Promotion of gender equality in action against child labour and trafficking:

A practical guide for organizations

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CONTENTS

Introduction ................................................................................................................................. 1

Part 1: Key concepts and strategies ......................................................................................... 3

1. Key concepts .......................................................................................................................... 3
   • What is meant by gender? ...................................................................................................... 3
   • What is meant by gender equality? ....................................................................................... 4
   • What is meant by gender discrimination? ........................................................................... 5
   • What is meant by human rights? .......................................................................................... 6
   • What is meant by fundamental rights at work? .................................................................... 7
   • What is meant by fundamental rights for women workers? ................................................ 7
   • What is meant by child rights? ............................................................................................. 8
   • What is meant by child labour? ........................................................................................... 9
   • What is meant by trafficking? .............................................................................................. 9
   • Relations between migration, trafficking and labour exploitation ...................................... 10
   • Challenges in the application of the law ............................................................................. 11

2. Rationale and key gender differentials in child labour ....................................................... 13
   • Facts and figures ................................................................................................................ 13
   • Different experiences of boys and girls .............................................................................. 15
   • Girls and women: Socialized to a low status ..................................................................... 16
   • Education and training for work ......................................................................................... 16
   • Unpaid and invisible work .................................................................................................. 17
   • More - low quality - work? .................................................................................................. 17
   • Unprotected or illegal work ............................................................................................... 18
   • Earnings and expenditures ............................................................................................... 19
   • Preferences for girl and women workers ........................................................................... 19
   • Preferences of girls and women workers ........................................................................... 19
   • Relations between family survival strategies, women’s work and child labour ................ 20
   • Sharing of family responsibilities ...................................................................................... 21
   • Representation in decision-making .................................................................................... 21

3. Key principles and strategies for promoting gender equality in programmes against child labour .................................................................................................................. 22
   • Key principles .................................................................................................................... 22
   • Gender mainstreaming: Main tools .................................................................................... 24
   • Key strategies ..................................................................................................................... 28
     On the technical content of the programmes ....................................................................... 28
     In terms of organizing the programmes ............................................................................. 33
Part 2: Practical tools and checklists..........................35

1. Training tool: Summary of key concepts and strategies ..........35

2. Gender mainstreaming in the design of action programmes .....41
   1. Background and justification .................................................. 42
   2. Target groups ........................................................................... 45
   3. Institutional framework ............................................................. 46
   4. Objectives .................................................................................. 46
   5. Major outputs and activities ..................................................... 46
   6. Indicators, assumptions and prior obligations ............................ 47
   7. Planning, monitoring and evaluation procedures ...................... 48
   8. Inputs .......................................................................................... 48

3. Checklist: How does your organizational deal with gender equality promotion? ......................................................... 49

Sources for information ................................................................. 51
Introduction

The elimination of child labour, trafficking, and the promotion of equality between girls, boys, men and women. Child labour is work which subjects children to exploitation and abuse. Trafficking for labour exploitation means taking young or older people to other places to employ them in work against their will. The promotion of gender equality means giving equal opportunities to boys and girls, and men and women. The use of a gender lens is vital to prevent and solve child labour and trafficking problems.

The combat against child labour and trafficking, and the promotion of equality between men and women address fundamental human and workers’ rights in life and at work. These are vital for sustainable, people-centred, social and economic development of societies in the global economy. Action against child labour and trafficking, and promotion of gender equality do not mean a trade-off with other development gains, but an increase in the quality of life for all with long-lasting benefits to children, families, communities, and societies.

Both boys and girls from low-income population groups are involved in child labour, and women and men of all ages can become victims of trafficking. However, evidence suggests that girls and women are often found working in the worst forms of labour which is related to the low status given to them in many societies. Girls are particularly vulnerable to child labour exploitation, face different problems and have other coping strategies than boys. Programmes against child labour and trafficking need to take these differences into account if they want to effectively reach both girls and boys.

In addition, while the crucial role of parents in looking after the well being of their children is acknowledged worldwide, many parents from low-income groups are hampered in doing so. Mothers, especially single mothers, face additional constraints at work and in life, because they are poor and they are women. Many fathers on the other hand have not been fully involved in taking care of their offspring. It is therefore necessary to enable both parents to share the family responsibilities related to the upbringing of their children.

Recognizing the constraints of women in the world of work, the ILO member States have emphasized the importance of giving explicit attention to the promotion of equal opportunities and chances to men and women at work and in life in all spheres of ILO action. The ILO’s International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) identified the working girl as a priority target group since its start in the early nineties. In 1999, guidance on addressing girls’ needs was reflected in the ILO Recommendation on the Worst Forms of Child Labour. ILO experience has shown that concerted efforts are needed to guarantee that both girls and boys involved or prone to be engaged in child labour are provided with effective preventive or curative services and to ensure that equality principles are applied when providing incentives to parents and other caregivers irrespective of sex and gender considerations.

This Practical Guide for Organizations, provides an overview of strategies and tools to reach both girls and boys when combating harmful child labour practices and trafficking abuses, to address the specific constraints of girls and young women prone to or engaged in child labour, and to strengthen the role of both parents in educating their children and protecting them from labour exploitation. The guide is intended for staff of governmental and non-governmental organizations involved in combating child labour and trafficking. It will also be of use to policy makers engaged in promoting human rights of children and women and fundamental principles and rights at work.

Aims of the Guide are to:
• inform specialists and programming staff in the child labour field who are not familiar with gender equality issues or who wish to refresh their knowledge on this subject
• assist staff and partner organizations of the ILO’s International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) in developing, implementing and evaluating gender-responsive action programmes.

The guide consists of two parts:
• Part 1 provides the basic definitions and strategies for the promotion of gender equality in policies and programmes against child labour and trafficking. It gives an overview of the key gender differentials in child labour and sets out the conceptual tools for addressing gender inequalities in policies and programmes against child labour and trafficking.
• Part 2 contains three practical tools in the form of checklists:
  - The first checklist provides a summary of the main definitions, conceptual tools and strategies explained in part 1. It can be used in awareness raising or training activities or serve as a ‘quick reference’ guide.
  - The second checklist deals with the systematic integration of gender issues in the design of IPEC action programmes. The checklist follows the format of IPEC action programme documents and complements the existing IPEC guidelines on the design of action programmes. It has been designed in conformity with existing ILO-IPEC programme and management tools, such as the Programming and Operations Manual for IPEC Field Offices (the ‘grey manual’) for IPEC National Programme Coordinators and the IPEC Training Package on the Design, Management and Evaluation of Action Programmes on Child Labour.
  - The third tool is a checklist for the integration or ‘mainstreaming’ of gender equality promotion in programming. It can be used to review the capacity of organizations to address inequality concerns in action against child labour and trafficking.

This Guide responds to the overall ILO Action Plan on Gender Mainstreaming for Gender Equality which was adopted in 2000. It is part of a series of capacity building initiatives by ILO-IPEC to systematically address gender inequalities in action against the worst forms of child labour and to raise awareness on fundamental human and labour standards, and children’s and women’s rights among population groups at risk of severe labour exploitation. It has been developed under a pilot project, implemented by the ILO Subregional Office for East Asia (SRO-Bangkok) in cooperation with IPEC. Main project strategies include: capacity building of partners in mainstreaming equality and rights approaches in design, monitoring and evaluation tools and programming processes, developing innovative tools geared at the social and economic empowerment of children, youth and families, and strengthening knowledge sharing and networking among child labour and gender specialists in East Asia.
Part 1: Key concepts and strategies

1. Key concepts

What is meant by gender?

The sex children are born with influences their chances in life, alongside other important variables such as socio-economic class or caste, race or ethnicity. The biological differences of being born as a boy or a girl become important only later in life when children reach puberty. However, from the moment of their birth, all societies assign different roles, attributes and opportunities to boys and girls. They are socialized to perform the roles of men and women in their society, based on the ideas in that society how men and women should or should not behave. These social meanings given to biological sex differences are covered by the term gender:

- **Gender** refers to the social differences and relations between girls and boys, women and men that are learned and vary widely within and between cultures and change over time. For example: In many countries women take care of young children, but increasingly men start to take care of young children too.

- **Sex** refers to the biological differences between men and women that are universal and do not change. For example, only women can give birth and only men grow a beard.

Gender is an important variable and classifier in society. It is affected by other variables such as age, class or caste, race or ethnicity, and by the geographical, economical and political environment.

**Gender is a socio-economic variable** to analyse differences between boys and girls, men and women with regard to:

- **roles, responsibilities and needs**
- **constraints and opportunities**.

Ideas and practices on what boys and men and girls and women can and do differ from one country to another. Wide variations may exist within one country. For example, in some countries women do not work on construction sites and men do not weave or sew textiles, while in other countries it is common to find them in these sectors.

It is useful to differentiate between gender values, norms, stereotypes and roles:

- **Gender values and norms** in society refer to ideas that people have on what men and women of all generations should be like. For example: in many societies girls should be obedient and cute and are allowed to cry. Boys, on the other hand, are expected to be brave and should not cry.

- **Gender stereotypes** are the ideas that people have on what boys and men, girls and women are capable of doing. For example: ideas that women are better housekeepers and men better with machines, or that boys are better in mathematics and girls better in nursing.
• Gender roles refer to the activities that both sexes actually do. For example: boys help their fathers working outside the house and girls help their mothers taking care of the household work.

Gender roles are reinforced by the gender values, norms and stereotypes that exist in each society. However, gender roles can and do change, often faster than the ideas people have on how girls and boys, men and women should or should not behave. For example: girls and women in many societies are supposed to be the weaker sex and they are to be protected from heavy workloads. In reality, however, girls and women from poor population groups are often engaged in heavy work for long hours alongside boys and men. Also, in many societies, parents with limited resources have tended to invest more in the education of their sons rather than their daughters because sons are expected to become providers for the family in the future. Recently, the economic value of daughters has increased in many societies because girls can bring regular income to their family as factory workers or as workers in entertainment services. This demonstrates that attitudes on the gender roles of girls do change, although this does not necessarily make life better for girls.

What is meant by gender equality?

In most societies there are differences and inequalities between girls and boys, and women and men in the opportunities, responsibilities, rights and benefits they are given and the activities they do. While there are variations across cultures and, over time, there is one common feature: Gender relations throughout the world are characterized by unequal and unbalanced relations between the sexes. Disparities exist, for example, between girls’ and boys’ access to education and training, between women’s and men’s workload, their access to and control over resources and benefits, and in the roles of men and women in decision-making.
• **Gender equality**, or equality between women and men, refers to the equal rights, responsibilities, opportunities, treatment and valuation of women and men:
  - in employment
  - in the relation between work and life.

Gender equality means that people of all ages and both sexes should have equal chances to succeed in life. It means that all human beings should have equal, in other words, **fair and just** access to and control over resources and benefits so that all can benefit from and participate in development.

• **Promotion of Gender Equality** leads to a higher quality of life for all. It is about ensuring equal outcomes and equal shares between men and women so that all persons are treated with dignity and allowed to develop to their full potential. It does not mean that women and men need to become exactly the same, but that their rights, responsibilities and opportunities, the way they are treated and their work is valued will not depend on whether they are born male or female. Women and men can be and are different, but should have equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities. Thus, gender equality includes the same human and workers’ rights and equal value and fair distribution of:
  - responsibilities and opportunities
  - workload and decision making.

**What is meant by gender discrimination?**

**Discrimination** is any distinction, exclusion or preference based on sex, gender (or other classifiers in society, such as ethnicity, colour, religion or political opinion), which has the effect of nullifying or impairing equality of opportunity and treatment.

Two types of discrimination exist:

• **Direct discrimination** is generally intentional or explicit. Sometimes direct discrimination is found explicitly in the law. This is called ‘de jure’ discrimination. Examples in many countries are:
  - women cannot legally own property, such as land or buildings
  - married women cannot sign legal documents
  - the retirement ages of women and men are different
  - women are barred by law in certain types of employment.

Direct discrimination between men and women is declining as most countries prohibit discrimination on the basis of sex or gender and promote equality between men and women in the law. However, direct forms of discrimination, in other words ‘de facto’ discrimination continues to be widespread in practice. For example, job advertisements in many countries state:
  - Sales executives wanted: Attractive females between 18 to 22 years are invited to apply. Enclose photograph and CV.
  - Despatch drivers needed: Able-bodied men are invited to apply, enclose copy of driving license and CV.

• **Indirect discrimination** refers to apparently neutral situations, regulations, or practices which, in fact, result in unequal treatment of persons. There is exclusion because of preferences or stereotypes, in other words, an apparently neutral law or practice has a disproportionate negative impact on a particular group. For example:
- enterprises often prefer to recruit men rather than women of child bearing age because they expect women will be more often absent from work because of pregnancy or family responsibilities
- supervisory positions are often filled by men, because women are not considered to be as good 'natural' leaders as men.

While direct ‘de jure’ discrimination between men and women is decreasing because most countries nowadays prohibit discrimination on the basis of sex and gender in the law, direct and indirect discrimination continues to be very common in practice in many societies and workplaces, and usually results in a disadvantaged position of girls and women in society. This type of discrimination often occurs not because people in society want to be intentionally 'mean' but because tradition and customs in practice favour men and boys and allocate a second class position to women and girls.

Direct and indirect discrimination should not to be confused with the concept of positive action or positive discrimination which is one of the necessary tools to combat the negative effects of severe discrimination that existed in the past. See Section 3 in Part 1 for more information.

What is meant by human rights?

- Human rights are the basic and absolute rights that every person has because he or she is a human being. They recognize the vulnerability of the human being in civil, political, economic, social and cultural processes and provide protection. Every human being has these rights although the extent to which they can be enforced in practice varies from country to country.

- Having rights comes with having duties and responsibilities. In preserving the freedom, rights and justice for all, everyone has a responsibility to abide by the law and everyone has duties in the community. In exercising freedoms and rights, everyone must also respect the rights and freedoms of others.

At the international level most of these basic human rights have been described in the United Nations (UN) Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948)\(^1\). Some of the basic human rights include:
- the right to equal treatment and non-discrimination
- the right to nationality
- the right to own property
- the right to education
- the right to work and to just and favourable conditions of work
- the right to freedom from slavery and forced labour
- the right to equal access to public service in the country
- the right to freedom of movement
- the right to freedom of thought, opinion and expression
- the right to freedom of association.

The fundamental human rights are often described in each country’s Constitution which guarantees the fundamental rights of its citizens, regardless of their sex, race, ethnicity,

\(^1\) Other key UN instruments are: the International Convenants on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR, 1966) and on Social, Economic and Cultural Rights (ICSECR, 1966).
class or caste, religion, or other statuses. National legal rights are those rights which are
defined by national laws in each country, usually consisting of constitutional rights, and
specific rights laid down in national legislation such as the Penal Code, the Labour Code and
the Civil Code and rules such as government regulations.

While there is considerable variation in national legislation between countries, most
constitutions worldwide state that everyone is equal before the law, and that each person is
entitled to equal protection under the law without any discrimination. If a person’s legal right
is violated, the person is entitled to seek justice and to a just and fair judicial process.

What is meant by fundamental rights at work?

In 1998, ILO member States adopted the Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights
at Work which sets out the core labour principles that are fundamental to the rights of human
beings at work, irrespective of the level of development of countries. The core labour
principles endorsed by the international community cover four main areas:

- the elimination of all forms of forced and compulsory labour
- the abolition of child labour
- the elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation
- freedom of association and the recognition of the right to collective bargaining.

What is meant by fundamental rights for women workers?

The United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against
Women (CEDAW) is the key overall UN instrument for gender equality promotion. It was
adopted in 1979 with a view to combat the continuing discrimination against women because
earlier human rights instruments reflected mostly male concerns and perspectives. It
identifies many areas where there has been notorious discrimination against women, for
example in regard to political rights, marriage and the family, and employment. The
Convention spells out specific goals and measures that are to be taken to facilitate the
creation of a global society in which women enjoy full equality with men and, thus, full
realization of their guaranteed human rights.

In addition to the fundamental rights at work described above, two other international labour
standards are vital to address widespread discrimination and thereby key constraints of
women workers:

- maternity protection which protects women’s biological functions before, during and after
  child birth

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2 The corresponding eight fundamental conventions and four recommendations are:
- Convention No.29 on Forced Labour (1930)
- Convention No. 105 on the Abolition of Forced Labour (1957)
- Convention No. 138 and Recommendation No. 146 on Minimum Age (1973)
- Convention No. 182 and Recommendation No. 190 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour (1999)
- Convention No. 100 and Recommendation No. 90 on Equal Remuneration (1951)
- Convention No. 111 and Recommendation No. 111 on Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) (1958)
- Convention No. 87 on Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize (1948)
- Convention No. 98 on the Right to Organize and Collective Bargaining (1949).

3 The corresponding two conventions and recommendations are:
- Convention No. 156 and Recommendation No. 165 on Workers with Family Responsibilities (1981)
• provision of equal opportunities for workers with family responsibilities which are reproductive tasks in the social sphere that are almost exclusively assigned to girls and women in many societies.

What is meant by child rights?

All human rights apply to all boys and girls. While societies may vary in their ideas on childhood and child development, one thing that all can agree on is the importance of the well-being of children. It is well recognized everywhere that children need special care and protection for healthy development because of their special needs and vulnerability. Special instruments have been drawn up to safeguard and enforce child rights. The recognized standard is the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), which was drawn up in 1989 and has been ratified by almost all countries in the world. It covers all persons under 18 years of age.

The Rights of the Child as defined by the CRC Convention include four core principles as follows:

- **Equality** – Like adults, children can be subject to discrimination which has a negative impact on a child’s opportunities and conditions in life. Therefore, all children are entitled to equal rights and governments have an obligation to uphold these. For example:
  - right to birth registration
  - right to a name and nationality
  - right to protection from all forms of abuse, neglect, discrimination and exploitation.

- **Rights to survival and healthy development** – Every child has a right to develop to his or her fullest potential, and is entitled to:
  - right to basic needs, including food, shelter and access to healthcare
  - right to free primary education
  - right to childhood - to rest and play and to have friends
  - right to protection from economic exploitation or any work that interferes with education or that is hazardous and harmful to health, physical, mental, and social development
  - right to special assistance for children with special needs. For example: child refugees, displaced children, child victims of abuse and disabled children.

- **Participation** – All girls and boys, according their age and maturity, have the right to participate in making decisions that affect them. Boys and girls should be encouraged to take part in decision making at home, in school and in their own community. Key participation rights are:
  - right to express views and opinions
  - right to receive and give information in an accessible and understandable form
  - right to be an active member of community - to enjoy own culture, to practice own religion and to use own language
  - right to be a member of a group.

- **Best interest of the child** – The two notions of children as competent human beings on the one hand, and as children who are vulnerable and need protection on the other hand, may conflict when deciding what is best for the child. This principle provides the solution to this problem: all decisions that affect boys and girls must give primary

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4 For more guidelines on how to apply rights-based approach to programming, see International Save the Children Alliance handbook, *Child Rights Programming*, 2002.
consideration to them. In determining what is ‘best’ for them, it is important to seek the views of the affected girls and boys.

What is meant by child labour?

Work is not always bad for children and can be healthy but it can also seriously hamper children’s development. In order to decide whether children’s economic activities are healthy or harmful, the international community has set the following yardsticks:

- **Child work**
  - light work (less than 14 hours/week) for 12-17 year olds
  - not harmful to a child’s health and development
  - not obstructing schooling or vocational training
  - not hazardous in nature

- **Child labour**
  - regular work (14-43 hours/week)
  - causes physical or psychological damage
  - hinders education and mental and/or physical development
  - child under minimum age set by ILO Convention No.138
  - hazardous work as defined by provisions of ILO Convention No.182

- **The worst forms of child labour:**
  - all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom 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
  - 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.

What is meant trafficking?

Lack of economic opportunities at home, armed conflicts or natural disasters can encourage people to leave home – often from the rural to urban areas and sometimes across borders. While migration can be a positive experience, providing better opportunities for many, it can lead to serious violations of their human and labour rights. There is increasing pressure on women to financially support their families and changing traditional roles have resulted in more women leaving their traditional place at home for work somewhere else – a process referred to as the **feminization of migration.** Often not aware of dangers, many who aspire for better opportunities elsewhere end up being trafficked for labour and sexual exploitation. Rights violations can occur from the recruitment stage to transit, and while living and working in the destination. At any of these stages, women and children can find themselves being exploited, abused, or trafficked.

- **Trafficking in persons** is a particularly abusive form of migration. It is defined by the coercive, non-consensual and exploitative or servile nature of the purpose of movement, and involves a number of serious human rights violations, including forced labour, sexual and labour exploitation, violence and abuse of the victims (GENPROM, 2002).
Relations between migration, trafficking and labour exploitation

Children most vulnerable to severe labour exploitation often come from disadvantaged, marginalized and socially excluded groups. They include orphans, children of single-parent or child-headed families, children of tribal or ethnic minorities, street children, migrant children, and refugees.

Younger children often migrate along with their parents, while adolescents may choose to take their own path. Although there is no clear linkage between migration and child labour, some studies suggest that foreign-born children are found in more exploitative and dangerous work than native children of similar economic status due to lack of legal status in the host country and discrimination of the local population against foreigners.

Children who migrate or are trafficked alone are separated from their familiar support networks which puts them in a new, often hostile, environment where they find themselves not able to speak the language, being excluded from the mainstream society, and not being able to attend school or have access to medical care because they do not have the necessary documents. Many children born of migrant parents in a new city or country are not registered and do not have a birth certificate. This results in their being stateless and deprives them of social and economic opportunities and exposes them to many forms of discrimination.

In these conditions, often the only available options left to migrant and trafficked workers are to work in “3D” jobs – difficult, dirty and dangerous. Their jobs are often undocumented, unprotected, or illegal. Many lack immigration status, making them prime targets for police crackdowns, detentions and deportation. It is not uncommon for migrants to be asked by authorities to pay bribes and for women sex workers to be asked to provide free sex, to avoid penalties (Asian Migrant Centre (AMC), 2002).

There are clear age and gender dimensions in trafficking of children into forced labour. That is, the younger the child, the less likely he or she is able to escape the forced labour situation. In addition, boys and girls tend to be involved in different activities, although there is considerable overlap. Girls predominate in commercial sexual exploitation and domestic work, and boys in forced recruitment for armed conflict and for camel jockeying in the Middle East (ILO, A Future Without Child Labour, 2002).

Gender is a determining factor in trafficking on both the supply and demand sides. In some areas the largest numbers of victims of trafficking are men, for example more than 80 per cent of migrants trafficked into Ukraine and Poland are men.5 Generally, however, women and girls are more likely than men and boys to be the victims of trafficking. Women and girls are often trafficked into prostitution and sexual exploitation. However, trafficking should not be equated with prostitution and sexual exploitation because many other forms of labour exploitation also occur. “Trafficking is a serious manifestation of the feminization of poverty and the broader challenges facing women and girls in a world still characterized by gender discrimination, both within and outside the labour market” (GENPROM, 2002). On both the supply and demand sides, multi-layered discrimination and inequality are pervasive which prevents women and girls from taking control over their own lives.

Factors behind the trafficking of women and girls

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<td>Feminization of poverty</td>
<td>Employer demand for cheap and exploitable labour</td>
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<td>Chronic unemployment and lack of economic opportunities</td>
<td>Consumer demand for services sometimes provided by trafficked persons</td>
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<td>Growing materialism and desire for a better life</td>
<td>Gender discrimination</td>
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<td>Dysfunctional family situations</td>
<td>Increasing casualization and informatization in the labour market</td>
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<td>Gender inequality in access to education and training</td>
<td>Growth of sex and entertainment industries</td>
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<td>Lack of access to information</td>
<td>Low-risk, high-profit nature of trafficking</td>
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<td>Discrimination on the basis of gender and/or ethnicity</td>
<td>Absence of effective regulatory framework and lack of enforcement</td>
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<td>Cultural contexts and community attitudes and practices which tolerate</td>
<td>Lack of organization and bargaining power of workers</td>
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<td>violence against women</td>
<td>Discriminatory socio-cultural practices relating, for example, to marriage</td>
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<td>Sex-selective migration policies</td>
<td>Violations of human rights</td>
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<td>Ineffective legal and regulatory frameworks</td>
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<td>Displacement and disruption due to natural and human-created</td>
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Challenges in the application of the law?

It is commonly accepted that basic human rights described in international declarations and conventions cannot be denied to any human being and governments cannot deny these rights to their citizens without justification. For example, everybody has the right to life. In case of war, soldiers from the enemy can be denied this right but not civilians. At the international level it has been agreed that no country can exclusively rely on the sovereignty principle to infringe on the basic human rights of its citizens (UN, Agenda for Peace, 1992). This is still a politically sensitive issue but consensus on this agreement is growing worldwide, in an increasing number of countries, irrespective of their level of development.

However application of basic human rights, laid down at the international level and in national laws and rules is often problematic as rights can only be enforced when there is a remedy i.e. a law, legal rule or procedure and a working judicial system (courts and application machinery). This is a problem in many countries. One of the more recent new mechanisms to provide vulnerable groups with a means to protect their basic human rights is the set up of National Human Rights Commissions in many countries.

Sometimes there is a conflict of interest in respecting rights. For example, the ‘right to development’ and ‘absence from poverty’ for all citizens cannot be met by many governments due to the different political stake holders within that government and lack of awareness and skills among the population and marginalized groups to express their rights. Cultural norms and values also underlay the hierarchy of rights and often determine whether the rule of law is followed. Women’s and children’s human rights, laid down in international human rights instruments and national laws are often violated because cultural and social norms grant a lower status to them than men.

Protection of the rights of migrants and trafficked persons is difficult. For example, in the case of trafficking of young persons for labour exploitation rights protection usually involve trafficking laws, prostitution laws and child labour laws. However, these laws do not exist in
some countries, and when they exist, weak enforcement, corruption, contradiction in the laws, and traditional biases against women and girls undercut the effectiveness of these laws. Moreover, the laws, in particular prostitution and trafficking or migrant labour laws tend to be more punitive rather than protective towards the victims. Migrant workers and trafficked victims often end up being penalized and deported for illegal entry, while employers and traffickers rarely face punishment. In the case of trafficking for child prostitution, punishment for clients is rarely mentioned. (Tumlin, 2000).
2. Rationale and key gender differentials in child labour

Worldwide there is a growing consensus that all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights and that the human rights of all individuals, including children and women need to be respected. This is reflected in many United Nations (UN) and ILO conventions that have been developed by the world community, and have been ratified in the majority of countries.

However, giving equal chances to boys and girls, and men and women is not only a matter of human rights and social justice. It is also a matter of sound economic judgement, because a healthy, educated workforce is a pre-condition for the sustainable social and economic development of countries and societies do not reach their economic potential when their human resources are not fully utilized. It is, therefore, crucial to educate and train both boys and girls, and emphasize the joint responsibility of men and women to look after the future generations.

Experience has learned that development efforts, which do not explicitly address gender equality issues, tend to make life harder rather than easier for girls and women. Worldwide, more women than men belong to the poor, women’s poverty is more severe and the incidence of poverty among women is increasing, a process referred to as the feminization of poverty. Poor women can not look after their children properly and many of them find themselves in a vicious circle transferring poverty from one generation into the next one. This cycle needs to be broken because of both social justice and pragmatic considerations. Strong arguments exist for investments in women, in particular, because they are known to spend resources and benefits that they receive on improving the welfare of their families rather than on themselves only.

- Promoting the elimination of child labour and equality between the sexes is not only the right but also the smart thing to do.

Facts and figures

At the start of the new millennium, about 18 per cent of boys and girls up to the age of 14 were ‘economically active,’ in other words, were working for money or other compensation. In 2000, 211 million children aged 5-14 years were economically active. Sixty per cent (127 million) were found in Asia and the Pacific: one of every five children in this age group was working in this region. In Sub-Saharan Africa, there were 48 million children working: one of every three children in this age group was working in this region. Just over 6 per cent (13.4 million) were found in North Africa and the Middle East, and 8 per cent (17.4 million) in Latin America and the Caribbean (ILO, A Future without Child Labour, 2002).

Following the ILO definitions of child labour, as many as 246 million children aged from 5 to 17 are in child labour. Of this group, 110 million are younger than 12. Of all child labour, as many as 170.5 million are found in hazardous work, and 60.5 million in this category are younger than 12 (see box below).

Statistics should be considered critically because by nature child labour exploitation is hidden and getting accurate information is difficult. The number of working girls is often underestimated by statistical surveys, which do not generally account for unpaid economic activities such as domestic work or hidden activities such as prostitution – the type of work in which more girls are involved (ILO, Working Papers on Child Labour in Asia, Volume 1, 2001).
### Child Labour Statistics

*(number in 000,000s)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group &amp; Sex</th>
<th>Economically active children</th>
<th>Child Labour</th>
<th>Children in Hazardous Work</th>
<th>Definition of child labour based on ILO Conventions Nos. 138 &amp; 182</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5-11 boys</td>
<td>109.7</td>
<td>109.7</td>
<td>60.5</td>
<td>In ages 5-11 = all children in economically active activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>girls</td>
<td>56.3</td>
<td>56.3</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-14 boys</td>
<td>101.1</td>
<td>76.6</td>
<td>50.8</td>
<td>In ages 12-14 = all children in economically active activities except those in light work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>girls</td>
<td>52.7</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-17 boys</td>
<td>140.9</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td>In ages 15-17 = all children in hazardous work and other worst forms of child labour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>girls</td>
<td>75.1</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (5-17)</td>
<td>351.7</td>
<td>245.5</td>
<td>170.5</td>
<td>* Statistics does not include children engaged in work that is not considered “economic activities” such as domestic work, where girls are often found.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boys</td>
<td>184.1</td>
<td>132.2</td>
<td>95.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>girls</td>
<td>167.6</td>
<td>113.3</td>
<td>74.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### What do child workers do?

- 70% agriculture, fishing, hunting and forestry
- 9% manufacturing
- 9% wholesale, retail trade, restaurants and hotels
- 6% community, social and personal service
- 4% transport, storage and communication
- 4% construction, mining and quarrying


### Children in the worst forms of child labour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Worst form of child labour</th>
<th>Global estimates</th>
<th>Estimates in Asia-Pacific</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Forced &amp; bonded labour</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forced recruitment into armed conflict</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prostitution &amp; pornography</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illicit activities</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trafficked children*</td>
<td>[1.2]</td>
<td>[0.25]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>6.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children in hazardous work</td>
<td>170.5</td>
<td>104*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>178.9</td>
<td>110.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: * The number of trafficked children is not included in the total number of children in the worst forms of child labour.
* Figure from IPEC Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific

One of the most widespread forms of labour exploitation of children is domestic work. Traditionally, domestic work is seen as an easy and safe work for children, especially for girls. However, it has been proven recently that domestic work can be among the most dangerous work for children and has been recognized as a worst form of child labour. While domestic work with good employers can offer children in poverty a chance to develop, get education and earn a living, domestic work in most countries has a very low status and is among the lowest paid and many CDWs end up being exploited. Because most CDWs live in and have little freedom, their life and safety often depends on the mercy of the employers. An overwhelming majority of CDWs are girls, and many face physical, emotional or sexual abuses.

### Child Domestic Workers (CDWs) in Asia: Some Figures

- 300,000 CDWs, aged 7-17 years, work in Dakha, Bangladesh.
- 700,000 CDWs in Jakarta, Indonesia are under the age of 18.
- In India, 20 per cent of all domestic workers are below 14 years old and 40 per cent of 400,000 domestic workers in Mumbai are girls under 15 years old.
- 55,600 CDWs work in the urban areas of Kathmandu, Nepal, where the majority of CDWs are boys.
- One in 10 households in Galle, Sri Lanka employs a CDW.
- 29,000 CDWs in the Philippines are 10-14 years old and over 275,000 are 15-19 years old.

There are an estimated 1.2 million children being trafficking for labour and sexual exploitation worldwide, about 250,000 in Asia and Pacific. However, estimates of the number of children being trafficked often vary widely, depending on the source. For example, numbers of children trafficked for prostitution in India range between 25,000 and 500,000 respectively. Therefore, estimates should be considered with caution. Despite difficulties in determining the exact number of trafficked children, there is a clear trend that it is rising worldwide, particularly for sexual exploitation. In South and Southeast Asia, the overwhelming number of child victims of trafficking are girls with the exception of Sri Lanka and to a lesser extent Pakistan, where boys are also found to be trafficked for commercial sexual exploitation (Tumlin, 2000).

### Different experiences of boys and girls

In analyzing child labour, it is important to understand that boys and girls have different experiences. First of all, many parents tend to have different expectations of daughters and sons. Children are socialized from an early age to copy the gender roles of their parents, for example boys are expected to take after their father and girls after their mother. In most societies this means that boys and girls engage in different activities and are channeled into men’s jobs and women’s jobs respectively. For example, while both boys and girls are found working for the family in the field and at home, in small restaurants, in factories or on the street, boys are often found to work in male-dominated sectors such as mining and fishery, and girls in typically female-dominated sectors, including garment production and services such as domestic work and work in the entertainment industry.
Secondly, boys and girls may also have different motivations and reasons to be engaged in child labour or to leave home. Usually poverty and lack of opportunity are among the driving forces in child labour and migration of children seeking work. However, some underlying causes such as parents’ expectations, children’s own curiosity and sense of obligation, and more pervasive consumerism often determine the ways in which boys and girls work, migrate or are trafficked. Other reasons including family fights, a broken home, physical or emotional abuse, political situations, and natural disasters also contribute to children’s motivation to leave home. Research findings also suggest that boys tend to be more prone to peer pressure, while girls are driven by family and peer pressure (Wille, 2002).

**Girls and women: Socialized to a low status**

All societies aspire the best for the younger generation and it is widely agreed that all children have a right to healthy development. However, in many families and societies boys are still favoured over girls. In fact, different treatment starts at – or even before – birth. Evidence of this can be found in the killing of female fetuses and infanticide of baby girls, circumcision of boys, other different birth rituals for girls and boys, and variations in nutritional status between them.

Poor parents often invest more in their sons and tend to put their daughters to work to help looking after the basic family needs. Even in cases where girls are given the opportunity to study, they often learn that being a boy is better and worth more than being a girl. In many cultures, girls internalize this attitude which often makes them shy and less assertive than boys. This results in their growing up to be women with greater constraints and fewer opportunities. In turn, they are less able to positively influence the life of their daughters, thereby perpetuating the cycle of poverty and exploitation from one generation of women to another. The low status of women and girls is ingrained in cultural values and customs as can be seen in proverbs from many countries. For example:

- If you have 10 daughters, you do not have children. If you have a son, you have a child.
- Having a daughter is like having a toilet installed in front of the house.
- Men are the front legs and women are the hind legs of elephants.

**Education and training for work**

Norms, values and practices related to favouring boys over girls, especially regarding access to education, are changing and impressive improvements are being made, especially in providing equal access of girls and boys to basic education, but enormous hurdles remain. Girls continue to have less access to education and training, especially at the secondary and tertiary levels. This is particularly true in societies in which the status of women is subordinate to that of men, and girls and women are confined to unpaid household duties and family care within the home and the community.

Among children who are not going to primary school worldwide, 60 per cent are girls. Even among working children studies found that girls have less education than boys (Wille 2002). Cultural traditions may prevent girls from going to school, for example in some cultures girls are not allowed to attend classes with boys. Sometimes parents keep their daughters at home because school may be too far and unsafe. Other times parents keep their daughters at home simply because they need help with domestic chores. In addition to lack of equal access to basic education, girls are often channeled into a narrower range of occupations and lower levels in the job hierarchy than boys from families with similar income levels.
As a result, worldwide women have had less education than men when they were young and the majority of people who are not functionally literate are women. They continue to have fewer chances for education and training compared to adult men from the same income categories. This means that many women in poverty do not have the opportunity to earn a decent income for themselves and their children.

Education and training systems often reinforce existing inequalities in societies. For example: Curricula and training materials portray girls and women in dependent or subordinate positions and as sole caretakers of household duties in the family. Men are often portrayed as sole decision makers and travelers. Trainers tend to reinforce sex and gender stereotypes when providing career guidance, as it is more difficult for both women and men to find a job and earn an income in an occupation that is considered to be a men’s or a women’s job respectively.

Sex segregation in the labour market is a serious problem. Across the world there are around seven times as many ‘male’ as ‘female’ non-agricultural occupations and women’s share in top positions in the largest companies worldwide is limited to 2-3 percent (Anker, 1998 and Wirth, 2001) – processes known as horizontal and vertical occupational segregation by sex.

Jobs in which many women are found often have a lower status than ‘men’s’ jobs. For example: In many societies doctors are usually men and nurses are predominantly women. In Eastern Europe and the former USSR the profession of doctor has been female-dominated, and has been accorded lower status and pay than the male-dominated job of engineer.

### Unpaid and invisible work

Women and girls continue to have primary responsibility for unpaid work in the household, such as cooking, cleaning and caring for young and old dependent family members. This type of work is not rewarded and considered to be of a non-economic nature. It is, therefore, usually not measured in labour statistics, and thereby becomes invisible. However, when counting the total hours of work spent on economic activities and family and household care, women and girls worldwide work often considerably longer hours than men and boys. In contrast, both boys and men have more access to leisure time.

Millions of people particularly women and children work as unpaid family workers on the land or in a family enterprise, often in the informal sector. This type of work is officially recognized as an economic activity, but undercounting continues to take place, because women and children and the enumerators who interview them do not consider these activities as work.

Girls often start working at an earlier age than boys, particularly in rural areas where the majority of child workers are found. They also do household work in both rural and urban areas. Many of them are excluded from education or suffer the triple burden of house work, school work and economic work.

### More - low quality - work

The last three decades have witnessed an increase in paid work for women globally – a process known as the feminization of employment but much of this work has been of relatively low quality. In many developing countries employment patterns have changed in the following ways:
• Rapid urbanization and development of cities in many countries are attracting more and more men to cities. This has led to the feminization of agricultural work in many rural areas, for example, in China and India.

• Young women also migrate from the rural areas and many have found work in factories or workplaces manufacturing labour intensive goods in export processing or industrial zones or in services.

• Economic need has forced many women from poor households to become own account workers in the informal economy and generate income through self-employment in whatever way they can to prevent the family from starving. For example: in street trade in cities or craft producers in rural areas.

• An increasing number of women also work at home, performing piece rate work for manufacturing enterprises at the end of the subcontracting chain.

• More women work in the service sector as compared to men. In most countries, more women and girls are found in jobs that tend to extend traditional female reproductive roles such as domestic work, cleaning, provision of entertainment and commercial sex work.

Children, particularly girls, often work alongside their mothers in the informal sector and in homework and sometimes girls are also employed in manufacturing industries. In the majority of cases the income earned and the working and employment conditions are quite low. Women workers in the informal sector operate at the subsistence level. Many women have limited literacy and numeracy skills and start the same type of small businesses. This leads to overcrowding and competition. Homewokers in the subcontracting chain can only work when orders are available and they generally have little bargaining power with subcontractors. Women in manufacturing industries, for example those in industrial zones, are often employed as unskilled workers and are easily fired in case of marriage or pregnancy. Working hours in all three cases tend to be long, and labour protection, social security and safety and health regulations are often not in force or inadequately applied.

Unprotected or illegal work

Among the most invisible child labourers are child domestic workers. There are clear links between children in domestic work and trafficking in children for labour exploitation both within and across countries. An obvious example of illegal (and invisible) child labour is commercial sex. Although trafficking for prostitution has received much attention from authorities, society and media, trafficking of young children for domestic work has only recently been recognized, although both are global phenomena. Girls (and women) predominate in these types of work which are not covered by labour legislation and protection. In some countries, such as Nepal, more boys work as child domestics and increasingly more boys are found in sex work worldwide.

Because these types of work are usually hidden from view in private households or in difficult-to-reach workplaces, working children in these sectors are often isolated from society. For instance, child domestic workers are often separated from their families, making them vulnerable to emotional, physical and sexual abuse. In addition, due to the low status and the illegal nature of the work, child sex workers are often victimized, held captive, and exposed to extremely abusive and even life-threatening conditions.
Increasingly girls and women, but also boys and young men, are trafficked for labour exploitation. Ending up in prostitution, domestic service, small factories or workplaces, they are the most vulnerable of all, particularly if they do not speak the language. Without a legal status that allows them to live, go to school or do light work legally, foreign migrant children – as well as native children without appropriate legal documents – tend to be exploited in debt bondage, in forced labour and in sexual exploitation. Their rights are not recognized nor protected. Moreover, they can be prosecuted as illegal aliens, when caught, causing them to hide from the authorities, which in turn makes it even harder to reach them.

Earnings and expenditures

On average women typically earn two-thirds of what men earn in economies of all types and women still earn less than men at every level of education. Only a part of this gap in earnings can be explained by differences in educational attainment and job experience which means that gender discrimination in receiving equal pay for work of equal value is still widespread.

The same seems to be valid for girls. On average, they are paid less than boys for the same type of work. For instance, half of the girls working as domestics in Dhaka, Bangladesh are paid less than Rs. 4,000 (US$51) a year, as compared to only 28 per cent of boy domestics.\(^6\) It is also more common for girls to receive no pay at all for the work they do.

Girls often do not have control over the income they earn, because they are obliged to hand it over to their fathers, mothers or husbands. In East Asia, many women keep the household purse and they must ensure there is income to fulfil the family’s basic needs. In such cases, women have control over the day-to-day expenses but are often also mainly responsible for earning the income needed for survival purposes. In addition, research continues to confirm that, in cases where girls and women have control over their income, they spend it on meeting the basic needs of their families to a larger extent than boys and men.

Preferences for girl and women workers

Women and girls are preferred workers, because they are often willing to work hard under poor conditions. They have been socialized to be obedient workers who work hard, do not protest or make demands. Girls are, of course, particularly vulnerable because of their age. Women often work in sectors which are not unionized. Even in unionized sectors women often find it difficult to become actively involved in trade unions, because of their household duties and family obligations.

Preferences of girl and women workers

If girls and women are given a choice, many of them would prefer not to work under the conditions in which they are actually working. However, generally, they consider that they have to work to contribute to meeting the basic family needs, even if the work is dirty, dangerous, demeaning and not well paid.

\(^6\) ILO/Japan/Korea Asian Meeting on Actions to Combat Domestic Child Labour, 2-4 October, 2002, Chiang Mai, Thailand.
Indications are that women and girls prefer paid employment to unpaid work and are willing to accept low salaries and abuses such as sexual harassment or other types of violence. While girls and women do not always have control over the earned income, the fact that they contribute to the family income usually means an increase in bargaining power within the family.

Relations between family survival strategies, women’s work and child labour

Little information is available on the relations between women’s work and child labour. However, it is clear that parents who are struggling to make ends meet for family survival purposes will resort to child labour if they have no other alternative. Many mothers are in this position. Their situation needs to be addressed to ensure that child labour problems are not perpetuated from one generation to another. An overview of family survival strategies involving child labour follows below.

- **No family planning and reproductive rights.** Families with many children often find themselves unable to provide adequately for all of them. Although family planning has become widespread in most countries, there remain many families in rural areas and in marginalized social groups such as migrant populations, which lack access to family planning. As a result, the children end up having to work to help their parents.

- **Single female-headed households.** Adults who are in charge of a single-headed household usually lack labour, as they have to look after children, take care of household duties and earn an income to meet the families’ basic needs. Most households with only one adult are female-headed households, and, when they are poor, their only option often is to resort to child labour for survival purposes.

- **Working alongside their mothers.** Many women work in agriculture or produce for the market at home, on the streets or in other workplaces. When child care for younger children and schooling for older children are not available or affordable, mothers will often take their children to work. Gradually, these children will start helping their mother with her work.

- **Specific risk for the older daughters** in the family. When mothers go out to work in addition to fathers, and other adult family members are not available to look after dependent family members, older girls are often kept at home to look after the household and the family.

- **Greater chances of children becoming involved in the worst forms of child labour exploitation.** Children, often girls but also boys are sold to intermediaries with false promises to both the children and their parents of safe, paid work for the children elsewhere. Many children end up as child slaves in prostitution, sweatshops or domestic services in an environment where they have no other option than to stay and do what they are ordered to do. A similar scenario exists for children, again often girls who are being ‘given away’ by poor parents to intermediaries who promise to give them a better life than they had at home. These children often end up in the same exploitative situations as children who are sold.

- **Teenage pregnancies.** In rural areas girls continued to be married off at a young age and need to take up the duties of wives and mothers without the benefits of further
education and training. Girls who have become pregnant outside wedlock are often taken out of school. Often they have to fend for themselves and their children on their own as they are no longer accepted in their family or community. Thus, they become child workers themselves and will involve their own children when these grow up due to lack of other alternatives.

Sharing of family responsibilities

Studies worldwide confirm time and again that women spend family income on meeting family needs such as food, shelter, children's education and family healthcare, while men tend to allocate resources elsewhere. Generally men have more control over the overall family budget than women, even in societies were women keep the household purse. It is, therefore, increasingly becoming realized that fathers need to learn to share decision-making power with their wives on how to spend the family income.

The majority of unpaid household work, including cleaning, cooking and family care is carried out by women and girls although boys and men slowly start to carry out more household duties than in the past, particularly if they are educated. Worldwide, however, women and girls continue to have longer working hours than men. Sometimes this means that they jeopardize their health because they do not get enough rest. Almost always it means that girls and women have less time for socializing and training. More equal sharing of family responsibilities between men and women is, therefore, an essential condition for achieving equality between men and women at work and in life.

Representation in decision-making

Women are usually seriously under-represented at the decision-making levels in communities, organizations and political bodies, and are often excluded from formal and informal decision-making processes. This limits women's capacity to have a say in community and public affairs on issues which directly concern them and their children. For example, decisions on whether to use a local community fund for the building of a school, a health clinic, a road, clean water facilities, or a power supply for electricity or communication, are often taken without women’s involvement.

At the local level, women are often organized in women's committees or village women's groups. While these groups tended to have a welfare orientation only, recent years have witnessed a change towards a more comprehensive role for these organizations in many countries. However, giving women a more equal voice in more formal decision-making bodies continues to be a challenge in many parts of the world. For example, their representation in village councils is rarely higher than around a quarter, and most often it is considerably less. Within schools also, women form the majority of teachers, but they are seldom found to be head 'masters' of schools or chiefs of local government administrations. This situation is mirrored at the national level where women form the minority at the higher levels in government administration and in the political structure.

Women’s constraints in playing an equal role in decision-making is known to be often harmful to them and their children, and for this reason, many development and women's organizations advocate for change in this field.
3. Key principles and strategies for promoting gender equality in programmes against child labour

Key principles for the promotion of gender equality

1. Achieving gender equality is not a ‘women’s concern’ but the responsibility of all in society.

In the past most advocates for the promotion of gender equality were women. It is, therefore, sometimes thought that this subject only concerns women and not men. However, this idea is now fast disappearing. There is increasing consensus that gender equality is as much men’s as well as women’s business, is the responsibility of all in society and requires contributions and inputs from both women and men.

2. Promoting gender equality will benefit all in society.

Empowering women and girls towards greater participation in development means working towards more balanced and equal power relations between the sexes. Sometimes a fear exists that advancing the position of women means that something is taken away from men. However, the promotion of gender equality does not imply giving more power to women and taking away power from men. The promotion of equality between women and men is empowering for all. It allows both men and women to take part fully in social and economic life and leads to a win-win situation for both.

‘Power-over’ which refers to a situation of subordination on the one hand and domination on the other, is unjust and detrimental to development because of the unequal exchange it entails. A win-win situation is created by advocating:
- Power-to: creative and enabling type of power, people’s empowerment
- Power-with: group power, the whole is greater than the sum of its parts
- Power-within: spiritual strength, self-confidence.

3. Gender equality needs to be addressed in all development programmes and at all stages of the programming cycle.

It is sometimes thought that the promotion of equality between men and women is only relevant in the ‘soft sectors’ such as education, health, welfare and other care- and service-based jobs, and not in ‘hard sectors’ such as macro-economic policies, engineering, construction and other infrastructural development, or in decision making in politics. In other instances, it is considered that gender equality will be achieved if something small and extra is done especially for women and girls. These ideas do not lead to progress in practice, because gender inequalities are deeply ingrained in the social, economic, cultural and political fabric of societies. Gender equality is an issue which needs to be addressed in all development fields and at all stages of the programming cycle, in other words, at the planning and design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation stages.

4. Gender-specific measures are needed in case of pronounced inequalities.

The relation between the promotion of gender equality and the advancement of women is not always well understood and sometimes it is thought that these are two different issues. This is not the case. The advancement of women and girls is a necessary strategy whenever they are in a disadvantaged position as compared to men and boys. As current inequalities
are often quite large, equal treatment of men and women from now on is often not sufficient because existing inequalities could remain or might even become larger. Gender-specific measures are usually needed to redress existing imbalances between the position of men and women until women can participate in, and benefit from, development on an equal footing with men.

Of course, if boys and men are disadvantaged in comparison to girls and women, gender-specific measures may be needed to improve their position. In addition, note that gender-specific measures may involve activities for women, men or both. For example: Male leaders often need gender awareness raising to become committed to improving the position of disadvantaged girls and women.

5. **Address practical and strategic gender needs.**

The roles of men and women in families, workplaces and institutions are generally different. Therefore, their needs may also vary. Two types of needs are usually identified to develop strategies which promote gender equality:

- **Practical needs** arise from the actual conditions which people experience because of the gender roles assigned to them in society. They are often related to girls and women as homemakers and providers of basic needs, and concern inadequacies in living and working conditions, such as food, water, shelter, income, health care and employment. For poor families, these needs are often linked to **survival strategies**. However, addressing practical needs only can perpetuate the disadvantaged position of women and girls in their societies. Practical needs must be addressed but gender equality can not be achieved without addressing strategic needs.

- **Strategic needs** refer to the subordinate position of women to men in society, and relate to the empowerment of women. They vary according to the particular social, economic and political context in which they are formulated. Usually they concern **equality issues** such as enabling women to have equal access to job opportunities and training, sharing of family responsibilities, equal pay for work of equal value, rights to land and other assets, prevention of sexual harassment at work and domestic violence, and freedom of choice over childbearing. Addressing them involves a slow and gradual process of changing attitudes and practices in societies.
Gender mainstreaming: Main tools

The main strategy for the promotion of gender equality is gender mainstreaming. The following definition was adopted by the UN in 1997:

- Mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in any area and at all levels.
- It is a strategy for making the concerns and experiences of women as well as of men an integral part of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres, so that women and men benefit equally, and inequality is not perpetuated.
- The ultimate goal of mainstreaming is to achieve gender equality7.

There is a lack of understanding on what gender mainstreaming means in practice and what is required to implement it. It involves the integration of women’s concerns in all aspects of development planning by considering the actual and potential roles of women in all spheres of social economic, political, public and private life, and measuring the impact of all policies and programmes on women and men. It includes gender-specific interventions if there are pronounced imbalances and inequalities.

- Gender mainstreaming is an institutional strategy aimed at giving equal opportunities and rights to men and women as beneficiaries, participants and decision-makers and at addressing gender inequalities systematically in legislation, policies, programmes and budgets at all stages of the programming cycle.

A five-pronged approach is needed to bring gender issues into the mainstream in all policies, programmes and activities:

- Carrying out a gender analysis with a view to identify inequalities between men and women which need to be addressed.
- Carrying out gender-specific action, targeting girls or women exclusively, men or boys exclusively, or boys, girls, women and men together with a view to redress existing gender inequalities and discrimination.
- Starting a process of institutional change in procedures - incorporating critical gender concerns into the planning, programming, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of all programmes and activities - and in institutional processes.
- Giving girls and women a voice by increasing their participation in programmes, organizations and in decision-making with a view to ensure that their interests and perspectives are taken into account in development work.
- Carrying out gender budgeting and auditing.

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7 United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC): Agreed Conclusions E/1997/L.30, p.2)
Gender analysis

Gender analysis is a tool to diagnose differences and relations between girls, boys, men and women. It includes:

- collecting data which are **disaggregated**, in other words, broken down by sex and other important classifiers such as age, income, ethnicity, nationality or religion

- identifying **gender differentials** at work and in life, in terms of the division of labour, and access to and control over resources and benefits

- understanding girls’ boys’, women’s and men’s **needs, constraints and opportunities** in relation to knowledge and skills needed, conditions of work, social protection, family responsibilities, and economic and political decision-making

- identifying constraints and opportunities in the **larger environment** (laws, attitudes)

- reviewing the capacities of existing **institutions and mechanisms** to reach out equally to girls, boys, women and men, and to promote gender equality.

Gender-specific action

Gender-specific policies, measures or activities are needed whenever girls or women are in a particularly disadvantageous position. Gender-specific action requires attention in terms of content, form and process (the WHAT and the HOW).

In terms of content, the sectors and issues to be addressed will vary from country to country. However, programmes and measures are often needed in:

- sectors, industries and occupations where **many** girls and women are found (for example, agricultural and informal sector work, home work, domestic work, prostitution, footwear and garment industries)

- sectors where girls and women are virtually absent (male-dominated industries and occupations such as engineering, mechanics, computers, technology or jobs at the executive levels)

- issues which especially concern girl and women workers (reproductive roles and responsibilities, teenage pregnancies, maternity protection, violence at home or in the workplace such as sexual harassment).

In terms of form and process, gender-specific action can include one or a combination of the following:

- **Positive or affirmative action** refers to necessary temporary measures, designed to eliminate the current direct and indirect results of discrimination. Generally, they consist of setting targets or quota’s for the participation of girls, women, boys and men in programmes for a given time period. Positive action is also known as positive discrimination. Sometimes the use of this means of action leads to heated debates and controversy. However, the international community has agreed that positive action measures are justified and necessary to combat the effects of past discrimination and enable women to achieve genuine equality in the labour market. Positive action measures should:
- intend to remove discrimination of the disadvantaged sex, but should not promote discrimination against the other sex
- address specific areas where the present-day results of past discrimination can be shown to impede the enjoyment of existing rights
- be temporary measures to remove the results of past discrimination. Once there is a balance the measures should be terminated.

**Women-specific activities** are interventions specifically targeted at girls and women which may be needed whenever cultural norms and values restrict women’s equal participation in activities involving both sexes. Women-specific activities can also be used to enable women to develop and strengthen their self-esteem, to identify their constraints and to jointly develop means to overcome them.

**Men-specific activities** are needed, because inputs of both men and women are necessary to achieve gender equality. Raising the awareness of men is especially important as men are often in positions of authority as husbands, fathers and decision makers, who need to be convinced and committed to take responsibility for gender equality in partnership with women.

**Institutional change**

Gender inequality is often built into organizations and institutional mechanisms and processes. Institutional change is therefore called for in institutional frameworks, structures and cultures, procedures and processes to create organisational environments, which are conducive to the promotion of gender equality. Bureaucratic organizations are resistant to change and there often is an instinctive reaction against change towards more equal gender relations due to deeply felt anxieties associated with this issue. However, consensus is growing that a gender and women-friendly environment in organizations and institutional processes makes organizations more cost-effective.

The gender mainstreaming process in countries and organizations usually consists of the following steps:

- **Obtaining and securing political will and commitment:** the State must define gender equality as one of its main development objectives. There is a strong correlation between the political will for gender mainstreaming and public awareness of gender equality issues. The responsibility for implementing the mainstreaming strategy is system-wide, and rests at the highest levels within agencies. There should also be adequate accountability mechanisms for monitoring progress.
- **Establishing equal opportunities legislation and anti-discrimination laws:** equality legislation serves as a safeguard against discrimination, not least in the labour market. This legislation is a necessary basis for the promotion of equality.
- **Adopting explicit gender equality policies and measures, and programming, budget and accountability procedures for the promotion of equality between men and women, such as setting time-bound goals, establishing institutional mechanisms, gender budgeting and gender auditing.**

With regard to institutional processes, it is important to:

- **Provide awareness raising and training to staff at all levels.**
- **Make all staff accountable and capacitate them to become effective change agents towards the achievement of gender equality at work.**
- **Create separate mechanisms to develop, guide and monitor the impact of gender mainstreaming and gender-specific action.** Actions taken by many countries worldwide include the set up of:
- Promoters and ‘watchdogs’ such as equality ombuds-persons or commissions or councils for protection against discrimination
- Strong national gender equality machinery (administrative organization) with sufficient tools and resources (both human and financial) to exert influence on policy at all levels, usually consisting of the government’s women’s machinery and (gender experts from) civil society organizations.
- Equality divisions or focal points within each ministry at national and decentralized levels.

- Create explicit entry-points in the overall policy and programming cycle of the concerned organizations to address gender equality promotion.
- Set targets for staff recruitment and promotion towards more equal representation of women, especially within the leadership of organizations.

**Giving girls and women a voice**

Girls and women need to be given opportunities to participate in and benefit from development programmes on an equal footing with men. Both girls and boys need to learn from an early age onwards that decisions need to be made in partnership between men and women.

Counting more women in organizations and in decision-making processes does not automatically lead to gender sensitive policies, programmes, organizations and mechanisms as women are not by definition promoters of gender equality. However, the majority of women will be inclined to be active promoters for change towards more equal gender relations, for the simple reason that they share gender-related constraints and impediments with other women in their society.

Equal participation of men and women in decision-making usually means that women’s participation rates need to be increased substantially at the higher organisational levels. For this purpose more and more organizations have adopted time-bound targets for an improved gender balance among their staff. While the ratio of women’s participation will depend on the issue, sector and setting at hand, tokenism, i.e. including only one or a few women, will not work:

- Generally, the **male/female ratio** of representation should range between 40 and 60 per cent in mixed groups to allow for balanced representation of male and female views

- A handy **ground rule** is to ensure a representation rate of around **30 per cent of each sex** as a minimum; otherwise it becomes difficult for those in the minority to effectively have a voice.

If women have been socialized as ‘second class’ citizens, or if cultural traditions or other forces impede free dialogue between men and women in the public sphere, women will be too shy to give their opinions in mixed audiences. In such cases, separate mechanisms need to be set up for women and men respectively to ensure that the voices of both sexes can be heard and taken into account, and to build up the confidence of women. For example, if communities are strongly segregated by sex, it may be necessary to establish a separate women’s education committee in addition to an already existing parent-school committee, if the latter consists of only men and women are not allowed to participate or speak in such a committee to enable both parents to have a say on their children’s schooling.
Gender budgeting and auditing

Gender budgets, ‘gender-sensitive budgets’, or ‘women’s budgets’ refer to a variety of processes and tools, which (i) assess the use of budgets in terms of differential impact on all ages on different groups of women and men of all ages and (ii) allow for the planning, implementation or review of gender-specific action.

Gender or women’s budgets are not separate budgets for women. A gender-sensitive budget is about translating legal, policy and programme commitments toward gender equality into budgetary commitments both in overall allocations and to allow for carrying out gender-specific action, for example, to apply equal opportunity or non-discrimination legislation.

Gender budgeting includes:
- disaggregating by sex the impact of mainstream expenditures across all sectors and services
- planning and implementation or review of gender-specific allocations, e.g. equal opportunities polices and allocations within government services or special programmes targeting women, girls, boys or men to address inequalities.

Gender audits are a review or assessment of an organization’s performance in promoting gender equality. A gender audit facilitates organisational learning at the individual, work unit and organisational levels on how to implement gender mainstreaming strategies effectively in the policies, programmes and structures of an organization.

Key strategies

In order to facilitate the application of the above gender mainstreaming tools in action against child labour and trafficking, the following strategies can be used to bring gender equality concerns into the mainstream of all programmes, smaller scale projects and action programmes - hereafter referred to as programmes - against child labour. The recommendations given below, are valid also to redress inequalities faced by other marginalized groups such as ethnic or religious minorities or the disabled. In such cases, girls and women among these groups often need to cope with the effects of multi-layered discrimination. For example: a girl may face discrimination because she is young, is a woman migrant from an ethnic minority, who works in a low-status profession as domestic or sex worker.

On the technical content of programmes

- Mainstream gender, in other words, incorporate an explicit gender dimension in all policies and programmes against child labour. To make sure that girls and boys benefit equally from policies and programmes against child labour, their different needs, constraints and opportunities need to be taken into account. If girls or their mothers – or boys and men – are disadvantaged, special measures need to be taken to address their situation and advance their position so that they can participate in, and benefit from development programmes equally.
ILF’s International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) adopted an explicit gender mainstreaming strategy in its programming in 2001. It identifies working girls as priority target group. The implementation plan has four components as follows:

- awareness creation and capacity building of IPEC staff and partners in systematically integrating gender concerns in programming activities
- improving the knowledge base on gender and child labour through research, gender analysis of field operations, and developing gender mainstreaming tools for IPEC partners
- effective coaching, monitoring and evaluation for gender-responsive programming
- ensuring a clear strategy for gender budgeting, e.g. identifying funds for gender components in the programme documents, developing work plans with an explicit gender dimension built-in, and including gender mainstreaming in IPEC’s budget.

- Take gender equality concerns into account at the earliest stages of the programming cycle and at the highest levels of policy, programme and budget formulation. Of course, gender equality concerns can be addressed later in the programming cycle, when programme implementers find that there are gender-related problems on the ground. However, it is most cost-effective to include gender equality concerns at the initial planning and design stages when programmes and budgets are being prepared by implementers and approved by policy makers.

“I have become a decided advocate of gender equality not only for reasons of principle which in itself would be enough, but also for pragmatic reasons … Promoting gender equality is not only the right thing to do, it is also the smart thing to do.” – Juan Samovia, Director-General of the ILO, in Statement on the International Women’s Day, Geneva, 8 March 1999

Shortly after taking office in March 1999, the ILO Director-General pledged a strong commitment to gender equality and gender mainstreaming. To achieve the goal of gender integration in three ILO policy areas:

- **representation** – improve the balance of professional staff within the ILO towards the goal of 50 per cent women by 2010 and create a more family-friendly workplace
- **substance** – gender equality is integrated into all technical work, support and operational activities of the ILO
- **structure** – all sectors are obligated to develop and strengthen institutional arrangements to effectively mainstream gender in their work: gender issues will be integrated into new and existing mechanisms for programming, implementing, monitoring and evaluation.

- Ensure the equal representation and active participation of women and men at all levels and especially in decision-making positions and mechanisms throughout the programming cycle, i.e. during the planning, design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of programmes. Consult with gender specialists and women’s organizations and mobilize women role models whenever possible.

- Carry out a gender analysis and disaggregate all crucial data related to child labour by sex before starting any interventions. The process of starting an IPEC country programme begins with finding out where boy and girl labourers are and the extent to which they are involved in the worst forms of child labour. When designing IPEC programmes initial research and needs analyses should identify both the economic and non-economic activities of children from 5 years onwards; the extent of their involvement in house work; possible differences between the situation of boys and girls, and their needs, options, coping strategies and opportunities. This information can be collected
from many sources but should include discussions and interviews with girls and boys themselves and both fathers and mothers.

The Highland People’s Development Network (HPDN) aims to promote equality for hill tribe minorities in Thailand. The problem analysis carried out before the start of action reveals several key issues, including lack of legal status – of about 1 million hill tribe minorities in Thailand, some 350,000 persons are considered aliens or illegal migrants and 250,000 stateless under the Thai law, discrimination in law and in practice, and exclusion from mainstream development. **Women and girls are especially vulnerable to exploitation.** Following this analysis, HPDN designed a strategic intervention at the group, community and network level, with focus on youth and women. Two main components of the intervention are enhancement of the learning process in communities and building capacity of groups and networks.

- **Enhance learning process** - women’s platforms and cultural camps
- **Capacity building** – Ethnic Youth Council at community level, youth camps at network level, and Ethnic Women’s Assembly at regional level

Target sectors where **many girls** are found working. Girls are often concentrated in sectors or occupations, in which there is a high risk of labour exploitation. They are over represented in prostitution and domestic work and form the majority of victims from trafficking. This concerns dangerous and exploitative work and it is difficult to reach these girls. Special programmes are needed to first of all prevent this type of child labour abuse. Further, integrated programmes are needed to remove them from work and provide them and their families with alternatives.

**The Kasambahay Programme by Visayan Forum Foundation** in the Philippines targets child domestic workers (CDWs) in both source and destination communities – from Visayos and Mindanao to Manila. The Kasambahay Programme which started in 2001, takes a three-pronged approach:

- **Direct services** – Temporary shelter, social security coverage and educational opportunities have been provided to over 5,000 CDWs, most of whom are girls.
- **Organizing** – In 1995 Visayan Forum helped set up SUMAPI (Association and Linkage of Child Domestic Workers in the Philippines).
- **Advocacy** – Kasambahay calls attention and action on the plight of CDWs through legislation and institutionalizing national programmes on CDWs.

Target **invisible** child labourers, many of whom are girls by using a family or area-specific approach. There is often a tendency in countries which are starting to address their child labour problem to wish to address the problems of the most visible child labourers first, even if they are not involved in the worst forms of child labour. In many instances these are boys, as boys and men in many societies work in the public sphere while girls and women work in private homes or other workplaces, hidden to the public eye. In other instances there is a call for eliminating child labour in specific industries or occupations only. Again, a piece-meal approach will not lead to sustainable results and may lead to further inequalities among the intended beneficiaries. It may be useful and sometimes necessary to start addressing a child labour problem in a specific sector or occupation in a given geographical area. However, it will be necessary to have a holistic approach and address all child labour abuses in this area, for example by targeting invisible girl workers in addition to their brothers working in the industry, agricultural sector or occupation which is targeted under the programme.
• **Redress inequalities** in access of girls and women to quality education and training. Equal access of boys and girls to quality education and training in employable skills is therefore the most crucial tool against child labour. Besides increasing girls’ access to education and training, important gender concerns relate to the quality of the curriculum which should portray positive images of girls, women, boys and men and the need to combat job segregation by sex by channeling both girls and boys into multi-skills training which prepares both sexes for productive work. Education of women and men is also vital not only for themselves but to enable them to properly look after their children. Education of women especially has proven to give a high return on investment in terms of improving the welfare of their families.

### The ILO Mekong Subregional Project on Trafficking in Children and Women (TICW) in Yunnan Province, China

The ILO Mekong Subregional Project on Trafficking in Children and Women (TICW) in Yunnan Province, China, has adopted a cascade training method in promoting gender equality education as part of its trafficking prevention programme in the target areas, where boys are often given priority by families to attend school. The TICW-Yunnan implementing partners, the Education Bureaus in Jiangcheng and Menghai Counties, trained 135 heads in the primary and middle schools, who trained 475 teachers, who in turn trained 13,009 students. In the target communities 48 volunteer groups work with parents who also receive information from their children from school.

Pre- and post-training questionnaires show that awareness on gender equality has increased among students, teachers and people in the communities. Girls’ enrollment has increased and teachers are now keen on learning and teaching about gender equality promotion. Some changes in behaviours have been also observed. For example, **boys have begun to sweep floors and in some families mothers and daughters are now permitted to sit together for meals with fathers and sons**, while before the women ate separately or after the men.

• **Target the poorest** and most disadvantaged households. Poverty is caused because of lack of access to and control over human and financial resources, assets and information. Poverty alleviation is therefore crucial in the struggle against child labour. It is usually most difficult to reach the most disadvantaged in development programmes and special efforts need to be made to enable their participation. The priority target group should include the poorest of the poor. Many of these are female single parent- or child-headed households.

• Provide **alternative livelihood strategies** to families prone to or already resorting to child labour through the economic and social empowerment of parents and children. Piece-meal solutions often do not lead to the intended results in programmes against child labour and raising income of children or their parents will, by itself, not lead to ending child labour. An integrated package of services is needed to raise the income and position of low-income families by providing them with training in productive skills, literacy, numeracy, communication, organisational and group formation skills. When self-employment rather than wage employment is the most viable option, business support services need to be combined with micro-credit. Information on the harmful effects of child labour, human development and family welfare is needed to allow for the good use of family income. In addition, measures to develop or strengthen group formation and cooperation are often important to enable the target population to learn from each other and benefit from economies of scale and increased bargaining power.
**GET Ahead Training** (G = Gender, E = Entrepreneurship, T = Together) has been piloted to strengthen the income generating activities (IGA) in some ILO projects geared at promoting employment opportunity for women in poverty and preventing the trafficking of children and women. With micro credit support from the ILO Mekong Subregional Project on Trafficking in Children and Women (TICW), a number of women community leaders with low literacy have been involved in running the IGAs under the TICW project in Lao PDR such as pig and chicken raising, mushroom growing and other rural-based economic activities. Besides credit and vocational training, they needed business skills and knowledge about market access and group organization to sustain and expand their IGAs at the community level.

GET Ahead Training, a gender-specific action targeted at (potential) business women in poverty, aims to develop entrepreneurial capacity of women to turn their IGAs into profitable micro and small enterprises as an effective means to prevent trafficking of children and women for labour and other forms of exploitation. With technical support from several units within the ILO, the GET Ahead training manual and training of trainers’ workshops were piloted successfully in Cambodia and Lao PDR in early 2003. Further capacity building on women’s enterprise development will take place for partner organizations active in preventing and combating child labour abuses and trafficking and enabling women and their families to overcome poverty.

- Involve both fathers and mothers in any programme or project against child labour and pay attention to the sharing of family responsibilities and other workload as well as decision-making processes within the family. The overall workload of girls and women often needs to be reduced to allow them sufficient rest and to take part in more productive activities. In addition to providing labour saving technological devices it is important to encourage boys and men to take responsibility for household duties, for example, by increasing the status of care giving. Attitudinal changes in relation to equal sharing of decision-making between parents on the spending of the family income also need to be part and parcel of any programme against child labour.

The **Cambodian Men’s Network (CMN)** was established in 2000 as part of the Gender and Development for Cambodia (GAD/C) advocacy programme, aiming to help men understand their roles and responsibilities in bringing about social change. CMN is currently active in five regions in Cambodia, having over 1,000 members in 12 provinces and two municipalities. CMN encourages its members to be loving and responsible fathers. Members help other men understand the gender dimension of problems such as the trafficking of women and children, HIV/AIDS, discrimination, sexual harassment, domestic violence and rape. The key message is that these issues are also men’s issues. Together with Cambodia’s youth groups, CMN has conducted training, which includes human and women’s rights, with soldiers, police, teachers, workers, government officials, NGO staff and men in communities.

- Address both practical and strategic gender needs. The above highlights successful strategies to address the practical and strategic gender needs of the intended beneficiaries in programmes against child labour. However, each programme has its specific characteristics depending on the needs and the situation of the target groups. For that reason, programme designers and implementers should always keep their ears and eyes open and be alert to identify other gender inequalities which impede the successful solution of a child labour problem. For example, legal or practical limitations related to women’s access to land and other property titles can be formidable constraints in raising the income of women for example customs on sex segregation. Other gender-related issues such as family planning, teenage pregnancy and domestic violence can also be important intervening factors that need to be addressed in child labour and anti-trafficking programming.
The Planned Parenthood Association of Thailand (PPAT), a partner agency of the ILO Mekong Subregional Project on Trafficking in Children and Women (TICW) Project in Thailand, provides education and training to women and girls in communities on reproductive health (including family planning and HIV/AIDS), reproductive rights, unwanted pregnancy and domestic violence. PPAT’s strategies to promote gender equality and reproductive rights include:

- providing reproductive health education and services to women in communities
- promoting participation of communities in empowering women to access reproductive health services
- encouraging men to participate in education and counseling on safe reproductive health
- providing sex education and promoting safe reproductive health among young people.

**In terms of organizing the programme**

- Increase *gender awareness* among all programme stakeholders on the promotion of gender equality. Many people are still not aware or convinced about the need for addressing differences between women and men and girls and boys. This leads to maintaining the status quo or even deteriorating the position of girls and women.

The ILO-IPEC SCREAM (Supporting Children’s Rights through Education, the Arts, and the Media) educational modules for young people encourage the use of creative arts to cover a range of issues related to child labour, with gender equality messages being mainstreamed throughout the modules.

With a view to redress existing gender inequalities and discrimination in child labour issues, the SCREAM modules target boys and girls together, using visual, literary and performing arts as a tool to help them express themselves, and equip and empower them with knowledge and skills to bring about social change. The modules help them learn to critique popular attitudes on gender equality, gain perspectives and make recommendations on policies and programmes, and build confidence and skills to present their own messages to their parents, community and decision makers.

- Assess and strengthen the capacity of staff to address the needs of girls, boys, men and women and work towards greater gender equality.
- Mobilize *women’s groups* and organizations. Women’s groups can be very powerful instruments in the struggle against child labour. Empowering women means that children will be better off as well.

Mass organizations, such as the Women’s Union in China, Lao PDR and Viet Nam can be very effective in raising awareness and mobilizing actors from the policy making levels to communities in rural and urban areas. In the past, such organizations often dealt with smaller scale ‘women-only’ projects. In recent time these unions have taken an active lead in gender mainstreaming which led to successful models, how mainstream gender and women’s concerns in large social and economy development programmes still remain a challenge.
• Avoid linguistic and visual biases and gender stereotyping, for example, when developing training materials and awareness-raising campaigns or when recruiting personnel.

• Assign responsibility for the promotion of equality to all those involved in the programme. Organize awareness-raising activities to increase their gender sensitivity and technical capacity to integrate gender concerns into their work.

• If imbalances between men’s and women’s position exist, plan, budget and utilize specific gender expertise throughout the programming cycle. Sufficient resources need to be earmarked to allow for a gender analysis in research and the implementation of specific measures to address gender imbalances. Often, it is useful to set targets for both male and female staff to ensure the recruitment of women in cases where girls and women cannot be effectively reached by men.

• Analyze the different impact of programmes on girls, women, boys and men at the monitoring and evaluation stages and develop appropriate follow-up action. As stated earlier it is better to identify and address gender inequalities at the design stage of a programme. However, especially when programmes are gender blind, it is important to look at critical gender issues at the monitoring and evaluation stages to redress this situation.

• Involve employers and trade unions, who may be well placed to evaluate and determine labour market needs, particularly for migrant workers, and to promote the use of proper contracts and observance of basic labour standards. Employers and workers’ organizations can play a role as important lobby groups in destination countries for legal and safe labour migration and orderly admission of migrant workers. Trade Unions can play a part in fight against racial, gender and other types of discrimination that often affect women and other vulnerable workers.

NUWHRAIN (National Union of Workers in the Hotel Restaurant and Allied Industries) developed a joint programme with the ILO. Since 1999, NUWHRAIN’s project on the Trade Union Action in Combating Child Labour in the Tourism Industry in the Philippines aims to tackle the exploitation of children, in particular sexual exploitation, in the tourism industry. It focuses on institutional development of the unions in preventing child labour abuses in a multi-faceted approach, including research, advocacy, social mobilization, lobbying, collective bargaining, child labour desk, counseling and referral. NUWHRAIN is an affiliate of the International Union of Food, Agriculture, Hotel Restaurant, Catering and Tobacco Workers Associations (IUF). It has 45 local chapters with 6,000 members in five regions of the Philippines.
Part 2: Practical tools and checklists

1. Training tool: Summary of key concepts and strategies

Basic concepts

- **Gender** refers to the social differences and relations between girls and boys, women and men that are learned and vary widely within and between cultures and change over time.

- **Sex** refers to the biological differences between men and women that are universal and do not change.

- **Gender values and norms** in society refer to ideas that people have on what men and women of all generations should be like. For example; in many societies girls should be obedient and cute and are allowed to cry. Boys, on the other hand, are expected to be brave and should not cry.

- **Gender stereotypes** are the ideas that people have on what boys and men, girls and women are capable of doing. For example, women are better housekeepers and men are better leaders, boys are better in mathematics than girls.

- **Gender roles** refer to do the activities that both sexes actually do. For example, boys help their fathers working outside the house on the land and girls help their mothers taking care of the household work.

- **Gender equality** refers to the equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of men and women, girls and boys. It includes the same human and workers’ rights and equal value and fair distribution of responsibilities and opportunities, as well as workload and decision making.

- **Gender discrimination** is any distinction, exclusion or preference based on sex or gender, which has the effect of nullifying or impairing equality of opportunity and treatment.

- **Human rights** are the basic and absolute rights that each person has because he or she is a human being.

- **National legal rights** are the rights recognized and protected by law in each country.

- **Fundamental rights at work** are:
  - the elimination of all forms of forced and compulsory labour
  - the abolition of child labour
  - the elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation
- freedom of association and the recognition of the right to collective bargaining.

- **Fundamental rights of women workers** concern:
  - equality of opportunity and treatment between men and women in employment
  - equal pay for work of equal value
  - better balance between male and female workers with family responsibilities
  - maternity protection.

- **Child rights**: all children have the rights to non-discrimination to have their best interest considered, to enjoy physical and social development to their fullest potential, and to participation.

- **Child labour** is work that hinders education, and mental or physical development of children. The ILO Conventions No. 138 and 182 provide guidelines on minimum age and the worst forms of child labour.

- **Trafficking** refers to a coercive, non-consensual and exploitative or servile nature of the purpose of movement, and involves a number of serious human rights violations, including forced labour, sexual and labour exploitation, violence and abuse of the victims.

### Rationale

- Promoting the elimination of child labour and equality between the sexes is not only the **right** but also the **smart thing** to do.

### Key gender differentials in child labour

- Both boys and girls are engaged in child labour but the **number of girls** in child labour may be **underestimated** due to the invisible or hidden nature of the work in which they are involved, such as domestic work or sex work.

- Despite considerable overlap, there is a significant **sex segregation** in the types of work in which children are involved. Boys tend to work in typically male-dominated sectors such as construction, mining and fishery and often are recruited to armed conflict. Girls are typically found in female-dominated sectors, including garment sectors and service sectors such as domestic work and commercial sex industry.

- Many girls develop a sense of **low self-esteem** which they have fully internalized from social and cultural values when they become adult women.

- Worldwide, girls and women from poor families have less **access** to education, training and other opportunities to advance in life. Girls are expected to start working from an early age while boys have more opportunities to go to school.

- **Education and training** systems tend to reinforce existing inequalities in societies. Gender biases and discrimination in education and training also result in more serious **sex segregation** in the labour market.
• Girls and women are often involved in **invisible work**, i.e. unpaid activities such as cooking, cleaning and caring for family members in their own household. They also often carry out unpaid work in and around the household such as working in family enterprise.

• Girls are **excluded** from education or suffer the **triple burden** of housework, schoolwork and economic work.

• Women and girls have increasingly started to earn income because of economic need and for **survival purposes**.

• The work of women and girls is often of **low quality** and precarious.

• Girl and women workers predominate in **hidden and unregulated** sectors, such as domestic service and in commercial sex work, making them more vulnerable to exploitation and abuse. Girls and women also form the large majority of victims from trafficking for labour exploitation.

• Many girls and women are **paid less** than boys and men for the same type of work and they have **less control** over the income they earn. If girls and women spend their own earnings, most if not all is spent on their families.

• Girls and women are often preferred as workers because they are **socialized** to work hard and be obedient.

• Many girls and women experience an enhanced sense of self-esteem and an expansion of life choices if they **earn income** with their work.

• Families with **many children** often find themselves unable to provide adequately for all and the children are prone to be engaged in child labour.

• **Single female-headed households** are particularly vulnerable to resorting to child labour.

• Working mothers who have **no access** to childcare and schools, will take their children to work. These children will start working from an early age onwards.

• If mothers go out to work, the **older daughters** are often kept at home to look after the household duties and family care.

• Children can be **sold or 'given away'** by parents with promises of a better life for them. These children, often girls, end up in the worst forms of child labour.

• If girls get **pregnant** outside marriage, they are taken out of school. Some get married but the majority become outcasts, need to earn their own income and look after their children without family or community support. Thus, their children become child workers as well.

• **Foreign-born children** are found in more exploitative and dangerous work than native children, and **women and girl migrants** are more vulnerable to trafficking for labour and sexual, and other forms of exploitation.
• Family responsibilities between men and women are **unequally divided**: men usually make major decisions on investments even if women hold the household purse and girls and women do most if not all of the household work.

• Women are **under-represented** in formal and informal decision-making structures and processes.

**Key principles for the promotion of gender equality:**

• Achieving gender equality is not a ‘women’s concern’ but the **responsibility of all** in society.

• Promoting gender equality will **benefit all** in society.

• Gender equality needs to be addressed in **all** development programmes and at **all** stages of the programming cycle.

• In case of pronounced imbalances, **gender-specific measures** are needed to address inequalities and advance the status of women in society.

• Address **practical** and **strategic** gender needs. Practical needs relate to inadequacies in living and working conditions of the target groups. Strategic needs relate to the inequalities between men and women.

**Gender mainstreaming: Main Tools**

• Gender mainstreaming is an institutional strategy aimed at giving **equal opportunities and rights** to men and women as beneficiaries, participants and decision-makers by addressing gender inequalities systematically in legislation, policies, programmes and budgets at all stages of the programming cycle.

• A five-pronged approach is needed to bring gender issues into the **mainstream** in all policies, programmes and activities:
  • carrying out a gender **analysis**
  • carrying out gender-**specific** strategies or interventions
  • starting a process of **institutional change** in procedures and in institutional processes.
  • giving girls and women a **voice**.
  • Carrying out **gender budgeting and auditing**

• **Gender analysis** includes:
  • collecting data which are **broken down** by sex,
  • identifying the **division of labour**, and access to and control over resources and benefits
  • understanding girls’ boys’, women’s and men’s **needs, constraints and opportunities**
  • identifying constraints and opportunities in the **larger** environment
  • reviewing the **capacities** of organizations to promote gender equality.
• **Gender-specific interventions**, measures or activities are needed whenever girls or women are in a particularly disadvantageous position. Pay specific attention to:
  • sectors, industries and occupations where *many* girls and women are found
  • sectors where girls and women are virtually *absent*
  • issues which especially *concern* girl and women workers.

• **Gender-specific action** can include one or a combination of the following:
  • *Positive or affirmative action*
  • *Women-specific activities*
  • *Men-specific activities*.

• Tools for **mainstreaming** gender within organizations include:
  • adopting *explicit* policy, programming, budget and accountability procedures for the promotion of equality
  • training staff and making them *accountable*
  • setting of *targets* for staff recruitment and promotion.

• **Giving girls and women a voice**:
  • increasing the *participation* of girls and women in programmes
  • increasing the representation of women in decision-making
  • generally, the male/female ratio of representation should range between 40 and 60 per cent.
  • the ground rule: a representation rate of around 30 per cent of each sex as a *minimum*, otherwise it becomes difficult for those in the minority to effectively have a voice.

• Carrying out **gender budgeting and auditing**.

**Main strategies**

Main strategies to bring gender issues into the mainstream of all (country) programmes and smaller scale projects and action programmes (hereafter referred to as programmes) against child labour are:

**Technical aspects**

• Incorporate an *explicit* gender dimension in all policies and programmes against child labour.

• Take gender equality concerns into account at the *earliest* stages of the programming cycle and at the *highest* levels of policy, programme and budget formulation.

• Ensure the *equal representation and active* participation of women and men, as well as girl children and boy children, at all levels and especially in decision-making positions and mechanisms throughout the programming cycle.

• Carry out a gender analysis and **disaggregate** all crucial data related to child labour by sex before starting any interventions.
• Target sectors where **many** girls are found working.

• Target the **poorest** and most disadvantaged households.

• Redress **inequalities** in access of girls and women to quality education and training.

• Provide **alternative livelihood** strategies to families prone to or already resorting to child labour through the economic and social empowerment of parents and children.

• Target **invisible** child labourers, many of whom are girls by using a family or area-specific approach.

• Involve both **fathers and mothers** in any programme or project against child labour and pay attention to the sharing of family responsibilities and other workload as well as decision-making processes within the family.

• Address both **practical** and **strategic** gender needs.

**Organisational aspects**

• Increase **gender awareness** among all programme stakeholders.

• Assess and strengthen the **capacity** of the intermediary organizations to address the needs of men and women workers and to promote gender equality.

• Mobilize **women’s groups** and organizations.

• **Avoid** linguistic and visual biases and gender **stereotyping**

• Assign **responsibility** for the promotion of equality to all those involved in the programme.

• If **imbalances** between men’s and women’s position exist, plan, budget and utilize specific gender expertise throughout the programming cycle.

• Analyze the **different impact** of programmes on girls, women, boys and men at the monitoring and evaluation stages and develop appropriate follow-up action.

• Involve **employers and trade unions** in evaluating labour market needs, particularly for migrant workers, and to promote the use of proper contracts and observance of basic labour standards.
2. Gender mainstreaming in the design of action programmes

In the past, it has often been assumed that women and girls benefit automatically from development efforts and that progress towards equality takes place naturally. However, it has become abundantly clear that, if gender concerns are not explicitly incorporated in the design and implementation of development programmes, women’s and girls’ situation may become worse.

Looking at the situation of girls at work, available data clearly show that the unequal positioning of men and women in the world of work starts at an early age. Being confined to the homes, hidden from scrutiny, with little or no pay at all, the gender-specific patterns of discrimination can already be found among working girls and are being passed on from generation to generation.

With a mandate to give special attention to the situation of girls, ILO-IPEC programmes face the challenge to bring gender discrimination to an end and prepare the younger generation for more balanced relations between men and women. This can be done through gender mainstreaming and addressing gender-specific concerns throughout the programming cycle of action against child labour and trafficking.

This practical tool ensures the systematic integration of gender issues in the design of IPEC action programmes. This is the first step to incorporate a gender perspective at all stages of the programming cycle and the most crucial one. It involves the conduct of a thorough gender analysis of the target groups, and the identification of the potential effects of future interventions on boys and girls. Effective strategies have to be designed to address gender inequalities in sectors where many working girls can be found, or in sectors where they appear to be absent, or on special issues which especially concern girls. Gender-specific action includes the use of positive action or protective measures to enable girls to participate and benefit equally from development efforts.

Gender inequality is often built into organizational structures and institutional mechanisms. Institutional change is therefore called for through the promotion of explicit policy and programme procedures, budget allocations for gender-related activities, and the capacitating of organizations to become effective change agents towards achieving gender equality. The involvement of girls, women and their organizations in the decision-making process at all stages of the programming cycle is an important way of ensuring that girls actively participate in and benefit from the development process.

The following checklist provides IPEC National Project Managers (NPM) and National Project Coordinators (NPC), programme implementors and consultants with a practical tool in the design of gender-responsive child labour interventions. It complements the guidelines on the design of action programmes as specified in the IPEC standard operating procedures.

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8 This tool was originally developed by Susanne Schroth in the earlier version of this Practical Guide, 2000.
1. **Background and Justification**

1.1 **Analysis of the problem**

Carrying out a gender analysis to identify the different roles and needs of boys and girls should be the first step in planning a child labour programme. Although it can be undertaken at any stage during the programming cycle, it is most effective to carry out a gender analysis at the initial planning and design stages among working children, their parents and the organizations that support them.

All research whether quantitative or qualitative should disaggregate data by sex. Specific efforts need to be made to identify the workload of girls in invisible activities, such as domestic chores and other unpaid activities.

In order to avoid misperceptions, it is most important that boys and girls are given the opportunity to identify their situation and prioritize their own needs. The information gathering may require specific approaches to ensure that children have the opportunity to articulate themselves. For instance, in most Asian cultures, children do not freely voice their opinions in the presence of adults or authority figures, and girls are less likely to speak up in a mixed group. Therefore, to get real inputs from children meetings should be organized with them only. In some instances, meetings should be organized for girls and boys separately.

Inputs from key informants, such as teachers and community leaders should be included as well as findings from previous research and relevant documents. The analysis should focus on the following questions:

- **What is the division of labour** between boys and girls?

If little or no information is available on the gender division of labour within the target population, it is often useful to draw up an activity profile for girls and boys according to:

- **economic roles**: These refer to work undertaken to produce goods and services. Such productive tasks can take place at the workplace or at home, can be paid or unpaid, and can be formally or informally organized
- **non-economic roles**: These refer to child-rearing and the different activities carried out in caring for household members and the community, such as fuel and water collection, food preparation, child care, coaching and health care.

It is also important to look into the individual activities done by boys and girls and their parents as appropriate and identify:

- working hours per day / per week
- the supervision of work by adults
- the location of the workplace
- the work hazards
- time and location for recreation and rest
- freedom to move
- opportunity to maintain contact with parents and relatives
- age, including starting age of work
- opportunities and participation in training and education
- job segregation horizontally (sectors) and vertically (hierarchical levels) between boys and girls, and their parents as relevant.
• Who has access to and control over resources and benefits?

A differentiation has to be made between access to and control over resources and benefits because the use of resources and benefits does not necessarily imply the power to control them:

♦ **Resources** include anything which people need to carry out their activities (time, money, jobs, land, equipment, education/training).
♦ **Benefits** include any tangible or intangible returns from their work (food, clothing, shelter, education/training, income, status, power, recognition).

Identify who is excluded from the use, ownership or control over resources and benefits:

♦ Which decisions can boys and girls make at the household and community level to gain access to resources and influence the distribution of benefits?
♦ What are the differences between men and women in decision-making in the family, the work place and the community?

• What needs do boys and girls have?

In identifying the needs profile of boys and girls and their parents, it is helpful to distinguish between practical and strategic needs:

♦ **Practical gender needs** are needs related to the roles assigned to boys and girls, men and women in society which are linked to survival strategies (food, shelter, income, water provision, health care, employment).
♦ **Strategic gender needs** are needs identified to overcome the subordinate position of girls and women in society and relate to their empowerment (equal access to resources, equal pay for work of equal value, freedom of child bearing).

• What are the constraints and/or opportunities in the socio-economic environment?

The following factors influence gender relations and should be considered at the macro, sectoral and micro levels as appropriate:

♦ Environmental conditions, constraints and opportunities: soil fertility or degradation, climate changes, natural disasters
♦ Economic conditions: poverty level, income distribution, inflation rate, international trade relations, structural adjustment programmes, level of infrastructure, market demands, and economic crises
♦ Demographic conditions: fertility rate, labour supply, number of new entrants in the labour force every year, internal and international migration patterns
♦ Prevalent norms and values: culture, religion and ethnicity, possible existence of various subcultures
♦ Political events at the local, national and international levels, political turmoil or stability
♦ Legislation and regulations, national development policies
♦ Training and educational levels and types of skills of the population and education and training facilities
Institutional arrangements such as the nature and scope of government institutions, employers' and workers' organizations, other NGOs, community and women's groups.

It is useful to identify the extent of direct and indirect discrimination which constraint girls' and women's full participation in society:

- **Direct discrimination** occurs when formal, legal rules, regulations and practices explicitly prohibit girls from participating in activities equally
- **Indirect discrimination** occurs when social rules and practices, norms and values inhibit girls to participate equally in activities.

- Are any of the identified gender inequalities being addressed by other programmes, existing policies and/or research initiatives?
  - Describe the existing responses, key actors and lessons learnt in promoting gender issues in the geographical areas where the programme will be active
  - Specify how the programme is planning to further build on these activities.

### 1.2 Programme strategy

- Ensure that the outcome of the gender analysis is used when developing the strategy
- Consider to what extent sex and gender-specific baseline data need to be collected prior to or at the start of the programme. Depending on the sector to be addressed and the level at which activities are carried out, the type and depth of the information to be collected will vary
- Identify how boys and girls, men and women can equally participate in and benefit from the programme
- If imbalances exist between the position of boys and girls consider whether specific action measures are necessary and build this into the programme strategy
- Avoid increasing the workload of boys and girls as unpaid workers especially when this interferes with opportunities for schooling or adds to an already existing number of working hours
- Ensure that the programme is in conformity with the fundamental standards.

The strategies to be developed will depend on the type and scope of the programme. However, a series of general principles and practical measures should be respected:

- Apply a multidisciplinary, integrated and holistic approach
- In the case of demonstration projects or direct action components of larger programmes, apply an ‘area- and family- specific approach’. For example: An action programme geared at eliminating hazardous child labour in automotive repair workshops – a field in which mostly boys will be found – should address the situation of their sisters in invisible child labour at home as well. In street work action programmes geared at preventing child prostitution, be alert to address the needs of girls and boys involved in the commercial sex sector
- Assess the absorptive capacity for gender equality promotion of both the target population and the implementing organization. Changes in attitudes and norms and capacity building are slow processes. Take positive action steadily and gradually
♦ Avoid linguistic and visual biases and gender stereotyping, for example, when recruiting personnel and developing information and training materials
♦ Include measures which address both practical and strategic gender needs
♦ Give explicit attention to awareness-raising and advocacy on gender equality promotion.
♦ Foster the necessary institutional and group structures, including the active participation of girls, women and their organizations. Mobilize boys’ and men’s networks and organizations as well
♦ Address the impact of adults’ gender attitudes on children’s lives and get both parents involved.

1.3 Sustainability

♦ Consider economic and social sustainability: Upon completion of the programme, will girls and boys, men and women continue to be able to refrain from harmful child labour practices and are they able to continue improving their lives without external support?

2. Target Groups

2.1 Working children

♦ When specifying the groups of working children, avoid general terms. Describe the key characteristics in terms of sex, age, types of work, socio-economic status, ethnic and social origin.
♦ Assess the extent to which the beneficiaries are a homogenous group and highlight possible differences between boys and girls and within these groups in terms of working conditions, education, recreation, etc.
♦ Ensure that programme benefits such as training opportunities, provision of credit and other services are distributed according to the existing proportion of girl and boy child workers, mothers and fathers. If girls so far have been underrepresented in benefiting from services, identify whether and how programme benefits will be made available to them.

2.2 Intermediate partner groups

♦ Describe key gender characteristics and differences among the parents of working children and other intermediate partner groups, such as employers, teachers and the police, etc.
♦ Show that where the direct beneficiaries of a programme are intended to be girl or boy child labourers, families (siblings and parents), as well as other child labourers in the same area and communities will also benefit
♦ Provide for strengthening and capacity building of organizations in addressing gender equality promotion.
3. Institutional Framework

3.1 Implementing agency

Assess the capacity of the implementing organization to address the needs of boys and girls to promote gender equality. Analyze the following issues:

♦ Type of organization, major areas of intervention and general capacity to plan and implement strategies on gender equality
♦ Policies, organizational structures and programmes addressing equality concerns
♦ Perceptions and expertise on gender equality among the staff at the various levels of the organization.

3.2 Collaborating institutions

♦ Identify and solicit the cooperation of relevant organizations to ensure the necessary support and inputs for meeting girls’ multi-faceted needs
♦ Identify specific partner organizations with expertise on promoting gender equality if the implementing agency needs assistance in this respect.

4. Objectives

♦ Be gender-specific and explicit and ensure that the objectives reflect priority concerns of girls and boys, and fathers and mothers.
♦ In direct action programme(s) (components) make sure that the immediate objectives refer to the number of girls and boys as intended beneficiaries
♦ If the aims of the programme include explicit gender-specific action to redress inequalities, design a specific immediate objective for this purpose.

5. Major Outputs and Activities

5.1 Outputs

In defining the outputs, be precise and gender specific:

♦ State clearly how many boys and girls will participate in the programme
♦ In institutional development: determine the measures necessary to develop the institutional capacity toward the promotion of gender equality
♦ In direct action: specify the percentage of girls and boys among the intended beneficiaries. Consider whether explicit provisions need to be made to ensure that boys and girls benefit equally from the planned interventions
♦ In research: make sure that data are disaggregated by sex and that gender differences and relations are identified with explicit information about the specific situation, constraints and opportunities of both boys and girls (briefing note 4)
♦ In training/education: state how many boys and girls will be trained, in what area and to what levels. Consider that girls and/or women may need additional training due to lower educational levels
♦ In policy advice: ensure that girls’ role, needs and participation, as well as their specific constraints are explicitly taken into consideration. Consider whether additional measures are needed to provide the enabling environment for girls’
and women’s equal participation, for example, by removing legal or socio-cultural barriers.

5.2 Activities

In organizing activities: ensure that girls are able to participate equally with boys. If communities and parents are involved ensure equal participation of women and men.

♦ Organize physical arrangements, location, timing and duration of programme activities in such a way that girls and women can participate
♦ Arrange child care facilities where necessary
♦ If girls and women cannot freely speak in mixed groups, organize separate meetings or training and arrange for women staff to communicate with them
♦ Identify and use communication channels that will effectively reach girls and women. For example, when publishing programme opportunities and benefits to encourage their participation
♦ Seize opportunities to demonstrate that the participation of girls and women alongside boys and men in development activities, and in public and private life is beneficial to everybody in the family, the community and organizations.

6. Indicators, Assumptions and Prior Obligations

6.1 Indicators

Indicators need to be gender-specific in both general programmes and in gender-specific programme components.

♦ Check whether the baseline data are gender-specific to assess the impact of the programme on the situation of girls, boys, women and men
♦ Develop indicators for measuring progress made towards the promotion of equality between boys and girls
♦ Develop indicators on the nature and the extent of the benefits provided to boys and girls, men and women.

6.2 Assumptions

If there are indications that the political framework could become less conducive to the promotion of gender equality, include a statement to the effect that political support for the promotion of gender equality will continue.

6.3 Prior Obligations

If the project requires considerable gender expertise or inputs for gender-specific activities from the partner organizations - for example, a certain number of female extension staff, a gender-specific policy or commitment - it may be useful to include these inputs as prior obligations.
7. Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation Procedures

♦ Ensure the systematic collection of data to measure the impact of the programme on boys and girls.
♦ Analyze and follow-up on the different impact of the programme on boys and girls at the monitoring and evaluation stages of the programme.

8. Inputs

♦ Ensure that sufficient human and financial resources are allocated for the gender components of the programme
♦ If girls cannot be effectively reached by male staff, determine the number of female staff required. In the same way, if boys cannot be reached by female staff, determine the number of male staff required
♦ Encourage an equal balance among male and female staff at all levels, and provide equal remuneration for men and women for work of equal value
♦ Verify to what extent gender expertise is required in personnel inputs. If so, be explicit and include reference to gender expertise in job descriptions
♦ Allocate responsibility for the promotion of gender equality to all staff in the programme.
### 3. Checklist: How does your organization deal with gender equality promotion?

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do you and your organization do the following?</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Never</th>
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#### ANALYSIS

1. Ensure that background data are disaggregated by age, sex, class or caste and ethnic origin or nationality

2. Include individuals or agencies with gender expertise and key women NGOs in policymaking, programme action plans, research and advocacy initiatives

3. Ensure that the views of boys and girls potentially affected by the programme are sought before, during and after the research

4. Identify the training needs on gender and child labour issues of colleagues

5. Ensure that reporting identifies the sex, practical and strategic gender needs of target groups, gender gaps and gender-related project successes or constraints

#### REPRESENTATION & PARTICIPATION

6. Ensure that both men and women are represented in staff meetings and training activities (at least 1/3 of one sex)

7. Target invisible child labourers (many of whom are girls) by using a family or area-specific approach

8. Give boys and girls the opportunity to voice their views, identify their situation and prioritize their own needs

9. Involve both fathers and mothers in all programmes and projects against child labour exploitation and trafficking

10. Use gender- and culture-sensitive approaches to reach under-represented groups, e.g., use women interviewers for girls, have gender-specific meetings, or involve facilitators who come from and are familiar with the culture of the target group

11. Actively encourage, recruit and mobilize local leaders, especially children and youth, and women and men to participate in programmes and become change agents in their communities

12. Ensure media awareness of the gender dimensions of problems and successful strategies
## GENDER PERSPECTIVE INTEGRATION

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<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Allocate human and financial resources to include gender expertise</td>
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<td>14.</td>
<td>Identify specific constraints faced by either women or men, boys and girls, to be addressed by the programmes of your organization</td>
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<td>15.</td>
<td>Design a gender-specific intervention when a certain group is in a particularly disadvantageous position, e.g., targeting women/girls only or men/boys only</td>
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<td>16.</td>
<td>Assist, when necessary, project key actors in mainstreaming gender concerns into new and ongoing projects</td>
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<td>17.</td>
<td>Develop indicators for measuring progress made towards promotion of gender equality between boys, girls, their parents and other key actors</td>
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<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Develop gender-specific outputs to ensure the nature and extent of the programme’s benefits for girls and boys and women and men</td>
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Sources of information


