The exposure to potentially hazardous substances, e.g., smoke (in artisanal fish processing) or chemicals such as insecticides.
  - The need to use tools (e.g., sharp knives) or be involved in work processes that could be considered dangerous (e.g., in larger-scale processing plants).
  - The requirement to travel during long hours, or at night, including the existence of security risks.
  - The perceived necessity to use potentially illegal, immoral or otherwise harmful practices such as fish-for-sex transactions.
  - The need to carry heavy loads.

In all subsectors, it is important to also include— in addition to those types of hazards mentioned above from the ILO Convention on the Worst Forms of Child Labour— more general considerations such as the number of working hours and to what extent work interferes with schooling. Work that stops a child from going to school is considered child labour. This may have particular relevance to capture fishing since going out to sea (or on a lake) in many cases can be unpredictable in the sense that it may difficult to know beforehand how long the fishing trip will last.

Consideration should also be given to household chores. In this area, there may be physically hazardous work—such as carrying heavy loads of water or firewood— or mentally demanding (e.g., taking responsibility for younger siblings) or long hours that prevent the child from going to school or getting enough time to play or even sleep. This may be especially true for children, usually girls, combining work in economic activities and household chores.

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**KEY MESSAGES 5**

- When deciding what constitutes child labour and draw up hazardous work lists in accordance with the ILO Convention on Worst Form of Child Labour, risk assessments can be used to define hazards, evaluate risks, and identify measures to eliminate or mitigate the risks.

- Criteria for defining hazardous work onboard a fishing vessel could include hours at sea, weather conditions, type of gear used and related work processes, need for diving, and general working (and living) conditions onboard the vessel. In the post-harvest sector, in boat building and in aquaculture, there are other potential hazards including the exposure to smoke (when smoking fish), the noise level (in a boat building workshop) or the use of toxic substances (in aquaculture).

- Consideration should also be given to household chores where physically hazardous or mentally demanding chores may exist.
6. Closing the data and knowledge gap

6.1. Why is information needed?

While there is a general understanding of the reasons behind and consequences of child labour, including its link to poverty (as described in Part 1), there is still a great need to know more about these relationships – in particular in specific local contexts – in order to effectively address child labour. Because of its complexity and the need to engage with communities, understanding the circumstances under which child labour takes place is crucial. Such improved understanding is required widely – among decision and policy makers, development partners and communities themselves. Information and data are also needed in order to fulfil international obligations (e.g. to draw up hazardous work lists and further assess the risks for children involved in work in fisheries and aquaculture) and update national policy and legislative frameworks. Closing the knowledge gap implies both improving the availability of quantitative and qualitative data as well as making information available and ensuring that it is utilised.

6.2. Improving data collection and analysis

There are two main strategies that can be used to achieve better data availability. One is to integrate child work and labour aspects into existing data collection and information procedures and systems. The other strategy is to conduct specific risk assessments and surveys explicitly addressing OHS, hazardous work and child labour in a specific location or subsector. A combination of the two strategies would be the preferred approach to meet data needs for both longer term statistical analyses and monitoring, and for planning and implementing specific action programmes.

6.3. Integration into existing information systems

By making an inventory of existing information sources, data collection exercises, and national statistics and survey instruments, governments should identify where to include data collection with regard to children’s work and child labour in fisheries and aquaculture. This is likely to be the most cost-effective way of improving basic information on the subject. Some specific good practices in this respect include:

- Adapt and integrate aspects of children’s work and labour in fisheries and aquaculture into standard household and living standard measurement surveys (LSMS) through the introduction of sector modules or specific questions, and oversampling to obtain representative information on specific hotspots.
- Ensure sufficient disaggregation in relevant surveys: all data should be disaggregated by age (relevant ILO Minimum Age convention) and sex and by industrial and occupational classifications and give details on specific activity and time use.
- Compile, compare and extrapolate data and results from existing surveys, both at national and local levels, e.g. populations censuses, LSMS and assessments carried out for SIMPOC purposes.

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22 See page 12.
- Compile existing data and information on occupational injuries and diseases in order to improve the understanding of occupational hazards, both in general and with regard to children.
- Seek innovative solutions and proxy variables, and combine different sources of information – including indigenous knowledge and the understanding of the environment and management of fisheries and aquaculture resources – to overcome the limitations of the underreporting of sensitive child labour information.

### 6.4. Specific assessments

In line with the rationale of the risk assessment process described above and in particular if supported by appropriate OHS legislation, businesses and employers in the formal sector can be requested to carry out surveys at the work places under their responsibility to identify hazards, risks and security measures in relation to children. However, while it is likely to be practical to impose risk assessment and reporting obligations on businesses and industries of a certain size – i.e. as an employer’s responsibility – it is less feasible in the informal sector or with regard to household chores. Governments may therefore want to assign the responsibility to undertake certain risk assessments to a relevant competent authority or collaborate with a qualified research institute, NGO or other organizations.

Depending on the data already available in the particular country or situation, there may also be a need to undertake action-oriented research and case studies. An example is the work on Lake Volta by the Centre for Advanced Training in Rural Development and FAO. The methodology used in this work is briefly described in Box 13.

Risk assessments and other surveys and research should always be carried out with the participation of those working in the sector and other relevant stakeholders. If there are civil society organizations (e.g. fisheries and aquaculture socio-professional organizations, community organizations and women’s associations), the involvement and collaboration of these organizational structures should be sought. Workers, including children, and their organizations should be asked for their views on the dangers of the job(s) they carry out. Lessons can be learnt from experiences of previous accidents and work-related ill health. Close cooperation with those involved as well as the advice from appropriate experts are required to ensure correct analyses and promote the future implementation of the measures that will be proposed based on the assessment.

### Box 13: Study on child labour and children’s work in agriculture in Ghana

The work on children’s work and labour in fisheries of the research project “Child Labour and Children’s Economic Activities in Agriculture in Ghana” was based around case studies in two districts at the Volta Lake and two in coastal areas. Rapid and action-oriented assessment methods and several data collection strategies were used, such as:

- Interviews of key informants/experts, e.g. representatives of different ministries and government institutions, international organizations, members of district assemblies, trade unions, NGOs and traditional authorities;
- Focus group discussions with community members such as participants in Child Labour Committees, teachers and associations of fishers and fish processors;
- Semi-structured interviews with children, parents, employers and teachers;
- Observations at places where children work such as landing or processing sites.

Interview results from different sources were triangulated to cross-check the validity and
credibility of information. As far as possible, children’s views and opinions on work situations were assessed through, for example, the recalling of their activities of the previous day and biographic interviews. The selection of the working children interviewed as well as their employers, guardians or parents followed the snowball principle. Contacts were made through staff of the District Assemblies, NGOs and traditional authorities. The aim was to cover typical work situations and the work conditions of children in fishing.

Source: Zdunnek et al, 2008

6.5. Utilising information: raising awareness, strengthening capacities and improving policy coherence

Improving the information available and working closely with stakeholders on child labour issues are two important strategies for raising awareness on child labour, its causes and likely consequences. Enhanced awareness as well as capacity building with regard to what is at stake and what can be done are needed both at local and national levels, among communities, governments and their development partners (national and local levels), civil society organizations, socio-professional and producers’ organizations (e.g. fishers associations), and employers’ and workers’ associations. Media, schools, parents and guardians should also be targeted in awareness campaigns as well as in programmes supporting income generation (through, for example, skills and entrepreneurship training and micro-finance schemes). At the community level, it is – as already mentioned above – essential to secure community engagement by making assessments and actions participatory.

For governments and their development partners to be able to support communities and actors at the local level in child labour elimination efforts – as well as to take action at the national level with regard to child labour legislation as discussed above – they also need to have adequate knowledge and capacities. This knowledge and capacity are not only required at the level of the ministry that is directly in charge of child labour issues but also by those working in fisheries and aquaculture administrations and organizations, both at national and local levels. This cross-sectoral capacity development is important for policy coherence. Child labour considerations should be integrated into fisheries and aquaculture frameworks, and fisheries and aquaculture aspects included in child labour policies and strategies. By integrating and mainstreaming fisheries and aquaculture child labour concerns in relevant strategies and programmes (in a way similar to how gender should be mainstreamed), the most benefits are likely to be achieved.

KEY MESSAGES 6

• More information on child labour is needed to understand its causes and consequences. Both quantitative and qualitative information is required. Data can be obtained by integrating data collection needs into existing information systems and processes, and by carrying out specific assessments in collaboration with stakeholders.

• Information is required for awareness raising at all levels. It is also important for cross-sectoral capacity development in support of policy coherence; child labour concerns should be taken into account in fisheries and aquaculture policies and programmes, and the characteristic of fisheries and aquaculture need to be considered in child labour strategies.
7. Taking action to combat child labour

7.1. Action framework

The different areas discussed above – ensuring adequate policy, legal and institutional frameworks, deciding what constitutes child labour, and closing the data and knowledge gap – form an important basis for addressing child labour. These suggested considerations and actions should be integral parts of holistic and participatory approaches that also contain concrete actions to combat child labour.

There are different types of actions that are needed. ILO divides work on the elimination of child labour into three main categories:

- **Prevention** is the primary long-term aim. It means identifying children at potential risk, and stopping them from becoming child labourers in the first place by keeping them out of unsuitable work, especially hazardous labour.
- **Withdrawal, referral and rehabilitation** of children from worst forms of child labour.
- **Protection** of children who have achieved the current minimum legal employment age (14-17 years depending on the country) but who continue to be at risk. This requires improving OHS, and working conditions and arrangements in the workplace.

Different actions for preventing child labour, and withdrawing and protecting child labourers are discussed below.

7.2. Preventing child labour

**Addressing poverty**

Investment in the prevention of child labour is the most cost-effective approach to ending child labour in the long run and should hence be the primary long-term strategy. It means tackling the root causes of child labour so that children at potential risk never become child labourers in the first place. By addressing poverty and promoting development, children stand a better chance to keep out of unsuitable work and especially hazardous labour. To ensure that parents see schooling as the best option for their children, families need, among other things, income security and social benefits, like health insurance, to survive short and long-term crises. Access to good quality and relevant schooling is another key factor; education has to be seen as a worthwhile investment in the future.

In many small-scale fishing and fish farming communities, poverty is a complex issue\(^{23}\). To address poverty and vulnerabilities, integrated approaches tend to be required. In many cases, there is a need to improve fisheries management and secure access to fishery and other resources by small-scale producers. However, the issue of resource sustainability is not always the main concern of small-scale fishing communities. Therefore, efforts to bring about responsible fishing and sustainable fish farming need to be combined with social and economic development in order to create the incentives and ability to engage in fishery resource management. Applying a rights-based approach to fisheries management implies also addressing broader human rights aspects of fishing community

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\(^{23}\) See also the chapter on *Health and safety in fisheries and aquaculture* in Part 1.
livelihoods at the same time as securing sustainable resource utilisation. This requires taking a holistic livelihood approach, working across sectors and applying multi-stakeholder interventions. It could include, for example, the introduction of micro-insurance schemes, or investments in health and education. The latter is of particular importance in the context of child labour and is discussed in the following section.

As also mentioned above in the context of policy coherence, cross-integration of child labour and fisheries and aquaculture considerations and aspects in programmes is important. Accordingly, fisheries and aquaculture governance and management initiatives should take account of overall poverty aspects – particularly in the small-scale fisheries context – and fisheries and aquaculture considerations should be included in overall national and local development and poverty alleviation initiatives. Likewise, programmes working towards the elimination of child labour in fishing and fish farming communities need to take the particular characteristics of the sector into consideration – and child labour should be a cross-cutting aspect that is mainstreamed in resource management and development efforts in fishing and fish farming communities. In Box 14, a simple check-list for assessing child labour issues when planning support programmes in fisheries and aquaculture is provided.

Poverty and child labour can also be addressed by policies and actions that promote integration of decent work concerns as part of development and that address the interactions between adult and child employment. Youth employment – for those who are above the minimum legal age and no longer attending school – should be promoted. This could also include support to safe migration of youth so they can obtain decent work. Migration awareness campaigns are essential in both sending and receiving communities and locations.

Successful implementation of poverty focused programmes can turn the vicious cycle of poverty and child labour into a virtuous cycle as shown in Figure 2.

**Figure 2: The virtuous cycle of appropriate actions**

![Diagram showing the virtuous cycle](Source: FAO Presentation on “Good practices for addressing child labour in agriculture”, by Bernd Seiffert (FAO Child Labour Focal Point), 26 May 2011, Salima, Malawi.)
Box 14: Simple check-list for addressing child labour in fisheries and aquaculture support programmes

When planning a support programme in the fisheries and aquaculture sector, in particular in the small-scale informal sector, the following check-list of questions to be considered may be useful to ensure that child labour considerations are adequately dealt with. By answering the questions, information will be provided to allow for formulating actions to address child labour, if required. The check-list has been formulated to be suitable for assessing the situation in a particular location, community or group of communities, but could also be adapted to the national level and country programmes.

**Policy, legal and institutional frameworks**

- What government agency is responsible for coordinating work on child labour? What other relevant institutional structures and organizations are there? What coordination mechanisms are in place?
- Are there government policies and legislation on child labour? Are they implemented?
- Is child labour and hazardous work in fisheries and aquaculture defined? Is there a list of hazardous work in accordance with the ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour convention? Does it cover fisheries and aquaculture? Have OHS risk assessments been carried out that are of relevance to child labour in fisheries and aquaculture?
- Are there any (local or national) good practices on child labour elimination that can be applied?
- What is the level of awareness on child labour issues among (local and national) decision-makers?

**Occupations, working conditions and children’s work**

- What subsectors are present (capture fishing, fish farming, fish processing and marketing)?
- What techniques and production systems are used (fishing techniques, types of vessels/craft, intensive/extensive aquaculture, species produced and types of production systems, fish processing methods used, etc)?
- Where is fish marketed and how is it transported?
- What other auxiliary activities such as boat building and net making exist?
- In which of the above identified activities are children working? What jobs do they do? Do the same children also work outside fisheries and aquaculture (doing what?) or do they tend to stay within the sector?
- Is there potentially dangerous or harmful work in the sector and what processes, equipment and work tasks and conditions are considered hazardous for children and/or for adults? Why and how? (see also Step 1 of risk assessment and criteria relevant to fisheries and aquaculture on page 34).
- How many children (and of what ages, boys or girls) are involved in child labour and/or hazardous work? (see also Step 2 of risk assessment above).
- How many hours do children work (and with what) and does their work interfere with schooling?
- What are the main reasons for children working? Are there different reasons for boys and girls, and for different age groups?

**Education and other aspects of community life**

- Is school compulsory, available and affordable?
- Are there any incentives in place for attending school (e.g. school feeding programmes)?
- Are school curricula and school hours suitable for children working in fishing and aquaculture?
- Do youth have decent employment? Is there unemployment and who is unemployed (youth/men/women)? Why?
- What are (local) government plans for the schooling and educations facilities in the future?
- If children do not go to school, what are the reasons?
- What social services are available in the area/community? What are the main perceived poverty and vulnerability factors?
• Are there functioning community and socio-professional organizations?
• Have there been or are there currently any actions against child labour at the local level? By whom on what scale?
• What is the level of awareness on child labour issues among community members?

The importance of education

A key strategy for poverty alleviation, long-term sustainable development and reduction of child labour is education. Improved access to quality education is also something that is likely to have a positive effect on child labour in the shorter term. Governments should provide compulsory, affordable and quality schooling in fishing and fish farming communities. While still providing basic education, the curricula and school hours should be adapted to suit the particular context and rhythm of fishing communities. It could be combined with appropriate apprenticeship and vocational training programmes. In the agriculture sector, Junior Farmer Field and Life Schools (JFFLS) have been introduced in some countries and a similar approach could be developed for the fisheries and aquaculture sector (see Box 15).

Box 15: Junior Farmer Field and Life Schools (JFFLS)

Youth employment has become a major concern in many countries around the world. As policymakers consider measures to help young people make the transition into the labour market and obtain decent work, they are hampered by a lack of information on what their options are and what works in different situations. The rising concern over youth unemployment led to enhanced engagement and effort by the international development community. To address these issues, FAO introduced the Junior Farmer Field and Life School (JFFLS) approach in 2004. The approach is now used in a number of countries in Africa, in Asia (Nepal) and in the Middle East (West Bank and Gaza Strip).

The JFFLS approach combines both agricultural and life skills. Specifically trained extension workers, teachers and social animators use a participatory methodology to pass on agricultural knowledge and life skills to young boys and girls. For one entire school year, a multidisciplinary team of facilitators leads participatory sessions with a group of youth who range in age from 15 to 18. These sessions are given two to three times a week in the field and classroom after regular school hours. The one-year learning programme follows the crop cycle; links are established between agriculture, nutrition, gender equality, child protection, education, business skills, health, hygiene, sanitation and other life-skills knowledge so that young participants learn to grow healthy crops while making informed decisions for leading healthy lives. Participatory field activities include crop selection and cultivation, land preparation, pest management, cultivation of medicinal plants and income generation. With regard to child labour, a specific training module on child labour prevention in agriculture has been developed jointly with ILO although child and youth protection have always been implicitly part of the JFFLS concept. An innovative aspect of the JFFLS is the way youth are encouraged to develop as people; a school timetable includes cultural activities such as singing, dancing, and theatre. This allows the youth to develop confidence while keeping local cultural traditions alive.

24 This section is largely based on FAO/IFAD/ILO, 2010.
The JFFLS process brings together different ministries (education, labour, agriculture, trade etc.) as well as civil society and farmers’ organizations, unions and youth associations. These linkages have proved crucial in strengthening the capacities of the public administration and civil society. They have also been fundamental for the institutionalization of the JFFLS approach and the entrenchment of mechanisms for addressing rural youth unemployment.

Source: FAO, 2011b (see also http://www.fao-ilo.org/fao-ilo-youth/fao-ilo-jffls/en/)

In addition to making education available, incentives may be needed to encourage children to attend school. Such incentives could be school feeding programmes or food-for-schooling. The latter implies that other members of the child’s family can also benefit from the food rations provided by the school, since they are taken home. Moreover, where migrants constitute part of communities, their special needs should be catered for with regard to, for example, enrolment and semester schedules. In many cases, infrastructure will be required as well as incentives to teachers to serve in remote fishing communities.

Special incentives are needed to get more girls into schools. Girls’ education is particularly beneficial as it decreases birth rates as well as infant, child and maternal mortality rates. Education helps protect against HIV and AIDS, increase women’s labour force participation and earnings, and improve their ability to organise in the workplace. It also increases the likelihood that their children are sent to school in the future. Efforts should be made to make schools more ‘girl-friendly’, i.e. by ensuring that schools – as well as transport to and from schools – are safe, increasing the number of female teachers, separating boys and girls latrines, etc. If there are cultural reluctances to send girls to school, it can help to have girls-only schools. Freeing up girls’ time for education by improving rural infrastructure such as water systems and roads and hence making some of their common tasks, e.g. water and firewood collection, less time-consuming is another strategy for promoting girls’ schooling (see also below).

**Changing attitudes: corporate social responsibility**

When consumer awareness of unsustainable or unethical practices increases, the demand on producers and suppliers to use – or not use – certain production systems or procedures intensifies. There is an important movement in many markets requiring sustainably produced fish, and similar demands are also made with regard to the use of socially acceptable production and supply practices. As has already been mentioned above (see page 26), the recent FAO Guidelines on aquaculture certification refer to the adherence to ILO child labour conventions. Around the world, companies are increasingly concerned with child labour in their supply chains. They view it as a potential threat to the sustainability of their supplies, and it is also increasingly seen as inconsistent with company values as well as something that may make customers and top employee candidates shy away.

This development has made companies use social dialogue, international labour standards and collective approaches, and to commit to addressing the root causes of child labour to effectively address the problem. Promoting and supporting corporate social responsibility initiatives can be a powerful strategy for changing attitudes towards child labour. By promoting the establishment of employers’ and workers’ – as well as producers’ and consumers’ – associations and supporting their engagement in such initiatives, the level of child labour tolerance may be curbed. For companies, the possibility to attract justice-conscious customers by being ‘child labour free’ can constitute an important economic incentive.
Investing in technologies and practices to reduce the demand for child labour

In addition to changing attitudes, the demand for child labour can be reduced by introducing technologies and practices that eliminate the need for children’s labour. This could include, for example (as mentioned above), improved community infrastructure with regard to water supplies as well as roads, transport and landing site arrangements to avoid carrying heavy loads. If children are employed in fishing because they are paid less and profitability is an issue (because of overfishing, decreasing fishery resources and hence yields), fisheries management needs to be addressed and more sustainable fishing practices introduced.

7.3. Withdrawing trafficked children and abolishing worst forms of child labour

The ILO’s experience has shown that parents and families who are given a viable choice prefer to keep children out of the workplace. The simple removal of children from the workplace does not have a significant impact unless it is carried out in the context of a national policy that promotes the rights, welfare and sound development of children and encourages their participation in finding solutions to the problem of child labour.

The withdrawal and subsequent rehabilitation of children already at work includes:

- identifying those children in unsuitable work, especially hazardous child labour;
- removing them from workplaces;
- getting them into school and/or skills training;
- ensuring that there is a viable labour market for them to obtain employment;
- monitoring to ensure that they do not return to the same workplace or move to a new workplace.

Box 16: Port state control measures

ILO has developed guidelines for inspection officers carrying out controls with regard to possible violations of national laws and regulations implementing the minimum age requirements of the ILO Convention on Work in Fishing (C188) among fishers onboard foreign fishing vessels visiting their ports. According to the guidelines, inspectors can use the following indicative sources of information for such assessments:

- a crew list, a passport or other official document confirming fishers’ birth dates;
- a work schedule with respect to fishers under the age of 18 to determine hours and nature of work;
- information on types of work on board that have been identified as likely to jeopardize the safety of fishers under the age of 18;
- recent accident reports and safety committee reports to determine whether fishers under the age of 18 were involved;
- interviews, in private, with fishers.

If it is found that there are instances of non-compliance with respect to under age fishers, inspectors should take action, including possible detention of the vessel (see C188, Article, and Chapter 5 of the C188 port State control guidelines), until the situation is rectified.

Source: ILO, 2010 b.
Sometimes immediate action is needed to withdraw children from the worst forms of child labour and provide them with rehabilitation. Measures to withdraw children may rely on persuasion through dialogue with parents, children, employers or law enforcement authorities or radical “rescue” operations. Community-based, integrated initiatives tailored to the specific needs of each target group, with close community participation, have proven to be the most effective solutions. Parents and families need to have alternatives for the withdrawal to be sustainable (see Box 17 for an example from Ghana).

### Box 17: Trafficked children on Lake Volta, Ghana

The International Organization for Migration (IOM) has withdrawn close to 700 children from child labour in the fisheries sector on Lake Volta, Ghana. The children that have been released from child labour have been taken to government rehabilitation centres and given counselling, medical assistance, educational assistance and art therapy for three and a half months.

Project activities have also included visits to fishing villages by IOM and its local partners for awareness raising. Likewise, in the villages of origin, IOM has worked with the chiefs, parents and other community members to inform about the dangers of child labour and human trafficking. Parents have been assisted in identifying income-generating opportunities so that they will not again be forced to send away their children. Fishers who have released children have also received training and been provided with micro credits to enable them to carry out alternative livelihood activities or improve their fishing techniques without using child labour.

*Source: IOM website.*

### 7.4. Protecting children

While children engaged in hazardous work would be better off being withdrawn from these activities, there may be cases where improved protection can change the working conditions sufficiently so that they are safe for children. This may be particularly relevant for the age group 15-17 years, i.e. when they have reached the legal minimum age for employment but with restrictions on the type of work that can be carried out.

Such protection measures would include appropriate technical and safety training for children and youth prior to working on fishing vessels, in fish processing, on fish farms etc. This could imply training in special schools or programmes (vocational training or apprenticeships) or be integrated into school programmes. Training of employers or, for example, adult family members (if children work within the informal household or extended family context), is equally important.

Appropriate personal protective equipment (PPE) for children (e.g. properly-fitted personal flotation devices/lifejackets when on fishing vessels or ear protection in a boat building workshop) should be provided as required. However, it should be stressed that hazardous work is to be prohibited and the first option should be to not have children working in such occupations. Safety equipment, including PPE, may not provide sufficient protection for young persons and is perhaps not used, or not used properly, by young persons.

Strategies and measures to protect children should be closely linked to general efforts to improve OHS in the workplace. For work onboard fishing vessels, safety at sea improvements are very
relevant and, more generally, all actions to eliminate or diminish the risks for injuries or illness at work would be of benefit also for children.

**KEY MESSAGES**

- ILO classifies child labour actions into three categories: prevention, withdrawal and protection.
- Prevention is the most important approach for addressing child labour and achieving long-term sustainable results.
- Successful implementation of poverty-focused, participatory and integrated programmes can turn the vicious cycle of poverty and child labour into a virtuous cycle leading to pro-poor growth.
- Making adequate and affordable education available is a key component of a poverty focused child labour elimination programme. Special incentives may be required to ensure that children attend school, e.g. school feeding programmes or separate schools for girls.
- Changing attitudes and promoting corporate social responsibility as well as introducing technologies and practices that reduce the demand for child labour are other preventive strategies.
- Sometimes urgent action is needed to rescue and rehabilitate children in the worst forms of child labour. Close community participation and collaboration are important for sustainable results.
- Especially for the age group 15-17 years, when children usually are allowed to carry out certain types of work, improved protection can change the working conditions sufficiently so that they are safe. Onboard fishing vessels, the availability and use of life jackets are particularly important.
8. Finding entry points, partners and tools

In order to implement the activities discussed above, there is a need to identify strategies and approaches that will allow for successful results. In addition to the possibility of limited awareness and knowledge on child labour issues, the subject matter may also be highly sensitive, provoke stigma and cause uneasiness at both the community and government levels. When addressing child labour at the national and local level, it is therefore crucial to find entry points, partners and tools that are suitable and work in the particular local context.

Entry points

Approaching child labour issues by addressing overall OHS concerns is likely to create benefits in several ways – both for children and adults. Risk assessments are a key tool for classifying work and identifying hazardous child labour that was discussed above. It was suggested (see page 32) that where general OHS risk assessments have been carried out, these can be used as a starting point for also assessing hazards and risks specific to children. If there are systems and procedures in place for government authorities to monitor OHS and for employers to carry out risk assessments in their work places, this could constitute an entry point for addressing child labour issues. However, such systems and procedures are more likely to exist in the formal sector than in the informal economy where child labour is more generally found.

Nonetheless, starting a discussion on OHS could be a useful approach also in the informal sector. In some cases, this could also be linked to discussions on more cost-effective and environmentally-friendly work practices. For example, smoking fish in traditional ovens often creates smoke that is hazardous at the same time as it consumes more firewood than when using more efficient smoking ovens (see the section on Health and safety in fisheries and aquaculture in Part 1 and Box 18). By integrating child labour concerns into initiatives that address this aspect of the fisheries value chain and working closely with fish smokers, several positive results can be achieved simultaneously: for the adult fish smokers – who are often women – and the children who may be working with them under non-acceptable conditions as well as for the community as a whole.

Box 18: The Ghanaian chorkor oven

In Ghana, smoking is the most widely-used method of preserving, processing and storing fish and is the most common activity for women in fishing communities. However, traditional ovens proved inefficient in capacity and fuel usage, causing poor-quality smoked fish and significant post-harvest losses. More fuel wood than necessary was used, contributing to forest depletion. Women suffered health risks from smoke inhalation, burns and exposure to raw heat. An improved fish smoking oven, developed by FAO and Ghana’s Food Research Institute of the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research was introduced in Ghana in 1969 where it quickly became popular; it is easy and safe to use, has a high processing capacity, uses little fuel wood, results in shorter smoking time and produces high-quality smoked fish. The Chorkor oven has since been introduced and used in many other countries, including Cameroon, Ethiopia, the Gambia, Guinea, Kenya, Lesotho, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zambia. It can be adapted for use wherever fish-smoking is part of post-harvest fisheries tradition.

Source: FAO, 2011 c.
Other entry points for tackling child labour in fisheries include addressing safety at sea in a more general sense. Accidents at sea can lead to child labour, since children may be required to fill in for injured and dead family members, especially in developing countries where welfare systems are lacking. In this context, safety at sea courses and other related activities could provide a good opportunity to introduce discussion of special risks to children and child labour (see Box 19).

**Box 19: Safety at sea**

Safety at sea should be addressed in a holistic and participatory manner. Measures to improve safety can only be truly effective when the motivation to apply them exists. Safety is related to fisheries management, and reasons for deficient safety include financial constraints caused by, for example, diminishing catches. When profitability is decreasing because of overfishing, investments in required equipment or use of safe practices may be ignored. There can also be a lack of knowledge or limited availability of suitable equipment, training, support facilities and/or regulatory frameworks. In countries where appropriate regulations, enforcement and training are in place, there has been a measurable (though not always very large) reduction in the annual number of fatalities over the last 15 years.

*Source: Safety for fishermen website.*

If the elimination of child labour could be made a cross-cutting consideration in all development strategies, programmes and actions – much the same way as gender mainstreaming – it might facilitate addressing the issue also in situations where there is low awareness or even resistance to discussing the matter. By approaching it from the ‘side line’ and in a step-by-step approach, more sustainable results may be achieved. There are of course instances of worst forms of child labour when action is required immediately to withdraw children. However, in order to eliminate all child labour in the future, the issue needs to gain general recognition and solutions that may require a longer term engagement need to be considered alongside direct action.

**Partners**

Along with the suggestion that child labour concerns should be made a cross-cutting issue in development, the need to address child labour through participatory and integrated approaches has been stressed at several points in this document. When governments and their development partners intend to widen the scope of interventions (for example by explicitly taking poverty and education into consideration), collaboration will be required, both at the national and local government levels, outside the agencies that normally have the main responsibility for child labour. For the fisheries and aquaculture sector, there is a need to involve the government agency responsible for the sector. As many fishing and fish farming communities have diversified livelihoods, often including agriculture, there is a need to work closely with the ministry of agriculture. Other line agencies that are needed include, *inter alia*, those responsible for education, health, welfare, and civil and legal protection. Appropriate leadership and coordination mechanisms – promoting awareness raising, collaboration and policy coherence – are needed to ensure that all agencies work together.
In Brazil, coordination between different government entities was improved within the context of an initiative to strengthen the labour inspections services. By “intelligence” action – labour inspectors collecting and cross-checking information from different agencies involved in the fisheries sector - and strategic planning with regard to coordination among different actors, cases of child labour were discovered and addressed along with taking action against the precarious working conditions prevailing on some vessels. During labour inspection operations in the state of Rio de Janeiro in 2010, carried out as a coordinated operation involving the National Coordination of Port and Waterway Labour Inspection (CONITPA) in collaboration with the Navy, the Federal Police, the Ministry of Labour and Employment, the Ministry of Fisheries and the Ministry of the Environment, children were found working as divers untangling nets from motor propellers. These children were referred to the care of the social services and their employers fined.

Outside government agencies and their development partners, important collaborators can be found among socio-professional organizations – representing, for example, small-scale fishers, fish workers and women. Working closely together with employers’ and workers’ associations could be another avenue for addressing child labour. These organizations often have, or could develop, policies and good practice standards, including on child labour. The membership of these organizations tends to be from the formal sector, but there are examples of trade unions moving towards including self-employed producers (farmers, fishers) and others as members (e.g. the Malawian Congress of Trade Unions). As an initial step in a process of stepping up the action against child labour, it may be useful to investigate what government agencies and partner organizations are available and from there build long-term public-private partnerships.

**Tools**

There are a number of tools that can be used in the various components of the process of addressing child labour – for ensuring adequate policy, legal and institutional frameworks; for deciding what constitutes child labour; for closing the data and knowledge gap; and for taking action. Some have already been discussed above (e.g. risk assessment and the check list in Box 14). A few more examples include:

- **A mapping exercise including institutional analysis** (outlining existing institutional structures, as well as their mandates and current and planned programmes and what strengths and capacities they have) will provide a basis for seeking collaboration and introducing child labour considerations as a cross-cutting theme in policies, strategies and programmes. Depending on the scope of the particular initiative, the mapping may be required at the national level as well as in specific locations.

- **Along with the institutional analysis, there may be a need to carry out a review of existing policies and legal provisions**, e.g. what policies are there supporting the elimination of child labour; are existing policies coherent; have the ILO conventions been ratified and translated into national policy?

- **Based on the policy, legal and institutional reviews, a national action plan** for how to address child labour can be drawn up. This should preferably be done through a consultative process, involving participation (through workshops) of relevant government agencies, employers’ and workers’ associations, and civil society and socio-professional organizations. Roles and responsibilities for each partner should be specified as well as what coordination mechanisms are in place – or need to be put in place – for ensuring smooth collaboration.
Where migration is important, regional organizations may also need to be involved to ensure that national plans adequately reflect regional mobility.

- To raise the awareness about child labour at the national (ministerial) level, the government agency in charge of child labour issues may want to ensure that regular reports on the child labour situation are published. The agency may also organise seminars and field visits for other line ministries focusing on different aspects of child labour.
- At the community level, awareness raising and actions against child labour can be promoted by carrying out participatory assessments, analyses and monitoring, and using different communication methods: e.g. radio and TV programmes, public/village meetings and theatre for development (TFD) (see Box 21 and Box 22).

**Box 21: Theatre for development**

Theatre For Development can be used for passing messages, education, participatory analysis and other processes when participation is desired but the issues are complicated and delicate or the social setting does not allow for talking about them openly. UNESCO has played a key role in promoting and developing the concept. A first workshop on TFD was held in Zimbabwe in 1970. Today many development agencies use the technique. More recently, TFD has been proven particularly useful for communicating, educating and informing on subjects such as combating HIV and AIDS or promoting gender equality.


**Box 22: Child labour monitoring**

“One element of child labour programmes that is expressly designed for sustainability is the ‘child labour monitoring’ (CLM) system. This mechanism was developed as a temporary support to the labour inspectorate in reaching the informal economy workplaces where child labour occurs most frequently and where almost all jobs pose some sort of physical or psychological risk. In its simplest form, a three-person team of community members (such as a school teacher, mothers’ club member or retired policeman) are given training in how to monitor child labour. They then periodically visit places where children are likely to be working. If they find a child, they report the case to a specially constituted community committee, as well as to the labour inspector or local government authority for follow-up. Depending on the child’s situation, the committee will recommend a course of action, e.g. in the case of younger children this is usually removal from the workplace and their placement in an appropriate educational programme; in the case of older youth it may be improvement and monitoring of the work environment; assistance to the family is another option.”

*Source: Page 56, ILO, 2011.*
### KEY MESSAGES

- Approaches and strategies need to be applied to address child labour, especially in situations with low awareness and possible uneasiness regarding the issue.
- Entry points, partners and tools that are suitable and work in the particular local context are needed.
- Entry points could be, for example, overall OHS assessments and improvement actions and – in fishing – safety at sea.
- Partners are needed both at national and local levels and include different line ministries and government agencies (needed for an integrated approach), socio-professional organizations and employers’ and workers’ organizations.
- There are many potential tools. In addition to risk assessments and check lists for reviewing child labour in a particular situation, examples include policy, legal and institutional analyses, drawing up national action plans through participatory workshops, improving knowledge through making reports and events on child labour available, and – at the community level – using working methods and communication tools such as participatory assessments, radio and TV programmes, public and village meetings, and theatre for development.
Summary of good practices

Based on the above discussion, good practices for addressing child labour in fisheries and aquaculture can be summarised as follows:

Governments should:

- Accede to international conventions relevant to the elimination of child labour in fisheries and aquaculture.
- Translate their international commitments into national legislation. Ensure that national legislation provides full protection of children according to the CRC and supplemented by the ILO conventions as required (including in the informal sector household chores).
- Ensure implementation of child labour legislation through the use of incentives (negative and positive) and enforcement mechanisms.
- Ensure buy-in from communities and those concerned by involving them directly in the planning and implementation of actions against child labour, i.e. consult with relevant stakeholders, socio-professional organizations, and employers’ and workers’ organizations when formulating policy and defining programmes relevant to child labour (including for the actions listed here).
- Using and promoting risk assessments, define lists of hazardous labour in line with the ILO Child Labour conventions (applying criteria adapted to the characteristics of the fisheries and aquaculture sector).
- Review the data requirements with regard to child labour in fisheries and aquaculture and integrate these needs into existing information collection systems. Improve awareness on child labour at all levels and promote policy coherence.
- Work actively to prevent child labour by addressing poverty and promoting integrated approaches for development and resource and environmental management in fisheries and aquaculture. Mainstream child labour consideration into these processes (make child labour considerations a cross-cutting issue).
- Provide suitable schooling, free of charge, for fishing and fish farming communities. Review curricula and school hours and adjust them to suit the particular needs of coastal and inland communities. Introduce school feeding programmes or other incentives to attract children to school.
- Ensure coordination among different line agencies as well as with other partners, both at national and local levels.
- Seek social dialogue and work with socio-professional organizations and employers’ and workers’ associations to change attitudes towards child labour.
- Support withdrawal of children from trafficking and other worst forms of child labour.
- Promote safety-at-sea and other protection programmes in fisheries and aquaculture for the benefit of both children and adults.

Development partners should assist governments in implementing the above defined actions, in particular:

- Promote training and awareness raising activities on general child labour issues and international policy to governments, civil society organizations and communities.
- Provide support to carry out risk assessments and the definition of national lists of hazardous work (in accordance with the ILO Child Labour conventions).
- Support development of educational facilities and schools in fishing and fish farming communities as well as school feeding programmes and other incentive mechanisms.
• Mainstream child labour in all development projects and programmes.

Civil society organizations and development partners at the local level should:
• Support awareness raising and the changing of attitudes, as required, with regard to child labour.
• Assist in organizational capacity building at the local level.
• Assess and monitor child labour issues at community level through participatory approaches.

Employers’ and workers’ associations and socio-professional organizations should:
• Actively collaborate with governments and their development partners to find practical solutions to prevent and abolish child labour.
• Work together with governments and other partners to conduct risk assessments and identify hazardous child labour (and draw up and periodically revise hazardous work lists).
• Extend membership to self-employed fishers, fish farmers and fish workers as a means to include those working in the informal sector.
• Promote good practice standards refusing child labour and engage in awareness raising campaigns.
References


WEB SITES AND PROGRAMMES

- ILO Sectoral Activities website: [www.ilo.org/sector](http://www.ilo.org/sector) (then click on “Shipping; ports; fisheries; inland waterways” in the left column).


- International Organization for Migration (IOM) website: [http://www.iom.int/](http://www.iom.int/)


- Safety for fishermen website: [http://www.safety-for-fishermen.org](http://www.safety-for-fishermen.org)


- Understanding Children’s Work (UCW), an inter-agency research cooperation project on child labour: [http://www.ucw-project.org/](http://www.ucw-project.org/)
Appendix 1: Developmental differences between child and adult workers

Some main developmental differences for child workers compared to adult workers include:

General
- Tissues and organs mature at different rates, and therefore there is not a specific vulnerable age in general. It depends on the hazard and the degree of risk as to what age the child is most vulnerable
- Per kilogram of body weight, children breathe more air, drink more water, eat more food and use more energy than adults. These higher rates of intake result, for example, in greater exposure to diseases (pathogens) and toxic substances/pollutants
- Small physical size, and being asked to do tasks beyond their physical strength may pose additional risks

Skin
- A child's skin area is 2.5 times greater than adults (per unit body weight) which can result in greater skin absorption of toxics. Skin structure is only fully developed after puberty
- Children have thinner skin so toxics are more easily absorbed

Respiratory
- Children have deeper/more frequent breathing and so can breathe in more substances hazardous to health
- A resting infant has twice the volume of air passing through the lungs compared to a resting adult (per unit of body weight) over the same time period

Brain
- Maturation can be hindered by exposure to toxic substances
- Metals are retained in the brain more readily in childhood and absorption is greater (e.g. lead and methyl mercury)

Gastro-intestinal, endocrine & reproductive systems & renal function
- The gastro-intestinal, endocrine and reproductive systems and renal function are immature at birth and mature during childhood and adolescence, thus the elimination of hazardous agents is less efficient. Exposure to toxic substances in the workplace can hinder the process of maturation
- The endocrine system and the hormones it generates and controls play a key role in growth and development. The endocrine system may be especially vulnerable to disruption by chemicals during childhood and adolescence

Enzyme system
- The enzyme system is immature in childhood, resulting in poorer detoxification of hazardous substances

Energy requirements

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27 This appendix is based on an earlier draft of ILO, 2006.
• Greater energy consumption because children are growing, and this can result in increased susceptibility to toxins

**Fluid requirements**
• More likely to dehydrate as they lose more water per kg of body weight through:
  - lungs - greater passage of air through them
  - skin - larger surface area
  - kidneys - inability to concentrate urine

**Sleep requirements**
• 10 - 18 year olds require about 9.5 hours sleep per night for proper development

**Temperature**
• Increased sensitivity to heat and cold as the sweat glands and thermo-regulatory system are not fully developed

**Physical strain/repetitive movements**
• Physical strain, especially combined with repetitive movements, on growing bones and joints can cause stunting, spinal injury and other lifelong deformation and disabilities

**Cognitive and behavioural development**
• Another key factor is the ability of child labourers to recognise and assess potential safety and health risks at work and to make decisions about them. For younger children this ability is weak

**Children are vulnerable**
Other factors which increase levels of risk include:
• Lack work experience - are unable to make informed judgements
• Want to perform well - are willing to do extra without realising the risks
• Learn wrong health and safety behaviour from adults
• Have no safety or health training
• At risk from inadequate, even harsh, supervision
• Are powerless in terms of organization and rights
• Are prone to risk-taking behaviours

**Reduced life expectancy**
This concept is difficult to quantify but the earlier a person starts work, the more premature the ageing that will follow. Some studies indicate that working as a child increased the risk of poor health as an adult (UCW, 2010).

**Disabilities**
Not only are children likely to acquire disability as a result of child labour, children who already have a disability may be at greater risk in general. Disabled children are less likely to be in school (a low percentage of disabled children worldwide attend primary school) and more likely to be from poor families since disability and poverty are linked. Disabled persons are among the poorest of the poor. While the data is limited, a study conducted by the ILO on children in the fishing sector in Uganda found that 8 per cent of the children had disabilities (Walakira & Byamugisha, 2008). The same study found that 20 per cent of the parents of children had disability in their families. Depending on the nature of their impairments, disabled children may also be more vulnerable to health and safety hazards, resulting in more serious impairments or new forms of disability.
Little is known about what happens to child labourers who become disabled as a result of their work, or about disabled children who become child labourers, and currently there is no alternative to informed guesswork. Based on evidence of the situation of children with disabilities in developing countries – itself sketchy, at best - it is likely that disabled child labourers will face great difficulties in finding decent work as an adult, and in integrating into their communities and society.

In particular, their chances of attending school are likely to be greatly reduced. Lack of access to education, and the likelihood of being unable to read, write or calculate meaning they have very slim chances of acquiring marketable skills that will enable them to rise out of poverty and earn a decent livelihood in adulthood. They will most likely have poor access to orthopaedic or prosthetic services or assistive devices. Having to make do with makeshift devices to enable them to move around, where they have lost a limb or can no longer walk; or to technical aids where they have lost their vision or hearing; or to counselling and support if they have been traumatised.
This report is a preliminary version of the *FAO-ILO Good practice guide for addressing child labour in fisheries and aquaculture: policy and practice*. It provides an overview of current information on child labour in the fisheries and aquaculture sector and of existing international legal and policy frameworks. In fisheries and aquaculture, children engage in a wide variety of work: both in direct production (fishing and harvesting) as well as in associated activities such as fish processing and marketing, and boat building and net mending. Child labour is particularly common in the informal sector and is closely linked to poverty and social injustices. It hence needs to be tackled in a holistic manner. The report provides guidance to governments, development partners and other fisheries and aquaculture sector stakeholders on important considerations and actions needed to effectively address child labour. The importance of awareness raising, participatory approaches and community engagement, in particular in the informal sector, is stressed.