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CHILD LABOUR
IN AGRICULTURE:
THE DEMAND SIDE

CHILD LABOUR IN AGRICULTURE: THE DEMAND SIDE

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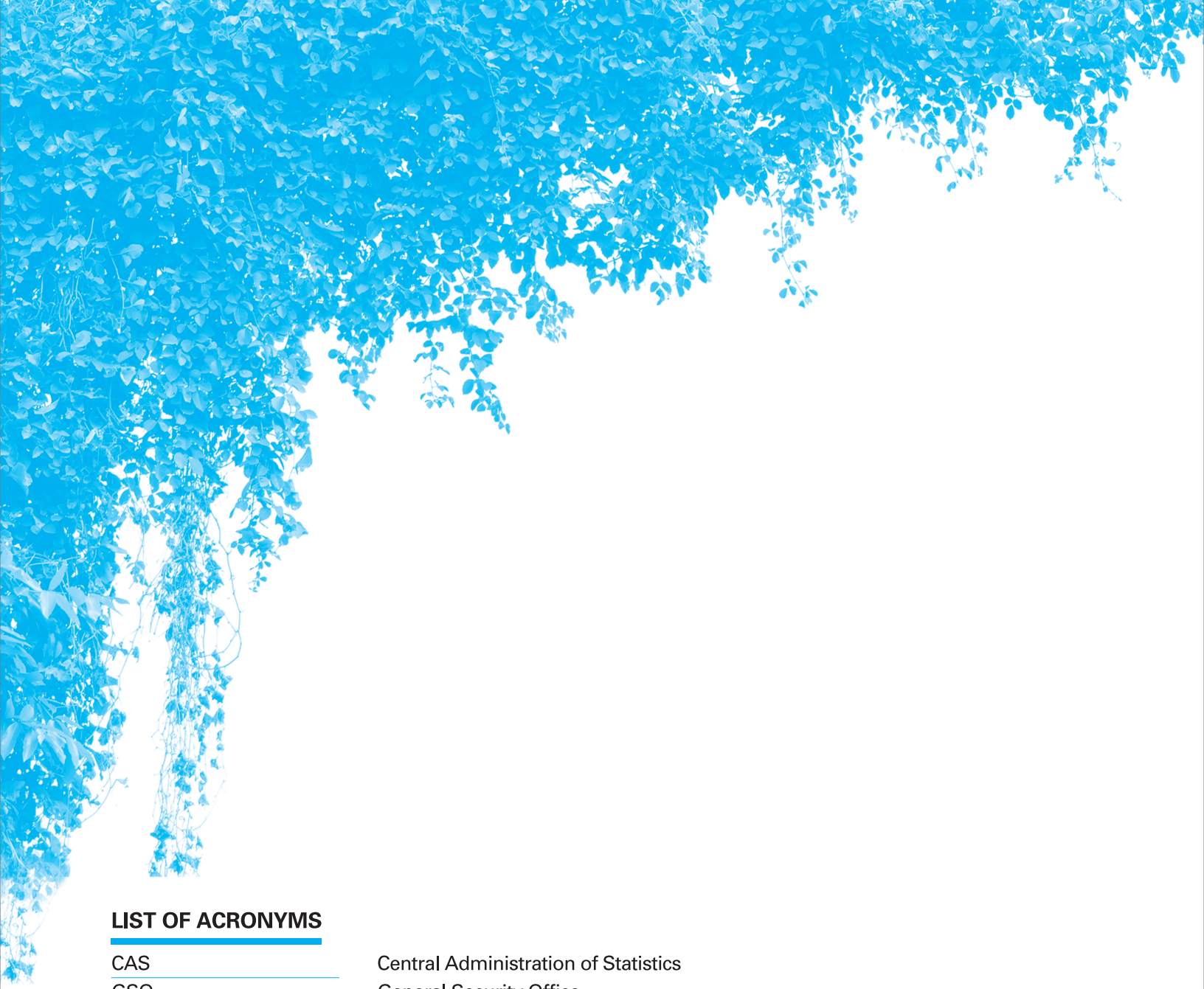

LIST OF ACRONYMS

CAS	Central Administration of Statistics
GSO	General Security Office
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
ILO	International Labour Organization
NAP	National Action Plan
MLS	Mount Lebanon and South
MOA	Ministry of Agriculture
MOL	Ministry of Labour
UCW	Understanding Children's Work programme

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

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Worldwide, agriculture comprises the largest share of child labour; in Lebanon it is estimated that around 60 percent of child labourers work in the agriculture sector. Although reliable statistics are scant, it is evident that many children are working in agriculture, especially in the Akkar, Hermel, and Baalbeck districts. Agriculture has been identified by the ILO as one of the three most dangerous sectors, together with construction and mining, and demands special attention as it is characterized by a high level of fatalities, accidents and occupational diseases and involves a number of physical, biological, psychological, and ergonomic risks and hazards. Injuries are often the result of using dangerous equipment, exposure to pesticides, or harsh working conditions such as long working hours and strenuous, demanding, physical work (FAO and ILO, 2017).

Lebanon ratified the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182), in 2003. Later, the Government issued Decree 8987 (2012), which prohibits the employment of children under 18 years of age where such work could harm their health, safety or morals, or limit their education. According to the Lebanese Code of Labour, the minimum working age is set at 14 years of age for safe work, while children under 18 are prohibited from working in situations that may harm their physical or psychological well-being, but with some adaptations to working conditions that allow the age limit to be decreased to 16, provided such children are offered full protection. It is forbidden to set children below 18 years of age to work more than six hours per day. For agriculture specifically, Decree No. 8987 stipulates that minors should not be employed in agricultural activities that require operating farming machines, handling pesticides or fertilizers, handling poisonous plants, climbing on high trees or ladders, using sharp tools, or working for more than four hours per day.

In 2013, a National Action Plan (NAP) was developed to eliminate the worst forms of child labour by 2016, which was subsequently revised and extended by the Ministry of Labour (MOL) until 2019. To support the Government of Lebanon in its efforts to address the problem of child labour, FAO and UNICEF jointly commissioned the Consultation and Research Institute to undertake the present study, Child labour in agriculture: The demand side. This study examines the characteristics and working conditions of children aged between 5 and 17 years who are working in the agriculture sector in Lebanon. The research was based on (1) a desk review; (2) a survey of 422 farmers who employ children; and (3) in-depth interviews with 90 participants, including farmers who employ children, shawishs (coordinators of tented camps) who recruit such children, and children who work on farms. Recommendations of the report are intended to feed into the implementation strategy of the NAP.

BACKGROUND

Poverty is normally considered the main driver of child labour (including in agriculture), but there are other cultural and social factors, such as the role of government and the type of services available, that can mitigate the impact of such poverty. Although Lebanon is considered a high middle-income country (2014 per capita income was around USD 15 000), high rates of poverty and income inequality have remained unchanged for the past 25 years (IMF, 2016). Those governorates endowed with vast agricultural areas, such as Beqaa, North Lebanon and South Lebanon, also experienced extensive pockets of poverty in 2004–2005 (UNDP and MOSA, 2008). Poverty remains omnipresent in rural areas and agricultural households; over 20 percent of households engaged in agriculture subsist below the poverty line.

This has been exacerbated by the downward pressure on wages as a direct impact of the Syrian refugee crisis. While Syrian refugees are present in almost all Lebanese regions, they tend to be concentrated in the poorest regions of the country. Before the Syrian crisis, Syrian nationals were already working in the agricultural sector in Lebanon and transferring remittances to their families in Syria. Since the outbreak of the Syrian crisis in 2011, Lebanese agricultural and agro-industrial businesses have continued to sustain the lives of thousands of Syrians, now living as refugees with their families in Lebanon.

Since the Syrian crisis began, Lebanon has witnessed a rise in child labour, especially in the agricultural sector. According to the UNICEF Baseline Survey, some 6.7 percent of Syrian children were engaged in some form of work or another in 2016. However, child labour has not only risen among Syrian children but also among Lebanese children. The prevalence of Lebanese working children tripled between 2009 and 2016, from 1.9 percent to 6.0 percent.

Child labour among Syrian refugees is highest in rural areas. In the Beqaa Valley, children work mostly as farmhands picking beans, figs and potatoes. The hazards of such work mainly encompass exposure to chemicals (pesticides and fertilizers) and hazardous working conditions with long hours working in the sun.

METHODS AND FINDINGS

In in order to better understand the practices of farmers and their rationale when employing children, as well as the working conditions of children on farms, a survey of 422 farmers who employ children for agricultural work on small, medium-sized and large farms in Beqaa and Akkar, and greenhouses in Akkar, Mount Lebanon and South Lebanon (MLS). More than 90 percent of respondents were Lebanese nationals, except for those operating greenhouses, where Syrian nationals constituted 48 percent of respondents. Fully 69 percent of respondents from greenhouses reside on the farm and 60 percent live together with their household. Some 46 percent of respondents from greenhouses in MLS employ their own children on the farm. Green thouse farmers tend to rely on agriculture as a primary source of income (91 percent of Akkar greenhouses and 90 percent of MLS greenhouses), but the situation is quite different in Beqaa, where only 10 percent of farmers live on the farm. A high share of Beqaa farmers hold a baccalaureate or university degree (40 percent), and most farmers exploit more than one farm (93 percent of farmers of medium-sized and large farms and 76 percent of small-scale farmers). Around 40 percent of Beqaa farmers do not rely on agriculture as their main source of income.

In terms of challenges and coping mechanisms, Beqaa farmers tend to experience greater challenges than farmers in other regions. Lower prices and limited marketing capacity appear to pose significant challenges across farm types in this region. However, insufficient support (governmental and non-governmental) appears to affect farmers in both Beqaa and MLS.

The survey showed that women and children make up a sizable proportion of the labour force on farms (43 percent women, 30 percent children and 27 percent men). Farms rely heavily on seasonal workers: 75 percent of the labour force is comprised of seasonal workers (74 percent of women, 83 percent of children, and 67 percent of men). Based on the survey results, it is estimated that children are employed on around two-thirds of farms that belong to the five types of targeted farm profiles.

Of the full-time child workers, girls comprise a significant share in Beqaa – 56 percent on small farms and up to 64 percent on medium-sized and large farms. In Akkar girls represent 32 percent and 43 percent of full-time child workers in greenhouses and on medium-sized and large farms respectively.

A significant share of full-time child labourers in Beqaa farms are out of school and, therefore, fall under the definition of "child labour" (FAO and ILO, 2017). In Beqaa, 82 percent of working children on medium-sized and large farms are not enrolled in school. This figure is significantly lower across farm types in Akkar – 31 percent of children working on medium-sized and large farms and

21 percent in greenhouses are not enrolled in schools.

Almost all full-time working children in Beqaa are Syrian nationals compared with a lower share in Akkar. All full-time working children on small farms and 96 percent of those working on medium-sized and large farms in Beqaa are Syrian nationals. More than 90 percent of children working in greenhouses in MLS are also Syrian nationals. However, the share of Syrian workers is lower, but still the majority, on Akkar farms – 56 percent on medium-sized and large farms and 79 percent in greenhouses.

Recruitment via shawishs is the main type of recruitment in medium-sized and large Beqaa farms versus direct recruitment in greenhouses in MLS. Most medium-sized and large farms in Beqaa employ children via a recruiter, such as a shawish (63 percent) or farmers directly recruiting them (27 percent). The same types of farms in Akkar also rely on either a shawish (44 percent) or a direct recruiter (52 percent). Greenhouses in Akkar rely mostly on farm children (74 percent).

The survey aimed to identify the farming tasks carried out by seasonal and full-time working children by age category. According to respondents, children aged 5–11 years are the least likely to be employed. Exceptionally in MLS, however, greenhouses tend to employ children aged 5–11 years in tasks such as weeding, harvesting, transporting, peeling or sorting. As children age, they become more involved in different farming tasks. Compared to younger children, those aged 12–13 tend to be more involved in weeding, harvesting and transportation.

The tasks handled by children also differ by farm type. In Akkar, children mainly work in weeding, harvesting and peeling. Beqaa farms employ children for all tasks except fertilizing, driving machines, and sales, with the distinction that small farms do not rely heavily on younger children. Finally, in MLS greenhouses children of all ages perform a variety of tasks, including preparing and fertilizing land, as well as transportation. In fact, compared with other farm types, a relatively significant share of children face a variety of risks in MLS greenhouses. More than 40 percent of greenhouse farmers in MLS reported that children have developed allergies due to their farm work, and 26 percent reported wounds. Almost all other farm locations/types did not report such outcomes.

More than 70 percent of greenhouse farmers in MLS explained that they tend to hire children so that the children can financially support their families. Lower shares of child workers were reported among all other farm locations/types. Other reasons for hiring children included the fact that children lived on the farm with their parents, and that children were often recruited by a shawish, thereby limiting the workforce made available to them. Farmers appear divided in their willingness to replace working children with adults across farm types, except for greenhouses in MLS, where only 21 percent of farmers would be willing to employ adults instead. In interviews, farmers expressed that they do not necessarily wish to hire children, but they accepted children who were recruited by middlemen and shawishs.

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RECOMMENDATIONS

It is necessary to coordinate with the Ministry of Education and Higher Education (MEHE) and education partners to ensure access to education in under-served areas. Education for girls needs to be encouraged – and even enforced – especially for rural girls aged 15–18 years. Children and adolescents whose age is above the minimum legal working age can be provided with vocational or on-the-job training conducted in a gender-sensitive manner.

It is important to enforce the Lebanese Labour Code, which stipulates that the minimum age for work is 14 years of age and the minimum age for light work is 13 years of age.

It is necessary to conduct regular national surveys on child labour in various sectors, including agriculture. Such studies would provide an accurate quantitative assessment of the magnitude of this phenomenon and inform guidanc for relevant programmes. Training, awareness-raising material, and safety kits should be provided to farmers and households engaged in agricultural works.

FAO and ILO need to continue working on improving social protection systems to foster sustainable and equitable rural development, poverty reduction, and food security, taking into consideration the specific needs of female-headed households.

Partnerships promoting a holistic approach to address the multifaceted push factors of child labour, especially by alleviating poverty, enhancing social protection, and ensuring education, need to be emphasized. More importantly, scaling up interventions will require effective planning of actions and mainstreaming child labour concerns within existing capacity-development activities. prohibits the employment of children under 18 years of age where such work could harm their health, safety or morals, or limit their education.

According to the Lebanese Code of Labour, the minimum working age is set at 14 years of age for safe work, while children under 18 are prohibited from working in situations that may harm their physical or psychological well-being, but with some adaptations to working conditions that allow the age limit to be decreased to 16, provided such children are offered full protection. It is forbidden to set children below 18 years of age to work more than six hours per day. For agriculture specifically, Decree No. 8987 stipulates that minors should not be employed in agricultural activities that require operating farming machines, handling pesticides or fertilizers, handling poisonous plants, climbing on high trees or ladders, using sharp tools, or working for more than four hours per day.

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INTRODUCTION

The 2013 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) accelerated the world's commitment to ending child labour and urged the global community to "take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour, including recruitment and use of child soldiers, and by 2025 end child labour in all its forms" (UNGA, 2015).

The International Labour Organization (ILO, 2016) estimates that 152 million children are engaged in child labour worldwide and that agriculture accounts for the largest share of child labour in the world. The predominance of child labour in this sector is usually explained by the proliferation of vulnerable populations in rural areas, who tend to rely on agriculture as a primary source of income. The informal nature of the agriculture sector and its demand for cheap and low-skilled labour also explains the incidence of child labour in this sector. In 2016, agriculture accounted for 71 percent of total child labour, followed by services (17 percent) and industry (12 percent). Data show that child labour in agriculture has substantially increased since 2008 (see Table 1).

Table 1. Sectoral distribution of child labour (ages 5–17 years), 2008, 2012 and 2016 (percent)

Sector	2008	2012	2016
Primary (Agriculture)	60.0	58.6	70.9
Secondary (Industry)	7.0	7.2	11.9
Tertiary (Services)	25.6	32.3	17.2
(of which domestic work)	*4.9*	*6.9*	
Total	*100*	*100*	*100*

Source: ILO – IPEC 2013; ILO, 2017.

The Arab region shows a similar picture with 60 percent of child labour in the Arab States within the agriculture sector for the period 2012–2016 (ILO, 2017). For instance, over half of working children aged 5–14 are found in the agricultural sector in Yemen (70 percent), Sudan (67 percent), Iraq (63 percent) and Egypt (56 percent) (ICW. 2017).

Table 2. Children (aged 5–14 years) in employment by sector and country

Sector	Egypt 2012	Iraq 2011	Jordan 2007	Sudan 2008	Yemen 2010
Primary (Agriculture)	56.2	62.6	40.5	67.5	70.0
Secondary (Industry)	24.4	18.9	11.2	9.1	2.2
Tertiary (Services)	19.3	18.6	48.4	23.4	27.7
Total	*100*	*100*	*100*	*100*	*100*

Source: UCW 2017.
Note: Egypt age group 6–14; Iraq age group 12–14; Sudan age group 10–14.

In Lebanon, although reliable statistics on child labour are scant, it is evident that many children perform agricultural work, particularly in the Akkar, Hermel, and Baalbeck districts. Farm work in Lebanon is heavily marked by the presence of foreign labour. The influx of Syrian refugees following the Syrian crisis in 2011 led to an increase in child labour, especially in Beqaa and North Lebanon. Child labour often occurs within a family farming context, where parents do not usually perceive their children's support as "child labour". Nevertheless, this does not mean that the working conditions of children in agriculture are in line with national or international standards that restrict such things as working age, type of duties, interference with schooling and damages to health (FAO and ILO, 2017). The NAP comments that:

In most families, every child has to pitch in and work along with his or her family, especially during harvesting and when preparing the ground for planting, because every small amount saved on hired hands is more income for the family. Dangers arise from use of plant pesticides and fertilizers that contain elevated levels of toxic chemicals, with possible risk to children's health. Moreover, often no safety precautions are taken, such as use of protective masks, gloves and hats. Agricultural work is seasonal and can result in long absenteeism from school, affecting children's academic achievements and possibly leading to them falling behind their peers academically and eventually dropping out of school. (GOL, 2013)

The predominance of child labour in agriculture calls for special attention since this sector is characterized by an early entry into work and it has been identified by ILO as one of the three most dangerous sectors of work for all ages, along with construction and mining. It is characterized by a high level of fatalities, accidents and occupational diseases. Injuries are often the result of working with dangerous equipment, exposure to pesticides, and strenuous physical work over long hours (ILO b), 2017).

In 2003, Lebanon ratified ILO Convention 182. Later, the Government issued Decree 8987 (2012) on the prohibition of employment of children under 18 years of age on works that may harm their health, safety and morals. In 2013, Lebanon adopted a National Action Plan to Eliminate the Worst Forms of Child Labour by 2016, (NAP), which the Ministry of Labour revised and extended until 2019. Within this context, this study, jointly commissioned by FAO and UNICEF, is intended to support the Government and contribute to its plan for addressing the problem of child labour in agriculture in Lebanon. The study aims to:

- Help identify the main challenges faced by the agriculture sector since the Syrian crisis in 2011;
- Collect detailed information on the work of children in agriculture and to explore the influence of, and linkages between, the size of family holdings, the historical presence of Syrian agricultural workers and the extent and severity of child labour;
- Examine the characteristics and conditions of children aged between 5 and 17 years working in the agriculture sector in Lebanon;
- Offer recommendations that feed into the implementation of the Government of Lebanon National Action Plan.


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1. METHODOLOGY

The research was based on: (1) a desk review; (2) a survey of 400 farmers employing children; and (3) in-depth interviews with 90 participants, including farmers who employ children, shawishs who recruit such children1, and children who work on farms. Details of the research methods are described below.

QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH: SURVEY OF FARMERS

SAMPLING METHODOLOGY

The research team designed and implemented a quantitative survey of 422 farmers who employ children on their farms. It was agreed with UNICEF and FAO that the statistical unit of this field survey would be "crop production farms employing children". That is, the survey would only target farms that already employ children, instead of targeting all types of farms (whether employing children or not). This decision hinged on the following concern: targeting farms employing children and disregarding those who only employ adults allows the study to use the entire sample to describe the characteristics of working children in agriculture. Conversely, targeting all types of farms would allow the estimation of the magnitude of the phenomena of children working in agriculture. However, this option would reduce the possibility of describing the characteristics while only focusing on the magnitude. This is due to the fact that the sample, in this case, would contain only a limited number of farms employing children. Drawing upon the objectives of the study that focus on collecting information on the work of children in agriculture, the study team opted for the first option: targeting only farms employing children. Nevertheless, this study attempts to estimate the magnitude of working children in agriculture using a proxy calculation method.

The sample size was set at 400 farms in order to optimize the statistical quality of the results, taking into account the allocated resources. A sample size of 400 has a margin of error of around ±4.9 percent[2].

For sampling, a quota methodology was adopted that took into account three variables: (1) the geographic location; (2) the size of the plot; and (3) the type of production. The quota was based on the 2010 agriculture census of FAO and the Ministry of Agriculture (MOA), and was complemented (and cross-checked) with a series of in-depth interviews with key stakeholders with expert knowledge of the field.

The Lebanese agricultural sector is characterized by its heterogeneity. This heterogeneity is expressed in different interlinked factors, including: farm size, regional differences in the mode of production and type of production. Each dimension influences and shapes the relationship between the farmer or the land owner from one side, and agricultural labour on the other. It is, therefore, assumed that the general agricultural labour dynamic influences the agricultural child labour dynamics. In other words, child labour in agriculture is not the same across Lebanon but the dynamics differ based on the three abovementioned factors: the size of the farm, the geographical location and the type of production. Land fragmentation is one of the main characteristics of the Lebanese agriculture, with the top 10 percent of landlords owning around 60 percent of the total agricultural land – with the top 1 percent owning 26.5 percent.


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[1] Excluding farms with size less than 0.1ha.

[2] OCHA update dashboard information (May 2016).

Large agricultural holdings are owned by absentee landlords and essentially consist of intensive horticultural and agricultural production, as well as state-subsidized wheat fields. Large holdings also include integrated agro-industrial businesses, especially in the dairy and wine sectors. Nevertheless, the majority of agricultural holdings – 50 percent of holdings cover less than 10 percent of agricultural land – remain highly fragmented, often traditional and undercapitalized, and farmers lack access to formal credit. These small farms face many problems, such as low production quality, high input costs, vulnerability to price fluctuations, and low farm gate price and trade margins (Hamade, 2015).

For the present study, it is assumed that the size of agricultural holding is an element that highly influences the dynamic of both the number of hired children and the work of children within the family farm context. The research team proposed to categorize farms according to their size as follows:

1- Small holdings, defined as equal or less than 0.5 ha[3] (the median size of Lebanese agricultural holdings), representing 53.4 percent of total agricultural holdings (FAO and MOSA, 2010);

2- Medium-sized holdings, defined as between 0.5 ha and 1.5 ha (the mean size of Lebanese agricultural holdings), representing 28.1 percent of total agricultural holdings;

3- Large holdings, defined as larger than 1.5 ha, representing 18.5 percent of total agricultural holdings.

In addition, agriculture differs by region in terms of climate and natural resources, and in terms of historical development. The differences in historical development between regions are, to some extent, captured by the land distribution and size factors, while climate and natural resources are captured by the type-of-production factor. For the present study, the focus was on regional differences that are influenced by the historical presence of Syrian agricultural workers and the existence of Syrian settlements in the border regions of Beqaa and Akkar[4]. These regions have witnessed a high presence of Syrian refugees since the onset of the crisis. According to OCHA, approximately 147 000 and 29 000 refugees live in informal settlements in Beqaa and Akkar respectively. Syrian refugees usually reside in tented settlements in close vicinity to agricultural lands and activities, which enables easy access to work on farms[5].

Therefore, it is assumed that the child labour dynamic is highly influenced by the historical presence of Syrian agricultural labour, which has increased due to the influx of Syrian refugees since 2011. Thus, the research team categorized farms according to their regional location as follows:

1- Farms located in Beqaa Valley, representing 18.8 percent of agricultural holdings and 45.2 percent of agricultural land;

2- Farms located in Akkar, representing 16.6 percent of agricultural holdings and 15.4 percent of total agricultural land;

3- Farms located in other Lebanese regions, referred to as MLS (Mount Lebanon and the South), representing 64.6 percent of agricultural holdings and 39.4 percent of total agricultural land.


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[3] Excluding farms with size less than 0.1ha.

[4] OCHA update dashboard information (May 2016).

[5] Interview with Naziha Challita, Director of Child Labour Unit, Ministry of Labour, 11 October 2017.

The type of agricultural production highly influences the demand for labour, and consequently also for child labour. Therefore, farms were categorized according to the level of labour intensity of their primary production as follows:

1- Farms where the primary crop is a low-input permanent crop (e.g. almonds, cherries, apricots, olives and others), representing 59.8 percent of total agricultural holdings and 35.5 percent of agricultural land;

2- Farms where the primary crop is a high-input permanent crop (e.g. citrus, apples, wine and table grapes, and others), representing 15.7 percent of total agricultural holdings and 16.3 percent of agricultural land;

3- Farms where the primary crop is a seasonal horticulture, industrial or field crop, including greenhouses (e.g. vegetables or flowers), representing 24.5 percent of total agricultural holdings and 48.2 percent of agricultural land

Based on the three factors (size, region and type) a sampling matrix was developed, shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Distribution of agricultural holdings by region, holding size and type of production

Size	Percentage of holdings	Type of production	Percentage of holdings
Small			
Beqaa	6.0	Low-input, permanent	4.0
		High-input, permanent	1.1
		Seasonal	0.9
Akkar	7.8	Low-input, permanent	4.6
		High-input, permanent	1.4
		Seasonal	1.8
Others	39.6	Low-input, permanent	28.3
		High-input, permanent	7.0
		Seasonal	4.3
Medium			
Beqaa	6.0	Low-input, permanent	3.2
		High-input, permanent	1.1
		Seasonal	1.7
Akkar	5.3	Low-input, permanent	2.7
		High-input, permanent	0.7
		Seasonal	1.9
Others	39.6	Low-input, permanent	10.8
		High-input, permanent	2.8
		Seasonal	3.2
Large			
Beqaa	7.6	Low-input, permanent	2.4
		High-input, permanent	1.1
		Seasonal	4.1
Akkar	3.6	Low-input, permanent	1.2
		High-input, permanent	0.4
		Seasonal	2.0
Others	37.3	Low-input, permanent	4.4
		High-input, permanent	1.3
		Seasonal	1.6

A sample size of 400 farms would not allow for sufficient sub-sample sizes pertaining to all 27 profiles identified in the table above (based on the three key criteria of land size, type of crop and geographic location). Therefore, a further grouping of the 27 profiles was deemed necessary.

Based on the agriculture census and primary interviews conducted with regional experts of agriculture in Akkar, Beqaa and the North, the research team developed a new taxonomy of five different profile types:

1- Greenhouses in Akkar;

2- Greenhouses in other areas – Mount Lebanon and the South (MLS);

3- Medium-sized and large lots in Akkar (seasonal and permanent crops);

4- Medium-sized and large lots in Beqaa (seasonal and permanent crops);

5- Small subsistence vegetable farms in Beqaa using family labour.

The rationale of this abridged taxonomy was based on the need to identify the different types of child labour. Based on the primary findings, medium-sized and large farms, consisting of either seasonal or permanent types of crops, require the same "type" of child labour interventions during harvest and postproduction. In turn, the study team selected medium-sized and large plots in both Beqaa and Akkar.

As greenhouses require a different "type" of child labour (on a longer-term basis), the study team selected greenhouses in two areas – Akkar and MLS, where greenhouses are omnipresent.

Taking into account that family labour in small subsistence farms requires child labour and that Akkar was already selected for both greenhouses and medium-sized and large farms, the family labour and subsistence-sized farms were selected in Beqaa.

The total sample of 400 was divided equally between the five profile types (i.e. 80 farms per profile) in order to perform comparative analyses between profiles. In each of the five profiles, the study team resorted to "convenience sampling" due to the lack of a sampling base.

Following validation by UNICEF and FAO of the sampling methods and technical tools, the study team proceeded to train a fieldwork team of eight supervisors and enumerators on 10 September 2017. A two-day pilot test was conducted (11 and 12 September) and the overall survey fieldwork was carried out between 13 September and 4 October 2017.

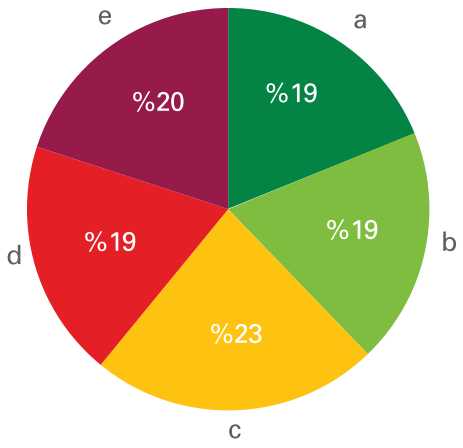
Some 422 questionnaires were completed. The survey was conducted in the governorates of North, South, Nabatiyeh, Beqaa, and North Lebanon as described in Table 4. The distribution of the completed questionnaires per profile is described in Table 5.

Table 4. Geographical distribution of the sample

District	Number	Percentage of total
Akkar	178	42
Aley	6	01
Baabda	6	01
Baalbek	108	26
Chouf	11	03
Hermel	14	03
Nabatieh	2	01
Jbeil	6	01
Kesrwan	11	03
Saida	35	08
Sour	3	01
West Beqaa	40	10
Zahle	2	01
Total	*422*	*100*

Table 5. Type of farms

District	Number	Percentage
a- Greenhouses in Akkar	80	19
b- Greenhouses in MLS	80	19
c- Medium-sized and large farms in Akkar	98	23
d- Medium-sized and large farms in Beqaa	81	19
e- Small farms in Beqaa	83	20
Total	*422*	*100*



QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

Enumerators were instructed to, first, identify farms that employed children for agricultural activities and, second, identify respondents who were in charge of the farm, such as landlords, lead farmers and supervisors.

Enumerators were instructed to enquire with local authorities about the location of farms employing children in the targeted area. Once at the indicated farm, enumerators were instructed to enquire about the person in charge at the farm. Landlord refers to the landowner who is directly involved and in contact with the lead farmer (sahib al-ard). The lead farmer refers to the individual renting the land for agricultural purposes (damin al-ard). The supervisor refers to the manager in charge of operations on the farm (muwathaf mas'ul).

Following the instructions for enumerators, the questionnaire was comprised of three sections as follows:[6]

Section 1. General Information about the respondent (landlord, lead farmer or supervisor) and the targeted farm. Questions addressed the socioeconomic characteristics of the respondent, residence on the farm and participation of their children in farm work, and primary and secondary sources of income.

Section 2. Information about the size of the farm, type of crops, major difficulties faced by the farm and adopted coping mechanisms.

Section 3. Information about the labour force on the farm:

Subsection A. Number of workers (adults and children) by type of work (full-time or seasonal) and gender.

Subsection B. This subsection required the farmer to list every full-time working child on the farm and to provide the details about gender, age, school enrolment, nationality and farm residency.

Subsection C. Type of farming tasks (all children, seasonal and full-time) by age category (5–11, 12–13, 14–15, and 16–17 years). Questions also addressed recruitment methods, wages, working hours, and risk of injuries to children.

[6] See Annex 2 for the full questionnaire

QUALITATIVE RESEARCH: IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS

To complement the survey data, the study team conducted a series of in-depth interviews with various groups of stakeholders between 13 September and 4 October 2017, according to the following schedule:

1- Seven interviews with representatives from the MOA, MOL, governors, union of farmers, and labour inspectors;

2- 30 interviews with employers/farmers (ten per region);

3- 30 interviews with shawishs;

4- 30 interviews with children working on farms (ten per region).

District	Farmers	Shawish	Children
Greenhouses in Akkar	5	5	5
Medium-sized and large farms in Akkar	5	10	5
Medium-sized and large farms in Beqaa	5	10	5
Small farms in Beqaa	5	5	5
Small farms in Beqaa	10	0	10
Total	**30**	**30**	**30**

Table 6. Distribution of interviews by respondent

The interviews provided the research team with a context for understanding the survey findings and statistical results. For example, interviews with shawishs and children allowed for a better understanding of the recruitment process and the working conditions of children.

In parallel to the survey of farmers, 30 children were interviewed, distributed equally by region. Those children identified during the survey were not interviewed on the farm, but were approached at their residence and interviewed only after their parents' consent was obtained. Enumerators also identified shawishs while surveying farms employing children. A total of 30 interviews were conducted with the shawishs of tented settlements in Beqaa and Akkar (see Annex 3 for the full interview discussion guides).

ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Drawing upon the UNICEF Procedure for Ethical Standards in Research, Evaluation, Data Collection and Analysis, this section charts out the measures taken to address the ethical dimensions pertaining to:

- Informed consent;
- Privacy and confidentiality;
- Harms and benefits;
- Risk management.

Interviewed stakeholders, such as representatives of ministries and international organizations, were informed about the purpose of the interview. The report only mentions the names of stakeholders who agreed to have their details included in the report.

One of the main ethical pillars of the study hinged on the voluntary nature of participating. Other points include:

- The study team did not resort to any form of incentive or coercion to affect the participation of any individual;
- Individuals who agreed to participate in the study were informed they could withdraw from the study at any point in time without any explanation or repercussion;
- The study team provided participants with simple and clear information about the study in terms of commissioning entity, its purpose, voluntary participation, possibility to withdraw, and contact details;
- Information and consent forms were provided and used by the study team.

As children were the subject of research, additional ethical considerations were taken into account:

- Potential participants who were below the age of 18 were provided with adjusted age-appropriate information and were asked for consent.
- Informed consent of the child was necessary for their participation in the study.
- Following the child's agreement, informed parental consent was still required.
- If the child declined to participate, parental consent to the child's participation was considered irrelevant.
- Children identified as potential candidates for interviewing during the survey process were not interviewed on the farm. They were instead approached at their residence in order to minimize risks of conflict with their supervisors and employers.

The researchers and enumerators were trained on basic research ethics, focusing on minimizing the risk of harm towards all participants, but with a particular emphasis on children. Fieldwork supervisors monitored fieldwork activities to ensure that all relevant procedures were followed and there was no recording of interviews or questionnaire administration. All interviews were conducted in private, and data was anonymised and analysed in an aggregated form.

BACKGROUND

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LONG-LASTING HIGH POVERTY RATES

Globally, poverty is the principal cause of child labour in agriculture (ILO (b), 2017). Even though Lebanon is considered a high middle-income country (annual average per capita income estimated around USD 15,000 in 2014), high poverty rates and income inequality are prevalent (IMF, 2014). According to the World Bank, elevated poverty in Lebanon has remained unchanged for the past 25 years (World Bank, 2015). In 2004–2005, the multipurpose household survey conducted by the Central Administration of Statistics (CAS) showed that extreme poverty affected 8 percent of the Lebanese population. In addition, 28.5 percent of the population was considered "poor" using the upper poverty line. In other words, during this period about one million Lebanese lived in conditions of poverty while around 300 000 individuals lived in extreme poverty and were unable to meet their most basic food and non-food needs (UNDP and MOSA, 2008).[7]

The distribution of poverty in 2004–2005 revealed stark poverty pockets in Beqaa, the North and the South of Lebanon – governorates endowed with vast agricultural areas. Some 38 percent of the total poor population (upper poverty line), and 46 percent of the extremly poor population (lower poverty line) were located in North Lebanon. The social distribution of poverty shows a higher prevalence among agricultural workers and unskilled seasonal or temporary workers in services, industry, and construction, as well as among the elderly, the disabled, and female-headed households (UNDP and MOSA, 2007).

Table 7. Share of total poor population by governorate (percentage)

Governorate	Poor	Extremly poor
Beirut	5.9	0.7
Mount Lebanon	19.6	3.8
South	42.2	11.6
Nabatiyeh	19.2	2.2
Beqaa	29.4	10.8
North	52.6	17.8
Lebanon	**28.6**	**8.0**

Source: UNDP. 2008. Poverty, growth and income distribution in Lebanon. Beirut.

According to the World Bank, poverty is stark in rural areas and agricultural households – over 20 percent of households engaged in agriculture fall below the upper poverty line. This has been exacerbated by the downward pressure on wages as a consequence of the Syrian crisis and the large influx of refugees (World Bank, 2015).


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[7] Between February 2004 and April 2005, CAS and UNDP conducted the first multipurpose household survey on about 13 000 households. Extreme, lower, and upper household poverty lines were constructed based on the costs of basic needs. Since the lower poverty line is used as eligibility criteria in the NPTP, it has been updated using CPI from USD 2.40 per capita per day to USD 3.84 in 2013.

REPERCUSSIONS OF THE SYRIAN REFUGEE CRISIS

The Syrian crisis has placed already existent areas of poverty under greater pressure. While Syrian refugees are present in almost all regions of Lebanon, they tend to be concentrated in the poorest regions. The intersections between the geographic distribution of refugees and poverty pockets in Lebanon are obvious, particularly in North Lebanon (UNDP, 2012). The map below (Figure 1) illustrates the intersections between the geographic distribution of refugees and poverty in Lebanon.

According to the World Bank, poverty is stark in rural areas and agricultural households – over 20 percent of households engaged in agriculture fall below the upper poverty line. This has been exacerbated by the downward pressure on wages as a consequence of the Syrian crisis and the large influx of refugees (World Bank, 2015).

According to the Lebanon crisis response plan 2017–2020, the country has an overall population of 5.9 million including 1.5 million displaced Syrian nationals, half of whom are children. The refugee crisis has affected refugee and host populations alike, but especially children. At least 1.4 million of these children (Lebanese, Syrian and Palestinian) are considered at risk, living in deprived conditions with acute unmet needs for basic services and social protection (GOL, 2017). With the influx of Syrian refugees, children in Lebanon appear to be increasingly involved in small-scale farming and food processing, and thus exposed to the kinds of hazards associated with these activities.

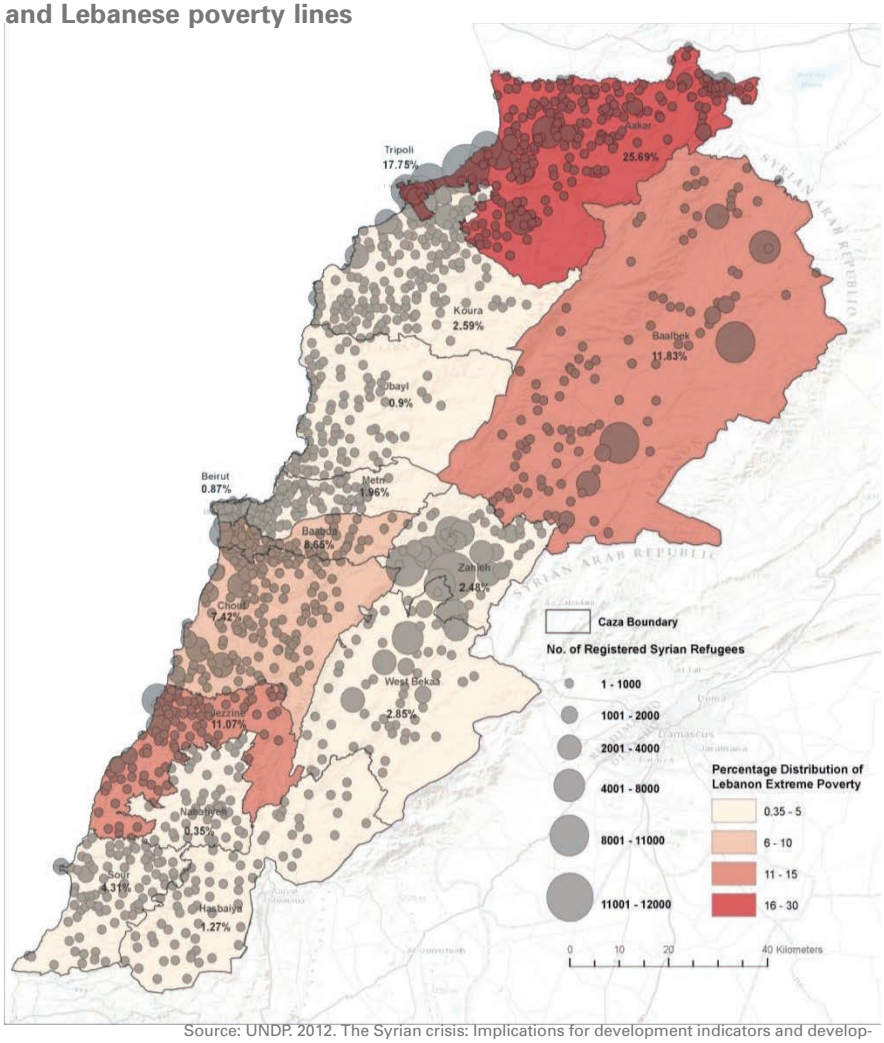
The Beqaa Valley and Akkar are among the areas most highly impacted by the Syrian crisis. These areas rely on agricultural production, and face several challenges that include increased costs of agricultural inputs, as a result of the halt of smuggling cheaper inputs, and difficulty in reaching prior export markets following the cessation of land transportation through Syria (FAO, 2015).

The ability of rural areas to sustain the influx of Syrian refugees may be partially explained by the fact that many refugees are members of families that had previously performed regular agricultural work in Lebanon during harvest seasons. In other words, the agricultural sector was already sustaining the livelihoods of many Syrian households before the outbreak of the Syrian crisis, but now continues to do so as refugees.

Furthermore, as populations have expanded, the Lebanese agriculture and agro-industrial sectors have expanded production as a response to the increased demand for food products. As well as absorbing the supply of Syrian labour, this increased production has also generated income for Lebanese households (Hamade, 2016).

In addition, the higher local demand for food products has played a role in mitigating the negative impact of the closure of export routes that passed through Syria. This was especially the case for vegetable exports that were re-oriented towards local markets (Hamade, 2016).

Figure 1. Intersection between refugee concentrations and Lebanese poverty lines



Source: UNDP. 2012. The Syrian crisis: Implications for development indicators and development planning – Lebanon. Beirut (p. 25).

INCIDENCE OF CHILD LABOUR IN AGRICULTURE

Today, the Lebanese economy is dominated by services, with industry and agriculture contributing much less – around 6 percent of GDP for agriculture. Lebanon's particular experience of "peripheral capitalism" evolved from the nineteenth century and expanded after its independence in 1943, leading to a limited level of development of its agriculture sector (Gates, 1989).

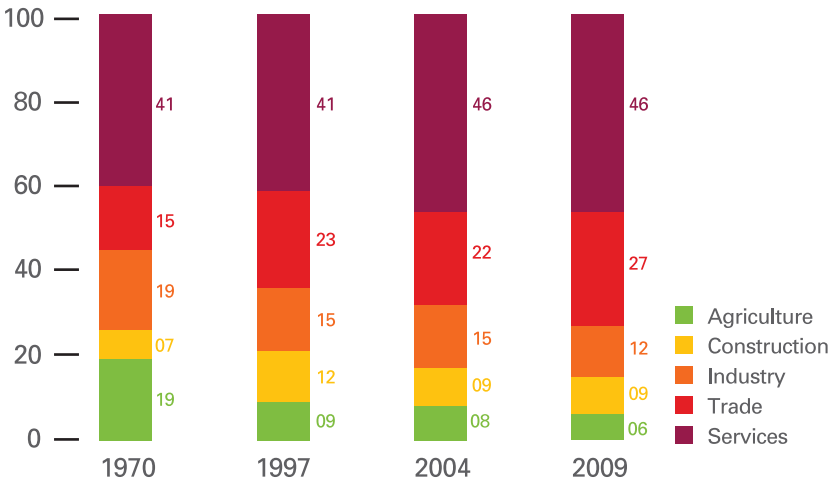
Table 8. GDP by sector, 2010–2014 (percent)

Sector	2010	2011	2012	2011	2013	2014
Agriculture	4.3	4.1	6.1	7.2	7.2	5.5
industry	14.9	16.1	20.5	19.7	19.7	24.8
services	80.8	79.7	73.4	73.1	73.1	69.7

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators, 2015.
Note: Industry also includes construction and energy sectors.

Reflecting these overall economic trajectories, employment in Lebanon has experienced a significant decrease of jobs in agriculture and industry and an increase in employment in trade and services.

Figure 2. Employment by sector, 1970–2009



Source: CAS.1972. L'enquête par sondage pour la population active au Liban Novembre 1970, p. 84; CAS. 2006. The National Survey of Household Living Conditions 2004; CAS. 2010. Multiple Indicators Cluster Survey 2009. Note 1: Age category in 1970 includes workers aged 6 years and over.
Note 2: Data includes both public and private sectors.

Child labour has risen in Lebanon since the Syrian crisis developed, especially in the agricultural sector, which carries the highest risk of hazardous work (ILO, 2016; Jones and Ksaifi, 2016). According to the 2016 Baseline Survey conducted by UNICEF and the Lebanese Ministry of Social Affairs, 6.7 percent of Syrian children are engaged in child labour. However, child labour among Lebanese children has also risen: the number of Lebanese working children tripled between 2009 and 2016, from 1.9 percent to 6.0 percent (UNICEF, 2016).

Table 9. Percentage of children engaged in child labour in Lebanon

	MICS 2019) 3)	Baseline survey (2016)
Lebanese	5.9	6.0
Syrian	4.0	6.7
Palestinian	7.3	4.9
Palestinians from syria	1.5	4.1

Source: Lebanon Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey 2009; Lebanon Baseline Survey 2016.

Child labour among Syrian refugees is highest in rural areas. In the Beqaa Valley, children work mostly as farmhands, picking beans, figs and potatoes. These tasks encompass work hazards such as exposure to pesticides and fertilizers and working long hours under the sun. Syrian refugees in informal tented settlements (ITSs) live in vulnerable conditions that force households into so-called bonded labour with the shawish. The shawish rents the land from the landlord, organizes the tented settlement and lets out tents, which can fit one or two families, for USD 60–100 per month. In return for living in the settlements, members of the household work for the account of the shawish, who often sends children from the camps to work in agricultural fields, nearby farms, restaurants, and auto repair shops. The shawish manages the relationship with employers and receives a portion of the wages. This practice of shawishs providing farmers with Syrian labour is not recent, but was occurring even before the Syrian crisis began. The Ministry of Labour is currently trying to contain this phenomenon by teaming up with the GSO in order to properly enforce the law and put an end to such abuse (ILO, 2016; Jones and Ksaifi, 2016).

DEFINITIONS AND LEGAL FRAMEWORK

Child labour can be generally defined as the work of children below the age of 14. This does not mean, however, that all work carried out by children is to be unconditionally condemned. Some children may work for limited hours within a safe environment, allowing them to build skills without affecting their school attendance (Fallon and Tzannatos, 1998). Hence the general category of "children in employment" is differentiated from "child labour".

The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), 1989, provides that States Parties shall take legislative, administrative, social and educational measures to ensure that children are protected "from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child's education, or to be harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development." To this end, the CRC stipulates that States Parties shall adopt a minimum age for employment and regulate the hours and conditions of employment (Art. 32). This Convention is complemented by two Optional Protocols on the worst forms of child labour: the Optional Protocol on the involvement of children in armed conflict (2000) and the Optional Protocol on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography (2000).

The ILO Convention (No. 138) on the minimum age for admission to employment, 1973, engages member States to set a minimum age for employment of at least 15 years of age or 14 years of age for less-developed countries (Art. 2), and a higher minimum age of 18 years for hazardous work (Art. 3). Convention No. 138 states that national laws or regulations may permit the employment or work of children of 13 to 15 years of age (12 to 14 in less developed countries) on light work which is not likely to affect their health, development or education (Art. 7).

The ILO Convention (No. 182) concerning the prohibition and immediate action for the elimination of the worst forms of child labour, 1999, defines children as all persons under the age of 18 (Art. 2) and divides the worst forms of child labour into four categories (Art. 3):

(a) 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;

(b) The use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances;

(c) The use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties;

(d) 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 (a list of which shall be determined by national laws or regulations according to Article 4).

Lebanon is bound by the abovementioned international Conventions, and has adopted national provisions on the protection of children from child labour and its worst forms. The Lebanese Code of Labour (Articles 22, 23, and 24) stipulates that the minimum age for work is 14 years old. It is forbidden to allow adolescents below 18 years old to work more than six hours.

Decree No. 8987, issued in 2012, addresses the prohibition of employment of minors under the age of 18 years in work that may harm their health, safety or morals. Decree 8987 states that minors should not be employed in agricultural activities (including family farms) which require:

- Driving or operating tractors and farming machines;
- Mixing, transporting or spraying agricultural pesticides or fertilizers;
- Harvesting or handling poisonous plants (e.g. tobacco plants which secrete the toxin nicotine);
- Climbing on high trees or ladders;
- Using sharp tools such as steelheads to thread tobacco leaves;
- Working for more than four hours a day.[8]

A guide on Decree 8987 was designed to provide a detailed and simplified version of all articles of the Decree for practitioners, including labour inspectors (ILO, 2015). Drawing upon Decree 8987, the GSO issued a memorandum that underlines the prohibition of child labour in agriculture, following which a coordination committee was established, comprised of representatives of the MOL, the GSO, the ILO and other NGOs. The General Security teams were trained by the MOL on child labour issues, Decree 8987, and occupational health and safety measures. The teams may raise reports on incidents of child labour to the MOL, whose inspectors have the authority to issue warnings and commence proceedings when any violation is detected.

[8] A complete and detailed list of "hazardous work" is annexed to Decree 8987.

FINDINGS

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The following sections present the key findings of the survey and interviews as follows:

- Farmers who participated in the survey and the challenges faced by their farms;[9]
- The workforce on the farms, including adults and children;[10]
- An estimation of the extent of child labour in agriculture;
- Children working year-round (full time);[11]
- The working conditions of both full-time and seasonal child workers on the surveyed farms.[12]

CHARACTERISTICS OF SURVEYED FARMERS

Across farm types, except for MLS greenhouses, the majority of respondents were landlords. The survey targeted individuals in charge of various types of farms, including landlords, lead farmers or supervisors who were in charge of managing the farm. Landlord refers to the landowner who is directly involved and in contact with the lead farmer (sahib al-ard). The lead farmer refers to the individual renting the land for agricultural purposes (damin al-ard). The supervisor refers to the manager in charge of operations on the farm (muwathaf mas'ul).

Landlords constituted 70 percent of respondents on small farms in Beqaa. Due to their small size, this type of farm tends to be managed and supervised by their owners, who were easily accessible to enumerators conducting the survey. In contrast, greenhouses are usually managed and supervised by lead farmers and supervisors without any involvement from landlords. In fact, surveyors were able to reach landlords of greenhouses in only 25 percent of cases, whereas the highest share of supervisors was reached in greenhouses.

Table 10. Role of respondent by farm type (percent)

Respondent	Greenhouses in Akkar	Greenhouses in MLS	Medium-sized & large farms in Akkar	Medium-sized & large farms in Beqaa	Small farms in Beqaa
Landlord	53	25	64	58	70
Lead farmer	33	48	32	41	30
Supervisor	15	28	4	1	0
Total	*100*	*100*	*100*	*100*	*100*

Farming is usually performed through a partnership between the landowner and the farmer who does the actual work on the property (usually, the landowner provides shelter to the farmer's family). The farmer gets 25 percent of the return on agricultural tents and greenhouses, and 35 percent of the return on orchards.

[9] Statistical unit = respondent (landlord, lead farmer, or supervisor).
[10] Statistical unit = all workers on the farm.
[11] Statistical unit = full-time child workers.
[12] Statistical unit = all working children (seasonal and full-time).

Most survey respondents were male across all farms. Males comprised around 90 percent of respondents from greenhouses, small, medium-sized and large farms in Akkar and Beqaa. In MLS, 13 percent of respondents from greenhouses were female compared with just 3 percent from medium-sized and small farms.

Syrian nationals constituted a significant share of respondents from greenhouses, but only a small minority from other farm types. Some 49 percent of respondents from greenhouses in MLS and 21 percent in Akkar were Syrian nationals. However, only 6 percent of respondents from small and medium-sized farms in Akkar were Syrian and there were almost none in Beqaa. The apparent higher prevalence of Syrian nationals operating greenhouses is an artefact due to the higher number of lead farmers and nese).

Figure 3. Nationality of respondents

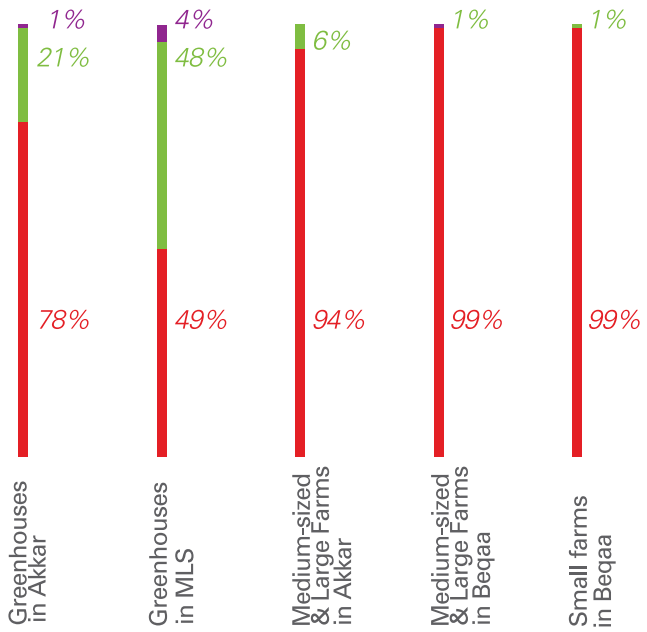
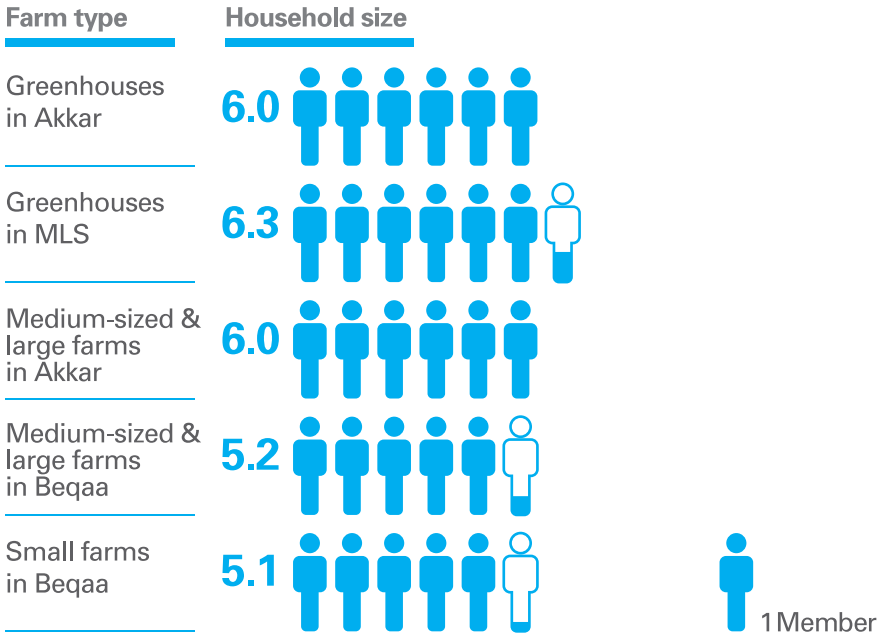


Table 11. Household size of respondents (average number of members)

The largest household size of respondents was found in MLS greenhouses (6.3), compared with small farms in Beqaa (5.1). It is notable that the average household size of respondents is higher than both the national average of 4.2 members (CAS, 2006), and the Syrian average of 4.9 members (UNHCR, 2017).



[13] Interview with Elie Massoud, Head of Agriculture Department, Chamber of Commerce, Industry and Agriculture of Beirut and Mount Lebanon, 17 October 2017.

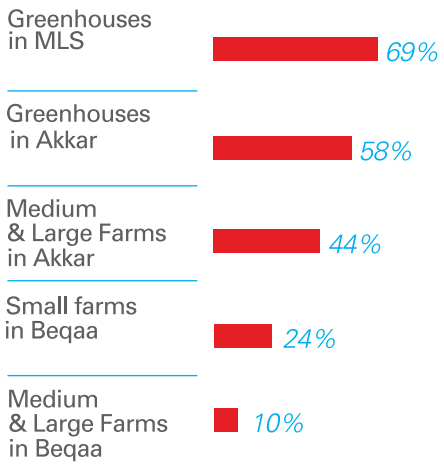
Educational attainment of respondents was found to be generally low, except in Beqaa, where more than 40 percent hold baccalaureate or university degrees. Table 12 shows that respondents in Beqaa tended to have a higher level of education than respondents in Akkar. In Beqaa 19 percent of respondents among small farms and 16 percent of medium-sized and large farms hold a university degree compared to just 3 percent of those from medium-sized and large farms in Akkar. The highest share of respondents who did not complete any education (but can read and write) was found in respondents from greenhouses in MLS (18 percent).

Table 12. Educational attainment of respondents (percent)

Educational attainment	Greenhouses in Akkar	Greenhouses in MLS	Medium-sized & large farms in Akkar	Medium-sized & large farms in Beqaa	Small farms in Beqaa
University	1	8	3	16	19
Baccalaureate	4	11	9	27	24
Intermediate	46	26	51	37	33
Primary	43	38	32	16	19
Read and write	4	18	4	4	5
Other	3	0	1	0	0
Total	*100*	*100*	*100*	*100*	*100*

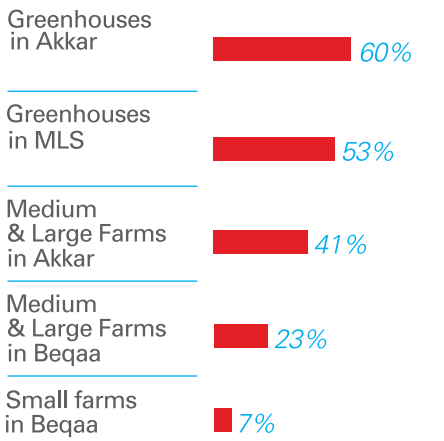
The majority of respondents in greenhouses reside on the farm. Just 10 percent of respondents from medium-sized and large farms in Beqaa reside on the farm, compared with 69 percent of MLS greenhouse farmers interviewed.

Figure 4. Share of respondents residing on the farm



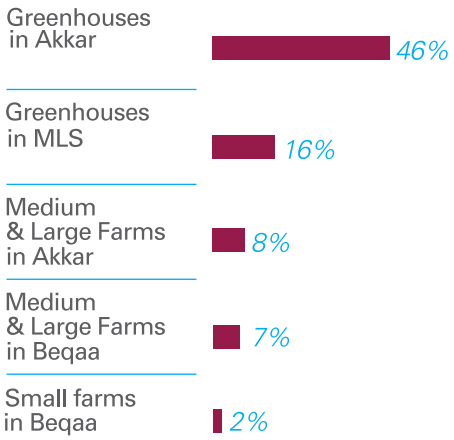
Greenhouse farmers tend to have their households living on the farm. Some 60 percent of respondents from the MLS greenhouses, along with 53 percent of respondents from greenhouses in Akkar, live with their households on the farm, compared with only 7 percent of respondents from small farms in Beqaa and 33 percent from medium-sized and large farms in Beqaa.

Figure 5. Share of respondents whose households live on the farm



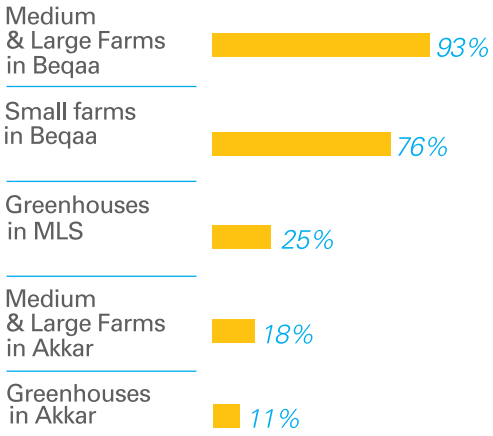
The highest share of respondents whose children work on the farm was found in MLS greenhouses. Some 46 percent of respondents from MLS greenhouses stated that their children worked on the farm compared with 16 percent of those from Akkar greenhouses. This is a notable contrast that may be explained by the fact that Akkar greenhouses tend to be run by Lebanese nationals (78 percent) who also tend to be landlords (53 percent). These farms, therefore, tend to be characterized by Lebanese households living on the farm who do not usually allow their children to work. Many greenhouses in MLS sustain Syrian households (48 percent), who tend to be lead farmers (48 percent) living and working on the farm with their children in vulnerable conditions.

Figure 6. Share of respondents whose children work on the farm



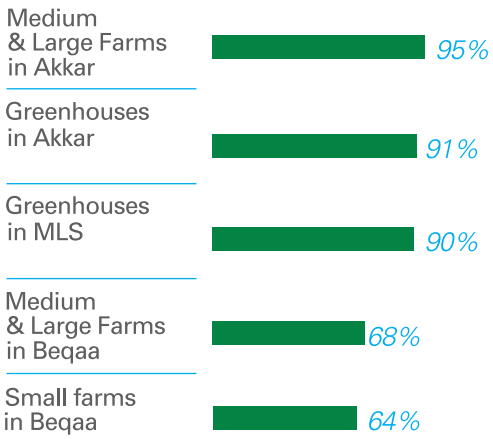
Most farmers of small, medium-sized and large farms in Beqaa exploit more than one farm. More than 90 percent of farmers exploiting large plots in Beqaa have the capacity and resources to exploit more than one plot of land. Conversely, only a small share of farmers in Akkar – whether they are working in greenhouses or medium-sized and large farms – exploit more than one plot of land. In greenhouses in MLS, only 25 percent of respondents reported exploiting more than one farm.

Figure 7. Share of farmers who exploit more than one farm



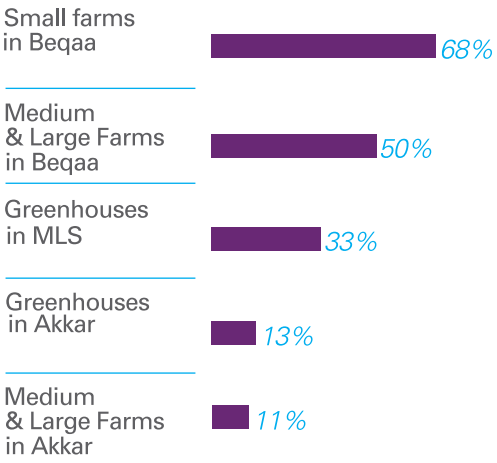
Most respondents from farms in Akkar and greenhouses in MLS rely on agriculture as a primary source of income. Agriculture is the primary source of income for more than 90 percent of respondents from greenhouses, medium-sized and large farms in Akkar and greenhouses in MLS. Around 60 percent of farmers in Beqaa rely on agriculture as a primary source of income.

Figure 8. Share of farmers whose primary source of income is agriculture



More specifically, landlords in Beqaa tend to exploit more than one plot of land regardless of the size of the farm: 68 percent of landlords owning small farms in Beqaa exploit more than one plot of land, whereas only 11 percent of medium-sized and large farm owners do so in Akkar.

Figure 9. Share of landlords who exploit more than one plot



CHALLENGES AND COPING MECHANISMS OF SURVEYED FARMS

In general, Beqaa farmers tend to face more difficulties than farmers in other regions. Respondents from Beqaa reported facing difficulties at all levels (see Table 13). All but four main challenges identified were cited as very important by more than half of respondents in Beqaa.

The decrease of produce prices and limited marketing capacity appears to be a significant challenge across farm types. Almost all respondents from Beqaa farms stated that marketing is a very important challenge (96 percent of medium-sized and large farms and 98 percent of small farms in Beqaa) versus 50 percent in medium-sized and large farms and 46 percent of greenhouses in Akkar, and 54 percent of greenhouses in other areas. In fact, in-depth interviews with farmers showed that all farmers face marketing difficulties.

The cost of labour is a more significant challenge for farmers in Beqaa than for those in Akkar. More than 90 percent of respondents from Beqaa farms considered that the cost of labour is a very challenging factor for farm work while only 15 percent of respondents from medium-sized and large farms in Akkar and 10 percent of those from greenhouses in Akkar considered this issue to be very challenging. Labour costs usually explain the incidence of child labour in that children tend to be hired to cut these costs.

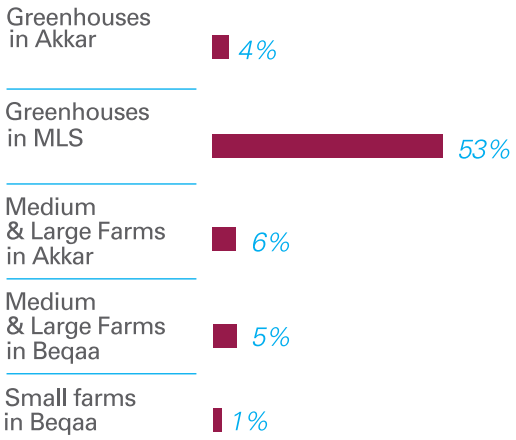
Insufficient governmental and non-governmental support appears to be one of the most important challenges faced by farmers in Beqaa and greenhouses in MLS. The survey shows that almost all Beqaa farmers consider insufficient government support as a big challenge as compared to 2 percent of greenhouses respondents and 3 percent of respondents from medium-sized and large farms in Akkar. In fact, the interviews with farmers showed that they all suffer from a lack of sufficient support for improving their produce.

Table 13. Challenges rated as "very important" by farm location/type (percent of respondents)

Educational attainment	Greenhouses in Akkar	Greenhouses in MLS	Medium-sized & large farms in Akkar	Medium-sized & large farms in Beqaa	Small farms in Beqaa
Insufficient support	3	66	2	96	100
Marketing capacity	46	54	50	96	98
Price decrease	41	69	51	99	96
Labour cost	10	59	15	91	92
Irrigation cost	5	44	16	84	94
Lack of equipment	15	28	9	72	94
Plant disease	14	59	8	84	84
Soil degradation	1	41	3	52	54
Excess of rain	9	25	11	3	0
Labour productivity	3	24	1	41	40
Labour availability	6	11	6	42	28
Insufficient family help	3	10	0	10	12

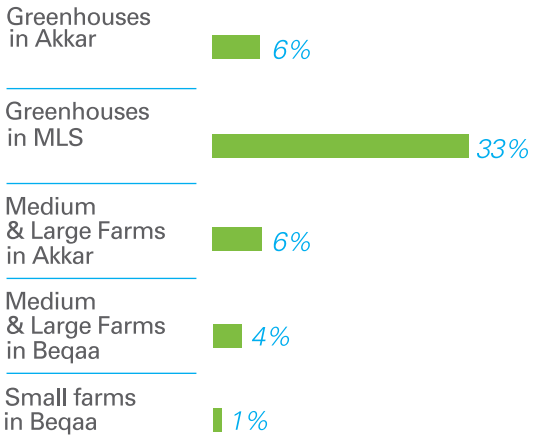
The majority of greenhouses in MLS (53 percent) employ their family's children to work on the farm as a coping mechanism. When asked whether they employed their family's children on the farm as a mechanism for coping with the challenges of managing the farm, 53 percent of respondents from greenhouses in MLS answered "yes", substantially more than those from other farm locations/types. This is in line with the finding that children of households living on greenhouse farms in MLS tend to work due to their vulnerable situation, in that most of them are Syrian refugees.

Figure 10. Share of farmers who employ their family's children as a coping mechanism



Firing employees is a common coping mechanism for greenhouses in MLS. More than 30 percent of farmers in MLS greenhouses admitted that they terminated employees because of financial constraints. However, this reason was reported substantially less frequently among other farm locations/types.

Figure 11. Share of farmers in difficulty that fired employees



Another coping mechanism adopted by farmers while experiencing financial difficulties included borrowing money, which is common and prominent across all farm types.

Table 14. Share of respondents that used listed coping mechanisms by farm location/type

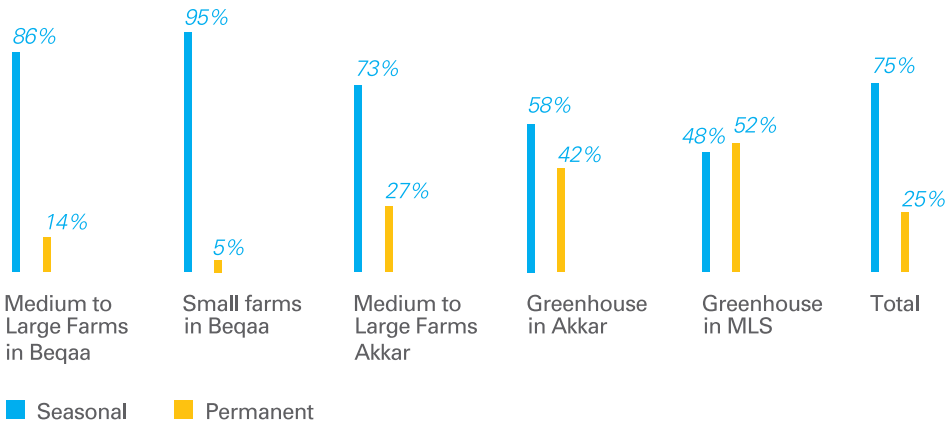
Educational attainment	Greenhouses in Akkar	Greenhouses in MLS	Medium-sized & large farms in Akkar	Medium-sized & large farms in Beqaa	Small farms in Beqaa
Borrowing money	44	55	55	42	40
Employing child members of the household	4	53	6	5	1
Firing employees	6	33	6	4	1
Sale of belongings	13	25	13	7	10
Sale of land	9	6	4	10	8
Sale of equipment	8	13	8	10	5
other coping	1	5	1	0	0

PROFILE OF FARM LABOUR FORCE

Women and children comprise 73 percent of the labour force on farms: 43 percent are women, 30 percent are children, and 27 percent are men. It is important to note that the survey targeted only farmers employing children for farming activities, hence this finding cannot be generalized to the labour force participation rates in the agricultural sector as a whole. Farmers were asked to report the size of their workforce and its classification. A more detailed classification reveals that farm labour is composed of 32 percent seasonal working women, 25 percent seasonal working children, 18 percent seasonal working men, 11 percent of full-time working women, 9 percent of full-time working men and 5 percent of full-time working children.

Farms rely heavily on seasonal workers. Farmers reported that an average of 75 percent of their labour force were seasonal workers. Seasonal workers are considered among the most vulnerable groups of workers because they lack stable income and benefits.

Figure 12. Share of seasonal and permanent (full-time) workers by farm location/type



Women comprise 43 percent of farmworkers, and 73 percent of these work seasonally. In Beqaa small, medium-sized and large farms rely the most on adult female seasonal workers: 41 percent of total workers on these farms are women who work seasonally.

Adult males constitute the smallest share of farm labour. Some 27 percent of the total labour force of the surveyed farms were men. Most men (68 percent) work seasonally.

Children constitute around 30 percent of the total labour force of the surveyed farms. Disaggregation of results by farm type shows the widespread use of seasonal child labour (see Table 15). Up to 33 percent of labourers on small farms and 30 percent on medium-sized and large farms in Beqaa are children.

Table 15. Type of labour by farm location/type (percent)

Type of farm	Women (full-time)	Women (seasonal)	Men (full-time)	Men (seasonal)	Children (full-time)	Children (seasonal)	Total
Greenhouses in Akkar	21	23	14	17	6	18	*100*
Greenhouses in MLS	18	17	20	22	14	9	*100*
Medium-sized & large farms in Akkar	13	26	9	21	4	26	*100*
Medium-sized & large farms in Akkar	7	41	4	14	3	30	*100*
Small farms in Beqaa	2	41	2	21	1	33	*100*
Total	*11*	*32*	*9*	*18*	*5*	*25*	*100*

EXTENT OF FARM CHILD LABOUR

The share of farms that employ children was estimated using two separate approaches:

1- Based on the opinions of farmers, it was estimated that 66 percent of farms employ children. The surveyed farmers were asked to estimate the incidence of child labour in their region and among similar farm types: "In your opinion, in your region and in similar farms as the one you manage, what is the share of farms that employ children?" The average estimate of 411 respondents who answered was 65.8 percent (SD = 15). The range of estimates varied from 5 percent to 100 percent.

2- While surveyors were locating farms that employed children they were also tracking the ratio of farms that employed children versus those that did not. In order to obtain 422 completed questionnaires of farmers who employ children, surveyors had to visit a total of 641 farms. The share of farms that employ children, therefore, represents around 66 percent of the total number of farms visited.

While neither approach can be considered statistically robust, a rough estimate may be gauged, given that both approaches converged towards a similar result – around two-thirds of these types of farms employ children. It is important to note that this share cannot be generalized to the entire agricultural sector, as it limited to the farm types and regions of our study (i.e. the five profiles described in the sampling methodology).

WORKING CONDITIONS OF CHILDREN

In this section, farmers were asked to report the type of farming tasks that children (seasonal and full-time) perform by age category (5–11, 12–13, 14–15, and 16–17 years). Questions also tackled recruitment, wages, working hours, and risks of injury to children.

Results show that Syrian children earn less than Syrian and Lebanese working women. Children and women earn less than Syrian men by 38 percent. A comparison of Syrian and Lebanese adult male farm workers shows that Lebanese men earn 34 percent more than Syrian men.

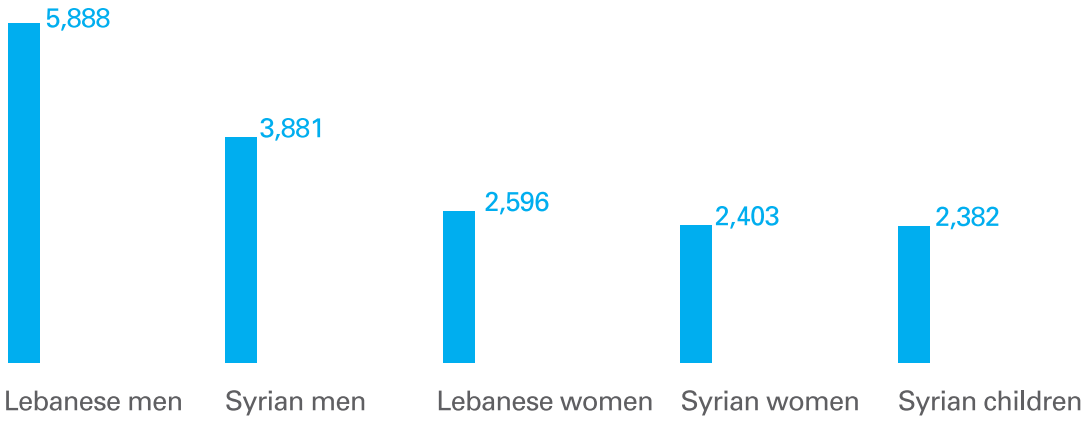
During interviews, children stated that their parents usually have a verbal agreement with the recruiter/shawish or the farmer regarding the payments they receive. In general, children do not have access to their own wages. For instance, one girl interviewed revealed that her employer pays her parents who, in turn, give her LBP 1 000 per day:

"I have now saved 200 000 LBP. When I save more, I want to buy a bracelet and earrings."

(Girl aged 7 working in a greenhouse in Keserwan district.)


© UNICEF/Stephan Gerard Kelly

Figure 13. Average wage per hour (LBP) by profile of worker



In general, children aged 5–11 years are the least likely to work. As shown in Table 16, few farmers reported the involvement of this age category in the listed tasks, especially with respect to preparing land, driving machines or sales. However, a comparison among farm locations/types shows that greenhouses in MLS employ children aged 5–11 for tasks such as weeding, harvest, transport, peeling and sorting more than other locations/types. In fact, according to interviews with farmers, parents usually introduce farm work and start to teach their children to perform a variety of farming tasks between the ages of 8 and 10 years. Around the age of 12, children then become responsible for unsupervised tasks.

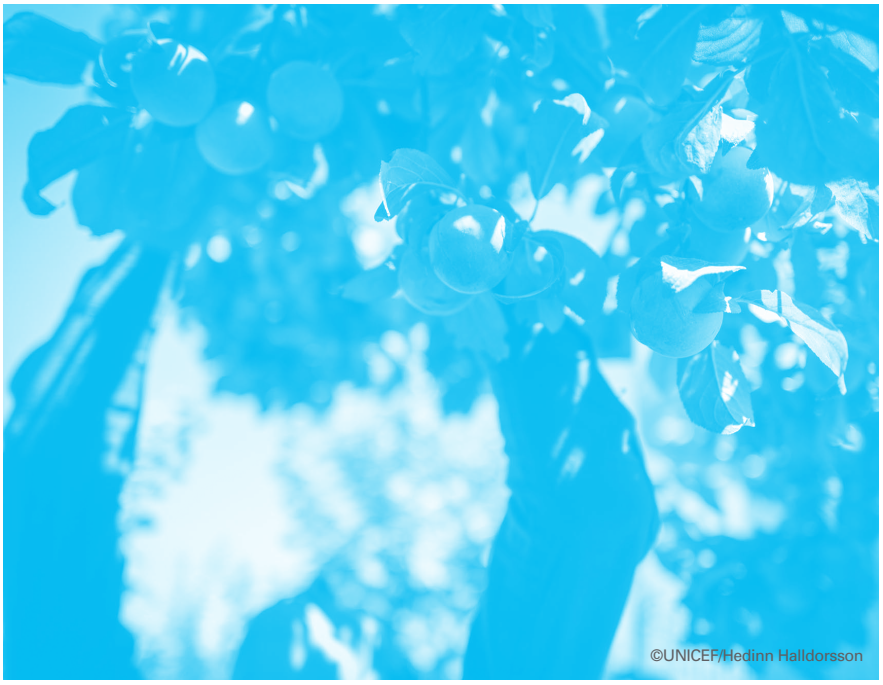


Table 16. Farming tasks for children aged 5–11 years (percent of respondents)

Tasks	Greenhouses in Akkar	Greenhouses in MLS	Medium-sized & large farms in Akkar	Medium-sized & large farms in Beqaa	Small farms in Beqaa
Preparing land	0	10	1	1	0
Transplanting	0	13	2	4	0
Weeding	5	26	8	5	0
Fertilizing	1	4	5	0	0
Driving machines	0	0	1	0	0
Harvesting	4	19	7	6	1
Peeling/Sorting	5	18	6	4	0
Transportation	1	19	3	0	0
Sales	0	3	3	0	0

As children age, they become increasingly involved in additional farming tasks. Compared to younger children, those aged 12–13 are more involved in weeding, harvesting and transportation, especially in medium-sized and large farms in Akkar and greenhouses in MLS. However, in Beqaa, farmers of small farms rarely reported using children of this age category to perform any of the listed tasks. In Akkar, only 1 percent of farmers reported employing children in this age group to prepare land, compared with more than 30 percent of greenhouses in MLS.

Table 17. Farming tasks for children aged 12–13 years (percent of respondents)

Tasks	Greenhouses in Akkar	Greenhouses in MLS	Medium-sized & large farms in Akkar	Medium-sized & large farms in Beqaa	Small farms in Beqaa
Preparing land	0	31	1	10	1
Transplanting	1	31	4	15	1
Weeding	16	41	35	21	2
Fertilizing	3	10	6	0	0
Driving machines	1	0	5	0	0
Harvesting	18	38	32	22	5
Peeling/Sorting	11	28	27	16	1
Transportation	3	33	4	4	2
Sales	0	0	2	0	0

Across farm types, almost half of the surveyed farmers reported employing children aged 14–15 to perform weeding, harvesting, and peeling except for small farms in Beqaa. More than 80 percent of medium-sized and large farms and 65 percent of greenhouses in Akkar employ this age category for weeding and harvesting. In addition, more than 40 percent of greenhouses in MLS involve this group in preparing land, compared with none of the greenhouses in Akkar and 3 percent in other Akkar farm types.

Table 18. Farming tasks for children aged 14–15 years (percent of respondents)

Tasks	Greenhouses in Akkar	Greenhouses in MLS	Medium-sized & large farms in Akkar	Medium-sized & large farms in Beqaa	Small farms in Beqaa
Preparing land	0	41	3	21	10
Transplanting	8	38	11	24	7
Weeding	65	49	82	42	17
Fertilizing	10	21	14	4	0
Driving machines	8	1	10	1	0
Harvesting	66	45	88	48	21
Peeling/Sorting	50	41	66	28	12
Transportation	6	45	13	11	4
Sales	1	4	3	1	0

Table 19 shows that greenhouses in MLS employ children aged 16–17 years in most tasks, but more so in transplanting (61 percent) and transportation (61 percent), compared with other farm locations/types.

Table 19. Farming tasks for children aged 16–17 years (percent of respondents)

Tasks	Greenhouses in Akkar	Greenhouses in MLS	Medium-sized & large farms in Akkar	Medium-sized & large farms in Beqaa	Small farms in Beqaa
Preparing land	3	59	2	42	35
Transplanting	10	61	11	31	23
Weeding	65	69	81	69	74
Fertilizing	13	43	11	10	1
Driving machines	5	8	10	1	1
Harvesting	65	68	82	90	92
Peeling/Sorting	55	58	61	42	47
Transportation	10	61	11	32	31
Sales	4	13	3	3	0

The following figures portray the tasks performed by children of various age groups in each type of farm. Among the farms in Akkar, children mainly work in weeding, harvesting and peeling. Farms in Beqaa involve children in all tasks except the application of fertilizers, driving machines, and sales – with the distinction that small farms do not rely heavily on younger children. Finally, in greenhouses in MLS, children of all age categories perform all kinds of tasks, including soil preparation, fertilizer application and transportation.

Figure 14. Farming tasks by age category, medium-sized and large farms in Akkar (percent of respondents)

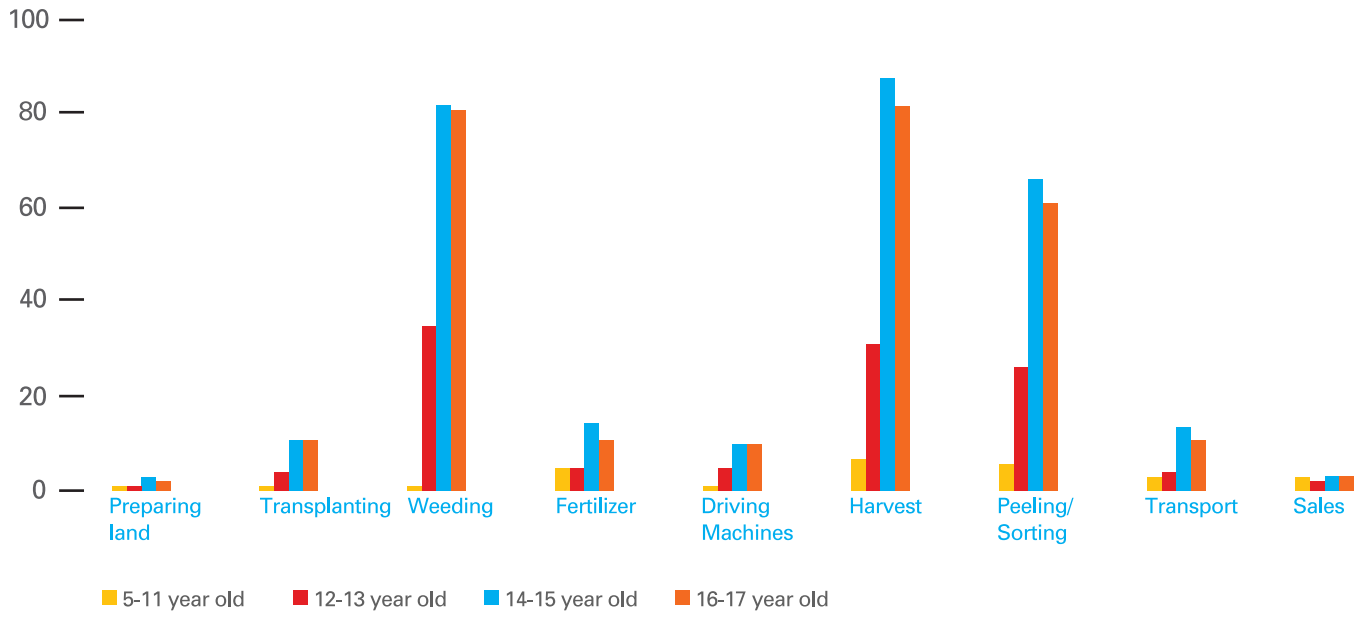


Figure 15. Farming tasks by age category in Akkar greenhouses (percent of respondents)

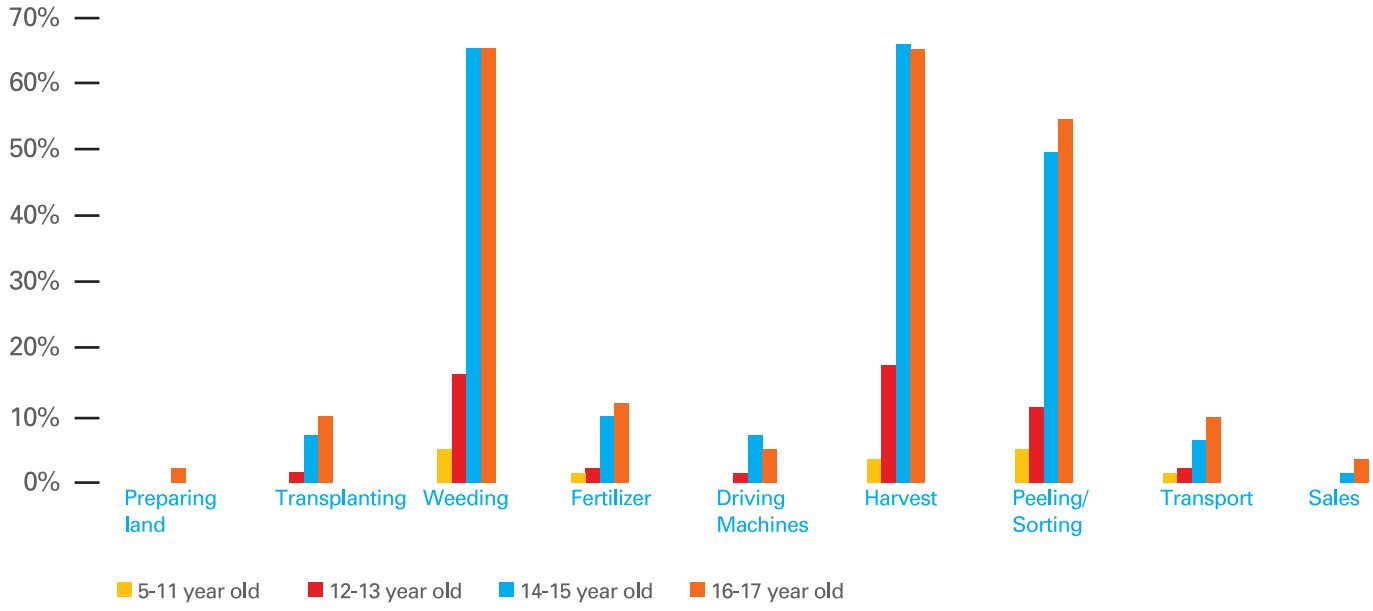


Figure 16. Farming tasks by age category, medium-sized and large farms in Akkar (percent of respondents)

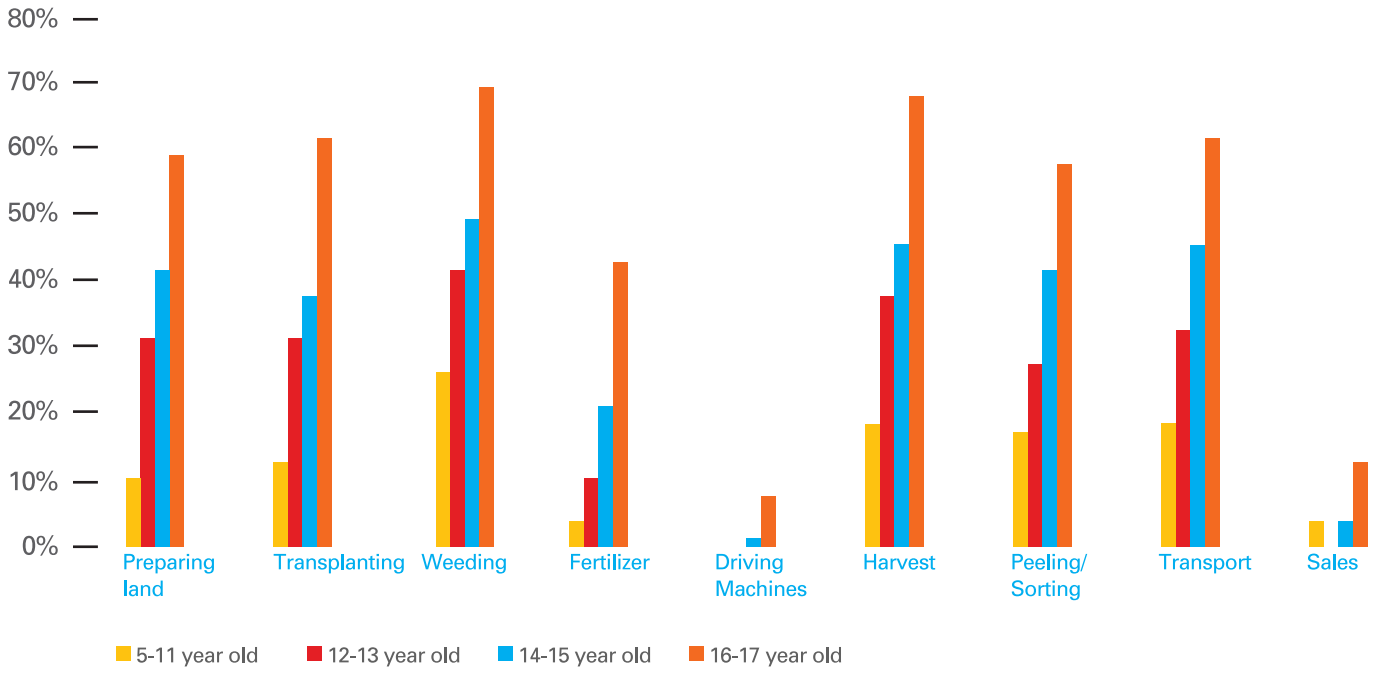


Figure 17. Farming tasks by age category on Beqaa medium-sized and large farms (percent of respondents)

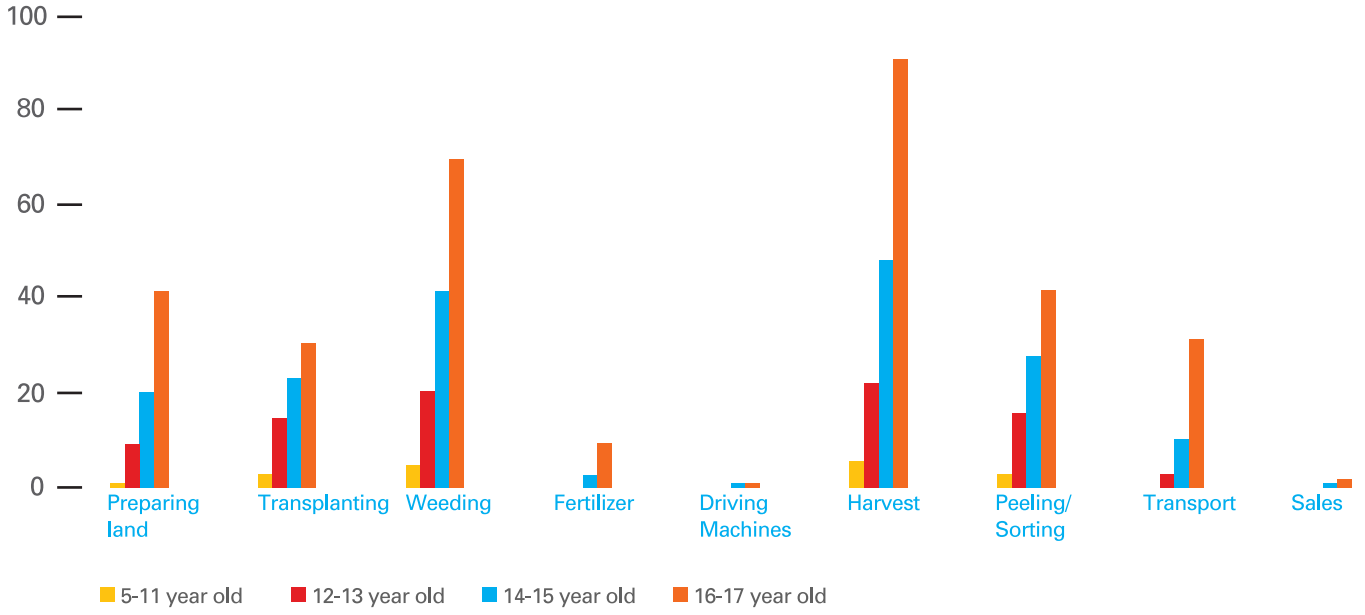
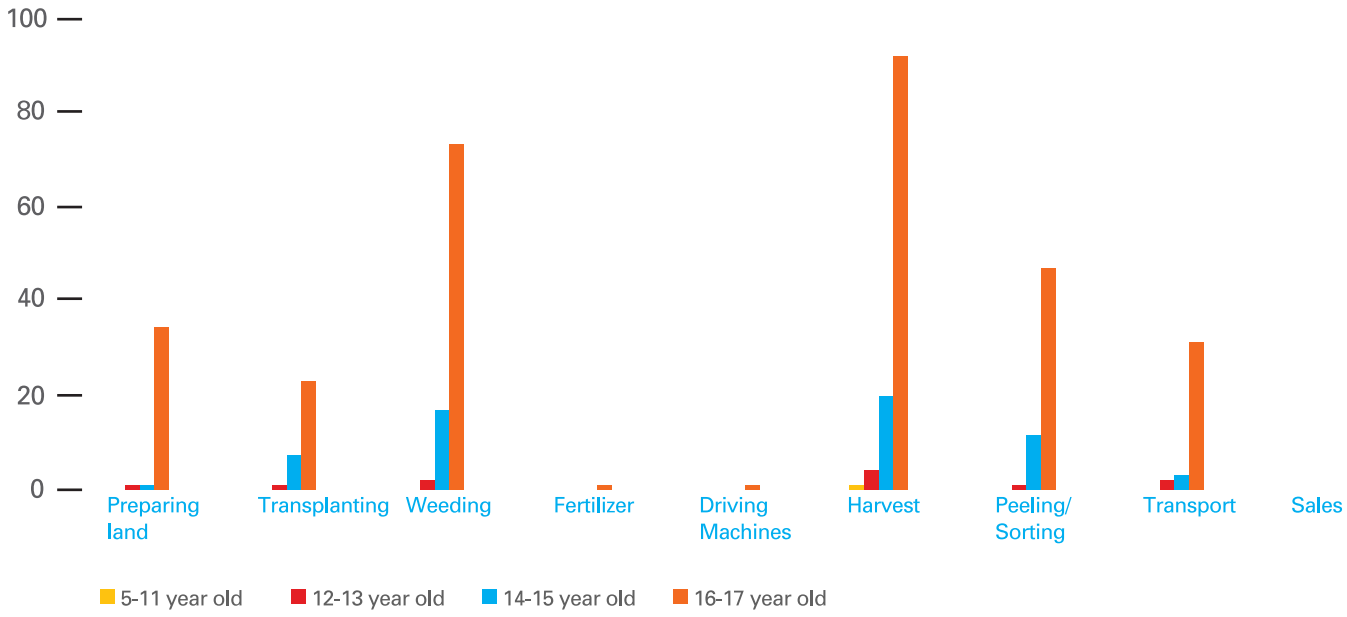


Figure 18. Farming tasks by age category on Beqaa small farms (percent of respondents)



Results show that children on medium-sized to large farms in Akkar tend to work the longest hours (5.9 hours/day), whereas those in greenhouses tend to work the shortest (4.8 hours/day). Also, children in Akkar tend to have the shortest breaks (30 minutes in greenhouses and 36 minutes in medium-sized and large farms), compared with children in Beqaa (66 minutes).

Table 20. Working hours by farm location/type (percent of respondents)

Working hours	Greenhouses in Akkar	Greenhouses in MLS	Medium-sized & large farms in Akkar	Medium-sized & large farms in Beqaa	Small farms in Beqaa
Up to 4 hours	0	31	1	10	1
4 to 6	1	31	4	15	1
4 to 6	16	41	35	21	2

Interviews with children working on the farms showed that most children get around half an hour for lunch break and work around 3 hours in the morning and 3 hours in the afternoon. Most children reported a lack of toilet facilities on the farm. Some children go home during lunch break to have lunch and to use the toilet. A few farms provide pre-fabricated latrines for children, but these are not gender segregated.

Table 21. Average daily working hours per farm type

Farm type	Farm work	Break	Non-Farm work
Greenhouses in Akkar	4.8	0.5	0.3
Greenhouses in MLS	5.7	0.7	1.0
Medium-Sized & Large Farms in Akkar	5.9	0.6	0.4
Medium-Sized & Large Farms in Beqaa	5.1	1.1	0.0
Small farms in Beqaa	5.1	1.1	0.0

Greenhouses in MLS reported a relatively significant share of children facing risks of work injury, compared with other farm types. More than 40 percent of greenhouse farmers in MLS reported that children had contracted allergies as a result of their farm work, and 26 percent suffered from wounds. Almost all other farm types did not report these risks. Nevertheless, this is likely due to the fact that respondents in MLS greenhouses are speaking of their own children that work on the farm and are more likely to know about and report their health problems.

Almost all interviewed children stated that the most exasperating aspect of their work was the long exposure to the sun:

> *"I prefer to collect grapes where I can sit under the vines away from the sun"*

(Syrian boy, aged 12, working on a farm in Beqaa.)

Children working on tobacco plantations prefer this work to other agricultural activities as they find it easy and can do it from home and in the shade. Typical of the Beqaa Valley, potato picking is feared by children as they have to wear wicker aprons to carry heavy loads of potatoes, and work in the sun for long hours. Children described this task as difficult. Some interviews with farmers also revealed that children can be assigned the task of distributing water to workers during their work on the farm to alleviate exposure to the sun. Weeding is also reported as a difficult task as it leads to hand injuries and infections. Other reported hazards and dangers include allergies to pesticides, carrying heavy weights leading to back pain, and harassment.

Interviewed children did not seem significantly infuriated with the scope and amount of work on the farm and expressed their feeling of duty to help their parents:

> *"I am learning my father's profession and I am helping him at the same time. I am not facing any danger"*

(17-year-old boy in Akkar.)

Interviews with children and farmers revealed that the protection apparel provided to children consists only of hats, gloves, and sometimes masks. Landlords usually provide children with traditional means of protection, such as a piece of cloth around their mouth and nose, instead of special masks.[14] This finding was confirmed by officials from the Ministry of Social Affairs (MOSA) and the MOA. Indeed, children working in agriculture are not protected by appropriate measures of occupational safety and health, or gear (gloves, hats, safety goggles, special clothes/ uniforms for pesticides, etc.).

[14] Interview with Nazha Challita, Director of Child labour Unit, MOL, 11 October 2017.

Some of the most common hazards for children working in agriculture are injuries resulting from lifting heavy loads (especially boys), using sharp instruments (especially girls spearing tobacco) and sun exposure. Children are exposed to pesticides, especially when assisting adults in preparing the blend.[15]

Table 22. Share of farms that reported risks for children in the workplace

Type of risks	Greenhouses in Akkar	Greenhouses in MLS	Medium-sized & large farms in Akkar	Medium-sized & large farms in Beqaa	Small farms in Beqaa
Wounds	1	26	3	1	0
Sprains	0	10	1	0	0
Allergies	0	44	0	0	0
Diseases	0	3	0	0	0
Violence	0	3	0	0	0

The lowest share of respondents who would take an injured child to a doctor was found in greenhouses in MLS. Only 39 percent of greenhouse farmers said they would take children to a doctor in case of emergency as opposed to more than 90 percent in farms in Beqaa, 76 percent in Akkar medium-sized and large farms, and 59 percent in Akkar greenhouses.

Table 23. Measures taken in case of accident

Response to accident	Greenhouses in Akkar	Greenhouses in MLS	Medium-sized & large farms in Akkar	Medium-sized & large farms in Beqaa	Small farms in Beqaa
Emergency kit	1	24	0	0	0
Nothing	29	36	19	5	1
Consult a doctor	59	39	76	95	98
Send home	10	1	5	0	1
Other	3	0	0	0	0

[15] Fatima Helbawi, Head of Education Extension Department, MOA, 12 October 2017. Elie Massoud, Head of Agriculture Department, Chamber of Commerce, Industry and Agriculture of Beirut and Mount Lebanon, 17 October 2017.

More than 70 percent of greenhouse farmers in MLS reported that they tend to hire children as a means for them to financially support their families. Farmers believe that they are doing a good deed by employing children, enabling them to financially support their families. Lower shares were registered in other farm locations/types. Some farmers provided other reasons than those suggested in the survey: that children live on the farm with their parents, that children are recruited by shawishs, or that they simply employ the workforce made available to them.

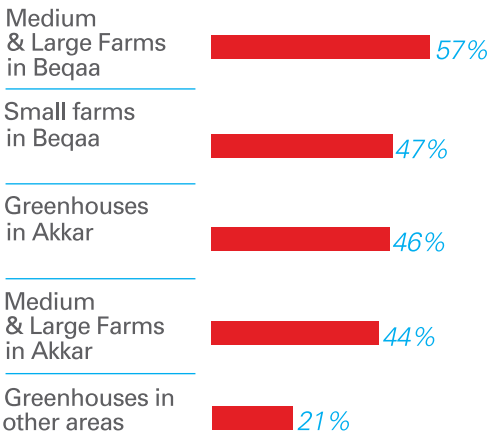
Table 24. Reasons to hire children

Response to accident	Greenhouses in Akkar	Greenhouses in MLS	Medium-sized & large farms in Akkar	Medium-sized & large farms in Beqaa	Small farms in Beqaa
To help the household	14	71	28	41	36
Cheaper labour	21	38	25	24	29
Lack of labour supply	3	13	1	12	21
No complaints	36	6	18	7	8
Skilled labour is not needed	36	15	45	6	8
Other reasons	6	13	9	49	53

Farmers are divided in their willingness to replace working children with adults across farm types, except for greenhouses in MLS. Almost half of farmers in Beqaa are willing to replace children with adults versus 21 percent of greenhouse farmers in MLS. The fact that farmers of greenhouses in MLS tend to live on the farm with their households and employ their own children may explain their reluctance to replace child workers with adults.

Farmers willing to replace child workers with adults were asked about the conditions needed for this replacement to take place. Most farmers (53 percent) held no preference for child workers but claimed they were recruited by shawishs or sent by their families to work. Whenever adult labour was more available, replacing children would become feasible, they said. According to 37 percent of respondents, children can be replaced by adults under "any condition", implying that farmers tend to employ children because they are readily available. If adult workers were equally available, farmers would tend to employ adults.

Figure 19. Share of farmers willing to replace working children with adults



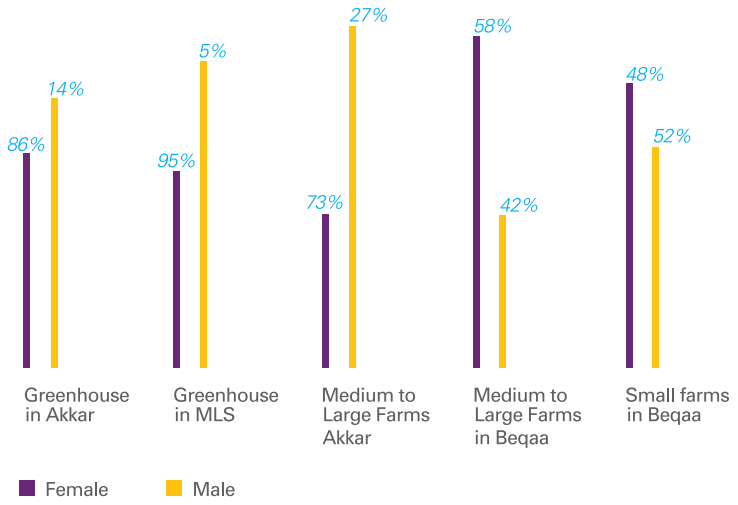
PROFILE OF CHILDREN WORKING FULL TIME IN AGRICULTURE

This section of the report describes the characteristics of children working full time in terms of gender, nationality, age, schooling and residence.

Respondents reported a total of 2 106 children employed seasonally and 294 children employed full time among the 422 farms. Surveyed farmers were asked to provide profile details of each child working on the farm. However, data on children working seasonally were not collected as their number was considered too large. That is, it was presumed the farmer could not recall sufficient information to provide the profile details of 40 or 50 working children to enumerators, especially given that children are usually recruited through middlemen. In addition, seasonal labour is difficult to capture due its variability per season. Consequently, the profiles of full-time child workers were derived from data pertaining to 294 children working on 121 farms.

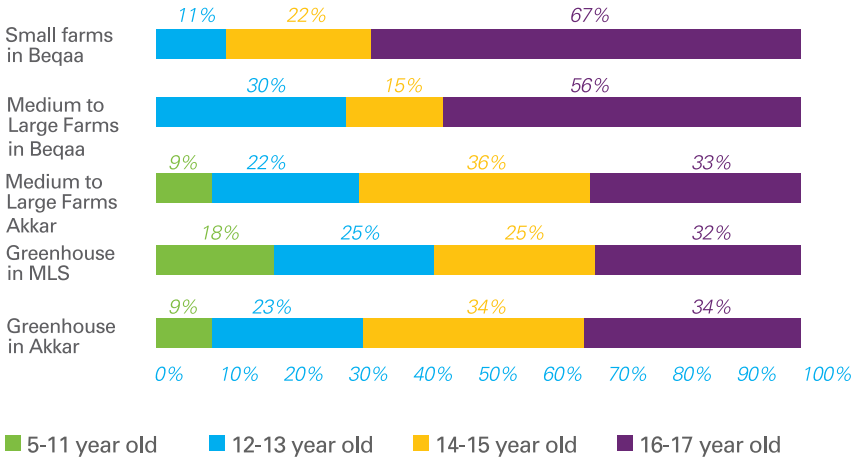
Girls constitute a significant share of children working on a permanent basis across surveyed farms in Beqaa. Some 56 percent of children working on small farms and up to 64 percent on medium-sized and large farms in Beqaa are girls. In Akkar, 32 percent of child workers in greenhouses and 43 percent on medium-sized and large farms are girls.

Figure 20. Gender of children working full time by farm location/type



Children aged 16–17 years old constitute a significant share of children working full time across farm types, especially in Beqaa (67 percent of working children on Beqaa small farms and 56 percent of children working on Beqaa medium-sized and large farms). The share of this age category drops in Akkar and MLS to around 30 percent. Those aged 5–11 years old represent the smallest component of child workers (9 percent on Akkar farms and 18 percent in MLS greenhouses), but greenhouses in MLS employed the largest share of children aged 5–11.

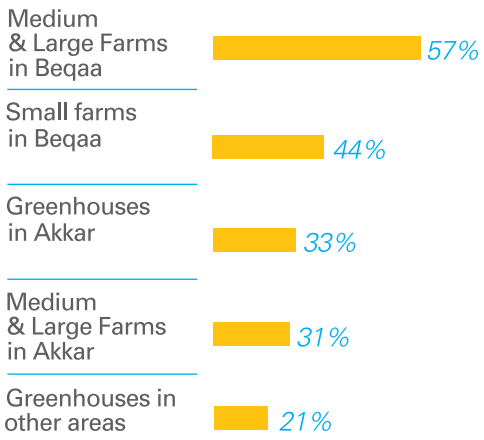
Figure 21. Age distribution of children working full time by farm location/type



According to the definition of child labour that differentiates "children in employment" from "child labour" on the basis of school enrolment, a significant number of children working on farms in Beqaa are out of school and, therefore, fall under the definition of child labour. According to farmers, 82 percent of children working full time on medium-sized and large farms in Beqaa are not enrolled in school compared to 31 percent on similar farms in Akkar. The share of working children who are out of school is significantly lower across farm types in Akkar (21 percent in greenhouses).

Of the children interviewed, the clear majority expressed their discontent for being out of school and their wish to pursue school and university education. Nevertheless, all interviewed children considered farm work as the only possible way to financially support their families and to cope with poverty.

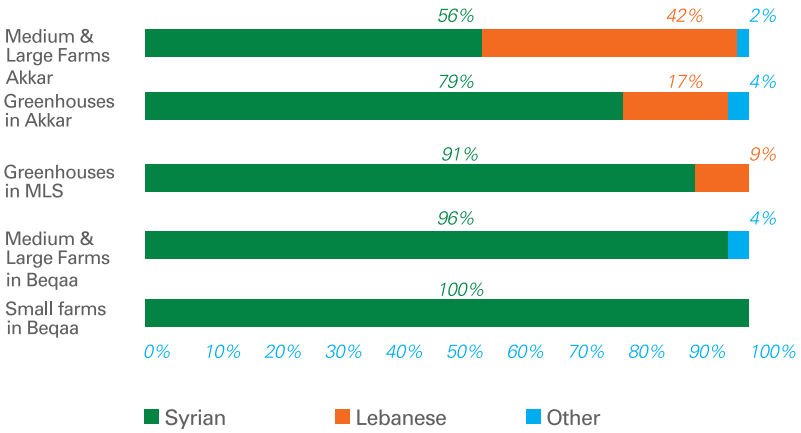
Figure 22. Share of children working full time not enrolled in school (child labour rate)



Almost all children working full time in Beqaa and MLS are Syrian nationals, compared with a lower share in Akkar. All full-time child workers on small farms and 96 percent of those working on medium-sized and large farms in Beqaa are Syrian nationals. More than 90 percent of children working in greenhouses in MLS are also Syrian nationals. However, in Akkar the figures are 56 percent in medium-sized and large farms and 79 percent in greenhouses.

Interviewed farmers observed that the number of Syrian children working in agriculture has significantly increased with the outbreak of the Syrian crisis. Nevertheless, farmers reported that Syrian children were part of the workforce prior to the Syrian crisis and that Syrian children working in agriculture is not a recent phenomenon stemming from the Syrian crisis. In fact, some farmers reported that some Syrian nationals who worked in agriculture in Lebanon prior to the crisis registered their households as refugees after the outbreak of the crisis.

Figure 23. Nationality of children working full time

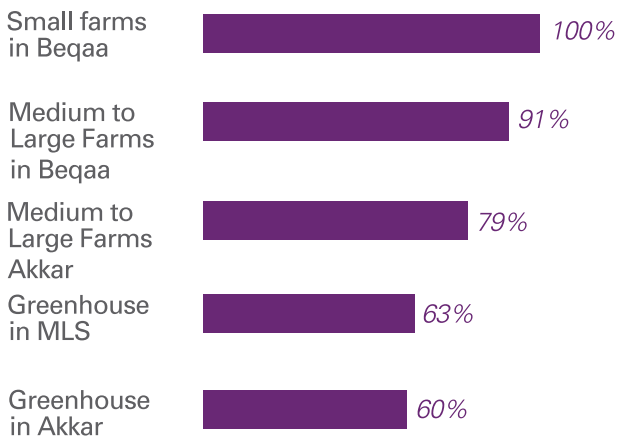


According to interviews with MOL representatives, prior to the Syrian crisis, children – usually above 10 years of age – accompanied their parents and other adult family members from Syria to work in seasonal agricultural activities in Lebanon.

Since the crisis, child labour in this sector has become prevalent throughout the year regardless of the minimum age limit. Interviewees' perceptions of the differences between Syrian and Lebanese children indicate that Syrian children tend to work in large land holdings in Beqaa and the North, are recruited by shawishs, are less likely to attend school and are poorly paid. In comparison, Lebanese children tend to work in small family land plots, mainly in South Lebanon, and carry out seasonal work without dropping out of school.[16]

In Beqaa and greenhouses in MLS, working children tend to live on the farm. In Beqaa, all children working on small farms and 79 percent of those on medium-sized and large farms reside on the farm. The share of working children living on the farm in Akkar is around 60 percent.

Figure 24. Distribution of children living on the farm by farm location/type



Winter is the high season for farm work in Akkar and other regions while summer is the high season in Beqaa. The high season in winter implies that children working on farms in Akkar, and greenhouses in other regions, tend to stay out of school. Moreover, children tend to work in harsh weather conditions, namely cold Akkar winters and hot Beqaa summers. In interviews, children revealed the hardships of working in peak summer and winter conditions.

Table 25. Farming activity level by season (percent)

Season	Greenhouses in Akkar	Greenhouses in MLS	Medium-sized & large farms in Akkar	Medium-sized & large farms in Beqaa	Small farms in Beqaa
Fall	1	13	0	9	15
Spring	3	50	3	5	1
Summer	16	6	19	86	84
Winter	80	31	78	0	0
Total	*100*	*100*	*100*	*100*	*100*

[16] Interviews with Nazha Challita, MOL, and Fatima Helbawi, MOA.

Recruitment via a shawish is the main method of recruiting children for medium-sized and large farms in Beqaa compared with direct recruitment for greenhouses in MLS. Most medium-sized and large farms in Beqaa recruit children through either a shawish (63 percent) or by farmers directly recruiting them (27 percent). A recruiter usually agrees with the farmers to provide the required labour force to conduct the necessary tasks during a specific season. The difference between a shawish and a recruiter is that the latter only deals with the recruitment of the farm labour force, whereas the shawish tends to also manage a tented settlement. The same type of farms in Akkar also rely on a shawish (44 percent) and direct recruitment (52 percent). Greenhouses in MLS rely mostly on farm children (74 percent).

Table 26. Type of recruitment by farm location/type (percent, multiple answers possible)

Type of recruitment	Greenhouses in Akkar	Greenhouses in MLS	Medium-sized & large farms in Akkar	Medium-sized & large farms in Beqaa	Small farms in Beqaa
Shawish	15	0	44	63	49
Recruiter	0	15	0	6	0
Direct recruitment	63	21	52	27	51
Farm children	24	74	8	14	6

Further analysis shows that Syrian children living on the farm earn less (LBP 2 080 per hour) than those recruited by a shawish (LBP 2 124 per hour) or through other types of recruiters (LBP 2 605 per hour).

Table 27. Average wages per type of recruitment (LBP per hour)

Type of recruitment	Average wages of Syrian children
Shawish	2124
Direct recruitment	2605
Farm children	2080

Moreover, children living on the farm do more non-farm work (0.6 hours a day) then those recruited by shawishs (0.1 hours per day) or other types of recruiters (0.3 hours per day). Farm work or break hours are similar across types of recruitment.

Table 28. Daily average hours of farm work, break and non-farm work by type of recruitment

Type of recruitment	Farm Work	Break	Non-farm work
Shawish	5.2	0.8	0.1
Direct recruitment	5.4	0.8	0.3
Farm children	5.5	0.7	0.6

The shawish plays an important role in hiring child labour because they are cheaper than other recruiters. The shawish collects money from farmers and settles the account with workers. As for family workers, small-scale farming conditions often oblige children to help their parents, as it is not economical for them to hire labourers.[17]

Most farmers emphasised that they do not insist on recruiting children for farm work. Whenever shawishs recruit children, farmers take them on, but only because they are part of the shawish's recruited labour force. It is important to note, however, that farmers consider children to be more compliant, agile, and more energetic than adults.

For some landowners, employing child labourers is considered to be cheaper (and in many cases, a child's smaller size enables them to easily pass through the furrows); but most landowners prefer to offer jobs to adults, because they are physically fitter and stronger for hard work and carrying heavy weights.[18]

Interviewed shawishs said that farmers tend to prefer children because they tend to be efficient and sometimes faster than adults. Farmers and shawishs usually agree on the number of workers (including children) to be recruited during a specific season, or in order to complete a certain task such as harvesting. Shawishs could easily recruit Syrian children due to their availability and their strong need to support their families.

Shawishs normally have a verbal agreement with farmers and parents and are responsible for organizing the transportation of children to the farm via pick-up trucks. In the narrative of children, the shawish is considered a feared and powerful person:

> *"I want to become a shawish because he is responsible for all workers. He is my role model because he treats me well and everybody fears him."*

(Syrian boy, aged 13, working on a farm in Beqaa.)

Children do not commute to greenhouses in MLS as most of them reside on the farm. The situation is different in Beqaa where 54 percent of the farms (medium-sized and large) employ children recruited by the recruiter or shawishs. In Akkar, children tend to live either on the farm or at a walking distance from the farm (43 percent in greenhouses and 30 percent in medium-sized and large farms).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17 Interview with Fatima Helbawi, Head of Education Extension Department, MOA, 10 October 2017.
18 Interview with Nazha Challita, Director of Child labour Unit, MOL, 10 October 2017.

Table 29. Means of commuting by farm location/type, according to farmers (percent, multiple answers possible)

Means of commuting	Greenhouses in Akkar	Greenhouses in MLS	Medium-sized & large farms in Akkar	Medium-sized & large farms in Beqaa	Small farms in Beqaa
Live on the farm	34	74	16	15	6
Walk	43	15	30	5	4
Driven by recruiter	1	19	1	54	27
Driven by parents	1	1	1	1	0

Table 30. Summary of findings

Section 1	Beqaa		Akkar		MLS
Survey respondents	**Small**	**M/L**	**M/L**	**Green houses**	**Green houses**
Landlord	70%	58%	64%	53%	25%
Baccalaureate or university graduate	1%	1%	6%	21%	48%
Baccalaureate or university graduate	43%	43%	11%	5%	19%
Reside on the farm	24%	10%	44%	58%	69%
Average household size	5.1%	5.2%	6%	6%	6.3%
Reside with family on the farm	7%	23%	41%	53%	60%
Employ their children to work on the farm	2%	7%	8%	16%	46%
Exploit more than one farm	76%	93%	18%	11%	25%
Rely on agriculture as primary source of income	64%	68%	95%	91%	90%

Section 2	Beqaa		Akkar		MLS
Challenges for farmers	**Small**	**M/L**	**M/L**	**Green houses**	**Green houses**
Insufficient support is a “very important” challenge	100%	96%	2%	3%	66%
Marketing capacity is a “very important” challenge	98%	96%	50%	46%	54%
Price decrease is a “very important” challenge	96%	99%	51%	41%	69%
Labour cost is a “very important” challenge	92%	91%	15%	10%	59%
Respondents firing is a “very important” challenge	1%	4%	6%	6%	33%

Section 3	Beqaa		Akkar		MLS
Total farm labour force	**Small**	**M/L**	**M/L**	**Green houses**	**Green houses**
Children	30%	33%	30%	25%	23%
Women	43%	48%	39%	44%	35%
Men	23%	18%	30%	31%	42%
Farms employing child labour	%66				

Section 4	Beqaa		Akkar		MLS
Full-time working children	**Small**	**M/L**	**M/L**	**Green houses**	**Green houses**
Girls	56%	64%	32%	43%	40%
Aged 5-11	0%	0%	9%	9%	18%
Aged 12–13	11%	30%	22%	23%	25%
Aged 14–15	22%	15%	36%	34%	25%
Aged 16–17	67%	56%	33%	34%	32%
Out of school	44%	82%	21%	31%	33%
Syrian nationality	100%	96%	56%	79%	91%
Reside on the farm	100%	79%	63%	60%	91%
Recruited by shawish	49%	63%	44%	15%	0%
Average daily working hours	5.1	5.1	5.9	4.8	5.7

MAIN FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

a. **A considerable number of child and adolescent workers are out of school.** School attendance is one of the main factors that differentiate between "children in employment" and "child labour". This survey shows that 31 percent of children in medium-sized and large farms in Akkar and 82 percent of medium-sized and large farms in Beqaa are out of school. This group of children is especially vulnerable. Every month of not attending school further reduces the likelihood that children will return to school and finish their education. This has long-term implications for the livelihoods of these children, their ability to contribute to re-building Syria in the future, and securing long-term stability in the region. Furthermore, a lack of educational opportunities for adolescents and youth is often associated with increases in child labour, child marriage and violence.

b. **Ensuring access to education.** It is necessary to coordinate with the Ministry of Education and Higher Education (MEHE) and education partners to ensure access to education in under-served areas. In the first instance, vulnerable working children out of school must be identified and efforts made to provide access to the most relevant educational pathway, especially for those children out of school for a number of years.

Supply-side barriers for families should be removed by raising awareness about the availability of free schools in the second shift system and non-formal learning opportunities such as basic literacy and numeracy (BLN) programmes, and the Accelerated Learning Programme (ALP). Support can be provided for transportation or other social protection cash grants for children attending education.

c. **Promote positive attitudes in the community regarding the value of education.** Parents and adolescents must acknowledge that the long-term value of learning outweighs the short-term losses in income from labour. Families should create an enabling environment for more children to attend school and see education as a long-term investment for the child.

Activities to promote this shift in behavior and attitude must not be one-off; raising awareness of educational opportunities and promoting parents' positive engagement in their child's education should be part of a more holistic stance towards community-engagement interventions.

d. **Skills development.** Children and adolescents whose age is above the minimum legal working age can be provided with vocational or on-the-job training conducted in a gender-sensitive manner. Former child workers, provided they are old enough to work legally, must be provided with programmes attractive to both girls and boys, and which aim to build their entrepreneurial skills. They should be taught how to become productive, reliable, and independent adults.

e. **The share of children and adolescents engaged in hazardous farm activities is significant and increases with age.** The survey shed light on three of these elements, including the handling of fertilizers/pesticides, driving machinery, and average number of working hours per day. The survey shows that handling fertilizers increases with age. The highest prevalence of fertilizer handling may be found among adolescents aged 16–17 years old working in MLS greenhouses, where 43 percent of farmers reported employing children for this task. Driving machinery is much less prevalent with only 8–10 percent of farms reporting children aged 15 and above driving farming machines. Finally, the average number of hours of farm work for children ranges between 4.8 and 5.9 hours per day. Decree No. 8987 states that minors under the age of 18 should not be employed to undertake agricultural tasks that require driving farming machines, handling pesticides and fertilizers, handling poisonous plants, climbing on high trees, using sharp tools or work for more than 4 hours per day.

f. **Enforcement of existing laws.** It is important to enforce the Lebanese Labour Code, which stipulates that the minimum age for work is 14 years of age and the minimum age for light work is 13 years of age. Moreover, Decree No. 8987 should be enforced in coordination with the MOA and the GSO and other relevant line ministries and actors. This can be done through improving intra-governmental coordination, empowering the child labour unit, and strengthening labour inspection capacity. Focused efforts and campaigns to deter shawishs from recruiting children are to be planned and enforced by the GSO and other related institutions.

g. **Monitoring of child labour in agriculture.** It is necessary to conduct regular national surveys on child labour in various sectors, including agriculture. Such studies would provide an accurate quantitative assessment of the magnitude of this phenomenon and inform guidance for relevant programmes. Local committees, in coordination with local authorities and MOA centres, have to monitor and report incidents of child labour in agricultural

settings. Raising awareness among local authorities should be on continuous basis through brochures, seminars and, most importantly, through Training of Trainers (ToT) using the educational and informative material produced jointly by UNICEF, ILO and FAO.

h. **Awareness-raising should be increased on occupational safety and health (OSH)** in agriculture. Training, awareness-raising material, and safety kits should be provided to farmers and households engaged in agricultural works. In turn, it is recommended that child protection actors embark in an awareness campaign targeting Syrian households living in greenhouses in MLS in order to encourage these households to send their children to school.

CROSS-CUTTING ISSUES

i. Empowering female farmers and agricultural workers. The survey showed that women tend to outnumber men in agricultural labour. This result should be used as an opportunity to empower women by ensuring equal pay for equal work and, for experienced women, opening up opportunities for increased responsibility such as becoming lead farmers, recruiters, etc. Education for girls needs to be encouraged – and even enforced – especially for rural girls aged 15–18 years.

j. Extending social protection benefits to rural areas would alleviate economic vulnerability. The desk review and the results of the survey have shown that poverty and child labour are intertwined. It is important to reduce the vulnerability of households affected by child labour in view of eliminating it. This may be achieved through government support for rural areas, mainly vulnerable farmers, small-scale family farmers and agricultural workers, and focusing on decent work, gradually transitioning from informal to formal employment. Additionally, children's experiences of poverty and vulnerability are multidimensional and differ from those of adults in that they are more vulnerable to malnutrition, disease, abuse and exploitation. Their dependence on adults for support and protection means that loss of family care is a significant risk, particularly in the context of conflict – during humanitarian crises children can be trafficked and forced into labour. Extending social protection coverage to those previously excluded, and meeting the multiple vulnerabilities of children and adapting social protection systems to new forms of work and employment, are essential to tackling decent work deficits and reducing vulnerability and insecurity. Social protection that also aims to maximize opportunities and developmental outcomes for children by considering different dimensions of children's well-being is key. FAO and ILO need to continue working on improving social protection systems to foster sustainable and equitable rural development, poverty reduction, and food security, taking into consideration the specific situation of female-headed households. Sister UN agencies should join efforts to draft a multi-sector integrated social protection policy for rural areas, in collaboration with line ministries concerned with poverty reduction and improvement in livelihoods.

k. Scope of work and coordination. The predominance of child labour in agriculture in Lebanon calls for special attention since this sector is characterized by an early entry into work. Emphasis on partnerships promoting a holistic approach to address the multifaceted push factors of child labour, especially alleviating poverty, enhancing social protection, and ensuring education, needs to be taken. More importantly, scaling up interventions would require effective planning of actions and mainstreaming child labour concerns within existing capacity-development activities.

Table 31. Summary of interventions by type

Capacity building and development	Legislative framework	Awareness sessions	Support local authorities and communities	Coordination
Increase and train the number of MOL inspectors, MOA extension officers social workers and care givers	Enforce children's rights to free and compulsory education as per the National Education Strategy developed in 2010	Awareness sessions in rural settings and schools targeting children and community-based PSS	Train focal point at municipalities to follow up and monitor at the local level and consequently report cases	Round tables, including all stakeholders
Train master trainers on child labour and OSH in agriculture	Enforce and regulate labour inspections	Technical sessions on hazards in agriculture and impact on health and morals to both direct and indirect beneficiaries	Local inspection visits	Technical committee establishment
Involve the Agriculture Engineers Syndicate and Chambers of Commerce, Industry and Agriculture	Enforce or increase the penalty for employers who use child labour or parents who encourage their children to work	Disseminate of topic related brochures in rural areas	Encourage volunteering	Inter-ministerial dialogue and regular committee meetings at both central and local levels
Enable rural youth of working age to access decent work including creating economic opportunities	Social protection for farmers and their families	Sessions sensitizing parents and caregivers, especially Syrian families	Support and promote TVET for drop-out children and youth	Local coordination between NGOs working on child protection
Livelihood vocational training support	Develop OSH regulations in agriculture; define (allowed) light work in agriculture	Target farmers and employers of children working in agriculture	Support farmers in production and marketing; create economic opportunities for parents	Active and efficient referral mechanism
		Raise awareness on children's rights and the negative consequences of child labour and missing education	Support SDCs at MOSA	Impact assessment of programmes combating child labour
Promote innovations for youth	Encourage the integration of child workers into the educational system	Seminars at universities on child labour and OSH in agriculture	Rehabilitation and support centres for rural working children and youth	

Note: Recommendations include gender responsiveness across all pillars and activities in order to address the gender barriers that girls and boys are facing.

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ANNEXES

ANNEX 1:

DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS WITH STAKEHOLDERS

This tool consists of a discussion guide for directing interviews with stakeholders and to help structure the interviews. Stakeholders included experts on agriculture in different geographic areas. These interviews helped fine-tune the research methods in general and the sampling methodology in particular.

Section 1. General information areas/ sectors of expertise

1. Description of the agriculture sector in the area in terms of variety, irrigation, and associations of producers.

2. Trends and evolutions of labour force in different agricultural sub-sectors and modes of production (increase, decrease, stable, required skills).

3. Obstacles pertaining to different sectors: Market and environmental issues.

4. Vision of different agricultural sectors: What type of development/progress is detected (production, transformation)?

5. What are the agencies that undertake agricultural advocacy in the area (government, farmers' networks, professional training centres, etc.) and on which activities, modes of productions, agricultural sectors do they focus?

6. Validation of clustering by type of produce, modes of production, and geographic areas.

Section 2. Farm chores and labour of children

7. The tasks and works undertaken by children in the agriculture sector across the year, specific period if high intensity, and the differences in work done by girls and boys by age categories 5–11; 12–13; 14–15; 16–17.

8. Age categories of boys and girls during: (a) the apprentice period (to help parents or learn tasks); (b) the active period (full participation in farm work, type of activities, and schedule); and (c) reasons behind the selection of such age categories of apprenticeship and effective active labour.

9. The factors that make families resort to their children to work on the farm or to resort to any type of child labour, as well as frequency/intensity in different regions.

10. Type, frequency and origins of farm child labour (migrants, refugees, wage earners, group of workers), as well as the evolution of child labour in frequency, type, origin of children over the past ten years in the different geographic areas (increasing, decreasing, stable). Why?

11. Type of tasks and chores usually undertook by children and reasons.

12. Perception of the evolution of child labour in the past ten years.

13. What is the role and importance of education and professional training for these children? From which age? Until which age?

Section 3. Working conditions, risks and dangers

14. Tasks that negatively impact on the health and safety of children.

15. Frequency, types of risks and level of danger linked to specific areas: typology of modes of production and types of risks and level of danger.

16. Tasks where children's involvement should be avoided or decreased? Are workers trained on workplace safety? If yes, how?

17. Provision areas for rest, water and lunch, drinking water, gender segregated bathrooms, protection material, etc.

18. What are the problems linked to child labour? The consequence on health, and security, and education.

Section 4. Perspectives

19. The factors that make farmers recruit children for their farms?

20. Recommendations for the alleviation of child labour, who can play a role in this, and what are the possible incentives?

21. What would influence farmers to renounce to child labour?

22. How to better govern the relationship between farmers, workers and recruiters (shawish)?

23. How to improve the recruitment of skilled and unskilled agricultural workforce?

24. The latest circular issued by GSO on prohibiting children under the age of 16 to accompany their families under the permit to work in agriculture.

The procedures, implementation, and sanctions.

List of interviewed stakeholders

Name	Agency
Nazha Challita – Director of Child Labour Unit	Ministry of Labour
Fatima Helbawi – Head of Education Extension Department	Ministry of Agriculture
Elie Massoud – Head of Agriculture Department	Chamber of Commerce
Rita Karam – Head of Higher Council of Childhood	Ministry of Social Affairs
Amal Salibi – Head of Statistics and Economic studies Department	Ministry of Agriculture
Mona Siblini – Head of Horticulture Department	Ministry of Agriculture
Lama Oueijan – Head of Private Sector Unit	International Labour Organization

ANNEX 2:

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE SURVEY OF FARMERS

Operational definitions:

Landlord: refers to the land owner who is directly involved and in contact with the lead farmer

Lead farmer: refers to the manager in charge of operations in the farm

Children: individuals under 18 years old

The respondent will be the landlord, the lead farmer, or the supervisor depending on the level of information. The respondent will be the person in charge of daily operations including human resources and task assignments on the farm.

Instructions for enumerators:

a) First enquire whether the identified farm employs children. If, yes continue the process. If not, please stop the process and move to the next farm.

b) Identify the person in charge of farm management and workers.

c) Is this person present? In case this person is present, please continue the interview.

d) If the person in question is absent, please make an appointment and come back a second time.

e) When the meeting is set and respondent is ready please start with the following:

Our names are [XX]. We are here because we are conducting a study on behalf of UNICEF/ FAO Lebanon. UNICEF is a United Nations programme that works to improve the lives of children and their families all over the world, also here in Lebanon. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations is a specialized agency of the United Nations that leads international efforts to defeat hunger and its representation in Lebanon was established in 1977. With this study, UNICEF and FAO wants to learn more about children working in the agriculture sector in Lebanon in terms of their education, working conditions, and safety, but also about the agriculture sector and its labour market. We will ask questions that will be about these topics. For this study, we are conducting 400 interviews with farmers in Lebanon. We also interview people working on these issues, for example people from the Government. We treat the answers with utmost confidentiality and they will only be used for the study.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You can stop the interview at any point. You don't have to give a reason for stopping and we will not push you to continue. There will be no negative consequences for you if you don't want to participate or if you choose to stop the interview. If you want to complain or have queries later, you can contact [XX].

Do you agree to participate in this survey?

a- Yes
b- No, please specify the reason why you do not want to be part of the assessment:

_____

TO BE COMPLETED BY THE ENUMERATOR

1. **Questionnaire number:** _____
2. **Date:** _____
3. **Surveyor's name:** _____
4. **Start time:** _____
5. **Address of the farm:** _____
6. **Profile of the farm:**
   a. Profile 1 – Greenhouses in Akkar;
   b. Profile 2 – Greenhouses in other regions;
   c. Profile 3– Medium-sized and large lots in Akkar;
   d. Profile 4 – Medium-sized and large lots in Bekaa;
   e. Profile 5 – Small subsistence farm in Bekaa.
7. **Please record GPS coordinates:** _____
8. **Town:** _____
9. **District:** _____
10. **Governorate:** _____

Section 1

General information

11. **Name of respondent:** _____

12. **Phone number** _____

13. **Position in the farm:**

a- Landlord (sahib al-ard) ☐
b- Lead farmer ☐
c- Supervisor – employed by landlord or lead farmer ☐

If answer to Q13 is (b) or (c), continue till the end of the section.
If answer is (a), skip the following questions and go to Section 2.

14. **Gender**

a- Male ☐
b- Female ☐

15. **Position in the farm:**

a- Lebanese ☐
b- Syrian ☐
c- Palestinian ☐
d- Other, specify: _____

16. **Age:** _____ **years**

17. **Educational attainment:**

a- Read/write ☐
b- Primary ☐
c- Intermediate ☐
d- Baccalaureate ☐
c- University ☐
d- Other, specify: _____ ☐

18. **How many members does your household include?**
_____ **members**

19. **Do you live on the farm?**

a- Yes ☐
b- No ☐

20. **If yes, does your family live on the farm?**

a- Yes ☐
b- No ☐

21. **If yes, are your children below 18 involved in farm work?**

a- Yes ☐
b- No ☐

22. **How many years have you exploited/owned this land:**

_____ **years**

23. **Do you exploit/own other farming/agriculture land:**

a- Yes ☐
b- No ☐

24. **In terms of source of income, is agriculture your:**

a- Yes ☐
b- No ☐

25. **What is the main farming activity of the farm:**

_____

26. **What is the secondary farming activity of the farm:**

_____

27. **Can you please specify the gender of the landlord?**

a- Male ☐
b- Female ☐

28. **Can you please specify the nationality of the landlord?**

a- Lebanese ☐
b- Syrian ☐
c- Palestinian ☐
d- Other, specify: _____

29. **Can you please specify the age of the landlord:**

_____

30 **Educational attainment of the landlord:**

a- Read/write ☐
b- Primary ☐
c- Intermediate ☐
d- Baccalaureate ☐
c- University ☐
d- Other, specify: _____ ☐

31. **How many members does the household of the landlord include?**

_____

32. **If yes, are your children below 18 involved in farm work?**

a- Yes ☐
b- No ☐

33. **If yes, does his family live on the farm?**

a- Yes ☐
b- No ☐

34. **If yes, are his/her children below 18 involved in farm work?**

a- Yes ☐
b- No ☐

35. **How many years has he owned this land:**

_____ **years**

36. **Does the landlord own other farming/agriculture land?**

a- Yes ☐
b- No ☐

Section 2

Characteristics of economic activity

37. **In total, what is the total cultivated area during the last season?**

_____ **dunum.**

38. **Detailed situation of cultivated land:**

a- Type 1 ☐
b- Type 2 ☐
c- Type 3 ☐

39. What are the major difficulties faced by the farm:

1 = Not important; 2 = Important; 3 = Very important

Type of difficulty	Level
Climatic conditions such as below:	
Draught	_____
Excess of rain/flooding	_____
Soil degradation	_____
Technical difficulties such as:	
Plant disease and pests	_____
Insufficient extension support	_____
Lack of material and equipment	_____
Productivity of labour	_____
Availability of labour	_____
Insufficient family help	_____
Technical difficulties such as:	
Marketing capacity	_____
Decrease of products prices	_____
Cost of labour	_____
Cost of irrigation	_____
Cost of agricultural inputs	_____
Other	_____

40. During the past year was the farm forced to do the following (order):

	Yes	No
Sale of farm equipment	☐	☐
Laying off permanent employees	☐	☐
Sale of personal belongings	☐	☐
Sale of land	☐	☐
Borrowing money	☐	☐
Introduction of family children at work	☐	☐
Other	☐	☐

41. Please describe the labour force at the farm:

	Current number of permanent workers	Number of seasonal workers during the most recent season
Women		
Men		
Children		

42. Please describe the labour force at the farm:

Number	Gender		School enrolment		Farm residence	
	Female	Male	Yes	No	Yes	No
1	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

43. How many of those children live on the farm with their families?

_____

44. How many of those children live on the farm without their families?

_____

45. How many of those children work during school days?

_____

46. What are the seasons that witness the highest number of working children?

a-	Winter	☐
b-	Spring	☐
c-	Summer	☐
d-	Fall	☐

47. How are children recruited?

a-	Shawish	☐
b-	Recruiter	☐
c-	Direct recruitment	☐
d-	Children of families on the farm	☐

48. How do children get to work in general (multiple answers)?

a-	They live on the farm	☐
b-	They walk to the farm	☐
c-	Driven by the recruiter	☐
d-	Driven by parents	☐
e-	Other, specify:	☐

49. What type of labour executes the following tasks in the farm:

Tasks	Children 5–11 years old	Children 5–11 years old	Children 5–11 years old	Children 5–11 years old
Preparing the land				
Transplanting				
Weeding				
Fertilizing and/or pesticide application				
Driving/operating machines				
Harvesting (handpicking)				
Peeling and sorting				
Transportation of produce				
Sales				

50. How are children recruited?

Activity	Average number of hours per day
Farm work	
Break (including lunch)	
Non-farm work	

51. Did any of the children working on the farm face any of those danger and risks during work? (multiple answer)

- a- Cuts, wounds, bruises ☐
- b- Swelling, sprains, strains ☐
- c- Allergic reactions to chemicals ☐
- d- Infections, cancers, hearing/sight damages ☐
- e- Violence and/or harassment ☐
- f- Other, specify ☐
- g- None ☐
- h- Don't know ☐
- i- Refuse to answer ☐

52. In case of injury, what measures are taken for treatment?

- a- Take to the doctor ☐
- b- Send back to their family ☐
- c- Emergency kit on the farm ☐
- d- Nothing ☐
- e- Other, specify: ☐

53. Did a child death related to farm labour ever occur?

- a- Yes ☐
- b- No ☐
- c- Don't know ☐
- d- Refuse to answer ☐

54. Why do you employ children?

- a- Children's income can help their household ☐
- b- Children are cheaper ☐
- c- Lack of other labour supply ☐
- d- Children do not complain ☐
- e- I don't need skilled labour ☐
- f- Other, specify ☐
- g- I don't know ☐
- h- Refuse to answer ☐

55. Would you replace child labour with adult labour? If yes, why?

- a- No ☐
- b- Yes, under which conditions? ☐
- c- Don't know ☐
- d- Refuse to answer ☐

ANNEX 3:

DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR INTERVIEWING FARMERS

This tool will serve as a guide for the discussion with 30 selected farmers who employ children for agricultural tasks.

1. General data: gender, age, education, membership in associations, main farming activity, years of activity.

Section 1

General information

2. Description of the agricultural activities of the farm: crops, produce, variety, irrigation, type of machinery.

3. Trends and evolutions of labour force in different agricultural sectors and modes of production (increase, decrease, stable, required skills).

4. Obstacles pertaining to plantations: Market or environmental issues.

5. Type of development/progress (production, transportation).

6. What are the agencies that undertake agricultural support or provide extension services in the area (government, farmers' networks, professional training centres, etc.) and on which activities, modes of productions, agricultural sectors do they focus?

7. Validation of the targeted clustering.

Section 2

Farm chores and tasks performed by children

8. What is the usual schedule for working children? What is the extent of flexibility?

9. Current and yearly number of children working on the farm, gender, age, and school or early childhood programme enrolment.

10. Type of contract with children: formal, informal, farmer/parent, farmer/child, farmer/shawish, work versus debt, etc.

11. Describe the rights and duties within a contract between parent/farmer, child/farmer, shawish/farmer, work versus debt.

12. Specific period if high intensity of farm child labour.

13. Classification of tasks and works undertaken by children in the plantation across the year, per gender and age categories 5–11; 12–13; and 14–15; and 16–17.

Tasks	Male 5–11	Female 5–11	Male 12–13	Female 12–13	Male 14–15	Female 14–15	Male 16–17	Female 16–17

14. Age categories of boys and girls: at the apprentice period (to help the parents or learn tasks); the active period (full participation in farm work, activities and schedule); and reasons behind the selection of such age categories of apprenticeship and effective active labour.

15. Besides age, what are the signs that indicate that children can undertake farm work (for boys, for girls)?

16. The factors that make families resort to having their children work on the farm or to resort to any type of child labour, as well as frequency/intensity in different regions (give examples and frequency per villages).

17. Type, frequency and origins of farm child labour (migrants, refugees, wage earners, group of workers), as well as the evolution of child labour in frequency, type, origin of children over the past ten years in the different geographic areas (increasing, decreasing, stable, why).

18. How long, on average, do children work on the farm?

19. Typical reasons of departure.

20. What is the role and importance of education and professional training of these children? Until what age?

Section 3

Working conditions, risks and dangers

21. Approximate number of working hours/day per gender, age, season, mode of production.

22. Tasks of negative impact on the health and safety of children.

23. How do children get to work?

24. Frequency of the task, types of danger/hazards and level of risk linked to specific areas. Typology of modes of production and types of danger/hazards and level of risk.

25. Provision areas for rest, drinking water and lunch, protection material (gloves, masks, and hats), availability of bathrooms (segregation), etc.

ANNEX 4:

DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR INTERVIEWING CHILDREN

This tool will be used to conduct interviews with 30 children working on farms. The tool aims at structuring the questions pertaining to performed tasks and working conditions.

Section 1

General information

1. Household conditions, governorate/kaza (district) residence with parents or tutors, shelter density, education.

2. Enrolment in and attendance at school or any early childhood education programme.

3. During the current school year, level and grade of schooling.

Section 2

Tasks and chores of working girls and boys

4. List and describe tasks and chores in production, harvest, and post-harvest.

5. Production of a seasonal calendar, where all agricultural and non-agricultural tasks are listed.

6. Distance between the place of residence and place of work and transportation.

7. Who are tasks carried out with (parents, tutors, other children)?

8. Types of contracting: formal, informal, parents/farmers, children/farmers, work versus debt.

9. Remuneration of work: no remuneration, food remuneration, other.

10. Wage cuts and reasons behind those.

11. Age of apprenticeship and age of actual active work.

12. Factors leading to farm labour.

Section 3

Tasks and chores of working girls and boys

13. Perception of activities carried out by children: good activity, contribution to the family, type of apprenticeship, dangerous, prefer doing other things.

14. For children away from school, perception of their dropout: negative or positive?

15. The tasks that are most hated and reasons why.

16. Tasks/roles they prefer/know about and reasons given.

17. Tasks that have high risks to their health and safety (e.g. accidents, disease, most common accidents).

18. Access to rest areas and sanitation (number of hours by ages 5–11; 12–13; 14–15; and 16–17).

19. Access to on-the-job education and training.

20. Additional skills they would like to acquire to improve working prospects.

Section 4

Tasks and chores of working girls and boys

21. Dreams and projects: what would you like to do in the future (work, study)? Do you have a role model around you? Who is your role model and why?

ANNEX 5:

DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR INTERVIEWING SHAWISHS

The fifth tool will guide the interviews with recruiters of Syrian children for agricultural work. The shawish manages tented settlements and is responsible for recruiting groups of workers for the farmers. This guide will serve to direct the discussion with 30 selected shawishs.

1. General information: age, gender, nationality, education, period of experience, region of operation.

2. Previous experience, what they did before assuming the role of shawish.

3. Process and type of contract with farmers.

4. Rules, rights and duties of farmers, shawish, and children under such types of contracting.

5. Participation of children in farm work: To what extent is participation in this type of work optional for children and their parents?

6. Characteristics of farm child labour demand and labour supply. What are the main characteristics of children who work in agriculture?

7. Estimate of share of children in the ITS that work in agriculture?

8. Difficulties of recruitment.

9. Process of group recruitment for farm work.

10. Profile of farm child labour per season, region, mode of production, and type of activity (harvesting, transportation, fertilizer spreading, etc.).

11. Approximate number of working hours/day per gender, age, season, mode of production, extent of flexibility of schedule.

12. Provision areas for rest, lunch, protection material, etc.

13. At the apprentice period (to help the parents or learn tasks); the active period (full participation in farm work, activities and schedule); and reasons behind the selection of such age categories of apprenticeship and effective active labour.

14. Besides age, what are the signs that indicate that children can undertake farm work (for boys, for girls).

15. The factors that make families resort to making their children work on the farm or resort to any type of child labour, as well as frequency/intensity in different regions (give examples, and frequency per village).

16. Evolution of child labour in the past ten years.

17. Type, frequency and origin of farm child labourers (migrants, refugees, wage earners, group of workers), as well as the evolution of child labour in frequency, type, origin of children over the past ten years among the different geographic areas (increasing, decreasing, stable). Why?

18. Typical reasons for exiting farm labour.

19. School attendance of child farm labourers – What role does the shawish play in enabling/disabling school attendance or access of children to educational services?

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