rec'd 11/4/09

BUREAU OF INTERNATIONAL LABOR AFFAIRS
ASSIGNMENT/TRANSMITTAL SLIP

(Control No. 582914) Date: 11-3-09

ACTION RESPONSIBILITY

[✓] (OCFT) Eugenio [ ] Shepard (OIR) [ ] Schoepfle (OTLA)

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Kind of Action Required:

[✓] Prepared Reply for Signature of Appropriate
[ ] Take necessary Action – you decide what should be done
[ ] FYI
[ ] File or Destroy, as you see fit
[ ] Recommend what should be done to _____
[ ] Give your comments, views on this to _____
[ ] Set up meeting on this to include _____

In Taking Action on this:

[✓] Due Date is 11-12-09
[ ] Consult, touch base with _____
[ ] Remarks – special instructions – suggestions

FROM:

11/3/2009

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

Executive Secretariat

CORRESPONDENCE CONTROL RECORD

CORRESPONDENCE ID: 582914

DUE DATE: 11/17/2009

ORIGINATOR: Capurro, Luis Fernando Longono (President)

ADDRESSED TO: Solis

CONSTITUENT: DOL's List of Goods Produced by Child Labor

WH ID NUMBER:

ORGANIZATION: ASOCANA (Colombian Sugar Sector)

DATE OF LETTER: 10/22/2009

SUBJECT: No Child Labor in Production of Sugarcane Used for Sugar & Ethanol in Colombia

ACTION AGENCY: ILAB **DATE ROUTED:** 11/3/2009

SIGNATURE LEVEL: APPROP

REMARKS:

INFO COPIES TO: D/S; NR; ALO; ASP; ESA; SOL; WB

SPECIAL INSTRUCTION:

Response has to go through Exec Sec.
For clearance

O

RETAIN WITH ORIGINAL CORRESPONDENCE
IF THE DUE DATE CANNOT BE MET,
CONTACT YOUR CORRESPONDENCE UNIT

582914

Sector Azucarero Colombiano

asocaña

NIT. 890.303.178-2

October 22, 2009

RECEIVED
2009 NOV -3 AM 9:27
EXEC. SECRETARIAT
OSEC-DOL
DEPT. OF LABOR
WASH. D.C.

Ms
HILDA L. SOLIS
Secretary of Labor
Bureau of International Labor Affairs – ILAB
United States Department of Labor
U. S. A.

Reference: The Department of Labor's List of Goods Produced by Child Labor.

Dear Madam,

ASOCAÑA, in representation of the Colombian Sugar Sector, is very concerned about the inclusion of the sugarcane produced in Colombia in *The Department of Labor's List of Goods Produced by Child Labor.* Historically, the sugar producers have been committed to the fundamentals of corporate social responsibility, and one of the actions taken under this commitment is to promote education among the children of their employees, in order to discourage child labor.

The purpose of this communication is to clarify that there is no child labor in the production of sugarcane used for the production of sugar and ethanol in Colombia.

Cali: Calle 58 Norte No. 3N-15 Autopista a Yumbo PBX: 57 (2) 664 7902 Fax: 57 (2) 664 5888
Bogotá: Edificio Colpatria - Carrera 7 No. 24-89 Oficina 42-03 A.A. 2971 - Tels: 57 (1) 241 0556 / 9 Fax: 57 (1) 241 0554
www.asocana.org

After analyzing the information on which the Bureau of International Labor Affairs (ILAB) bases its findings, we concluded that the report may be referring to sugarcane harvested for other purposes different to the production of sugar or ethanol.

In 2008, there were more than 450,000 hectares cultivated with sugarcane in Colombia; only 205,000 were harvested for the purpose of producing sugar and ethanol [1]. Thus, the information used by the ILAB needs to be contextualized.

The inclusion of sugarcane produced in Colombia in the *List* is based in five documents that 1) do not have probative value: a least two documents do not mention sugarcane; 2) the extent to which the information is corroborated is not enough: only two documents refer to percentages of child work in different products among which is sugarcane; and 3) are not sufficient to point out the sugarcane as a product for which child labor is used in a significant extent: none of the documents give specific data of participation of child labor in sugarcane.

These are our particular comments to each one of the documents used by ILAB:

1) **Raquel Bernal, Mauricio Cárdenas S. Trabajo Infantil en Colombia, Northwestern University and Fedesarrollo. January 10, 2006.**

   First, the June 8, 2007 draft, which is the most recent version of this document, does not mention sugarcane[2]. (See Annex I).

   In addition, the previous draft of this document referred to a general percentage of child labor in cattle and different crops including coffee, cane, cereals, vegetables, fruits, and bananas, without stating a specific percentage of child work in the production of sugarcane.

   Even though the study also refers to percentages of child labor in the different regions of the country, this cannot be taken as evidence of child labor use in sugarcane produced in the Cauca River Valley.

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[1] Ministry of Agriculture's Statistical Yearbook, page 22, September 14, 2009: 174,263 hectares cultivated in 2008 specifically for the production of sugar and 31,401 for the production of ethanol. http://www.minagricultura.gov.co/archivos/estadistica_agropecuarias_14_septiembre_2009.pdf

[2] As stated in the Procedural Guidelines for the Development and Maintenance of the *List*, "more current information will generally be given priority".

2) **El País. "Vigilancia Para el Trabajo Infantil." November 15, 2006.**

This article does not refer to sugarcane. It mainly refers to bricks transportation, and mentions "panela" (chancaca) packing, domestic work, recycling, different modalities of transport, and sexual and commercial exploitation.

Therefore this document cannot be used as evidence against child labor in sugarcane.

3) **ILO-IPEC. El Trabajo Infantil en la Agricultura: el Caso del Sector Café. Particularidades y Recomendaciones de Política. Bogotá, October 2007.**

We have been unable to find this study, even though we have asked for it directly with the ILO Colombian Office. However, as the title suggests it is specifically related to coffee.

4) **ILO. Valoración de los Avances del III Plan Nacional para la Erradicación del Trabajo Infantil y la Protección del Trabajo Juvenil 2003-2006 en Colombia. Lima, 2006.**

In more than 220 pages this document only mentions once sugarcane to say that the participation of sugarcane, fruits and vegetables in child work is 18%. However, there is no specific data for sugarcane, and no information on the use that would be given to this sugarcane is provided.

5) **Recrear Palmira. Levantamiento de la Línea de Base de Niños, Niñas y Adolescentes, Trabajadores en Agricultura, en los Corregimientos de Naranjal y Primavera del Municipio de Bolívar – Valle. Palmira, May 15, 2008.**

This document refers to Bolivar, which is a municipality where sugarcane is mainly harvested for uses different to the production of sugar or ethanol. In 2008, Bolivar had 2.972 planted hectares, of which 636 hectares were planted with sugarcane, however only 241 hectares were cultivated with sugarcane for the production of sugar or ethanol[3].

[3] http://www.valledelcauca.gov.co/agricultura/publicaciones.php?id=1966 (Tipo de cultivo Permanente – 2008)

Therefore, this document does not constitute substantial evidence of child workforce usage for the production of sugarcane bound to the production of sugar or ethanol in Colombia.

Additionally, attached to this communication you will find a document signed by the international auditing company DELOITTE & TOUCHE LTDA, which certifies that in 2008 and 2009 there were no children harvesting sugarcane in the Cauca River Geographic Valley plantations, where all the sugar producers in Colombia are located. (See Annex II).

Furthermore, in 2008, the sugar sector invested more than $ 3.470 million pesos (equivalent to US$ 1'805.400[4]) in public and private schools in the region, and has given scholarships to employees' children for almost $1 thousand million pesos (equivalent to US$ 520,290[5]), benefiting 7,770 alumni under 15 years of age. Sugar producers also promote higher education directed to alumni older than 15 years old and adults. Attached to this communication you can see two articles published in the edition "El Poder del Valle. Una Región en Movimiento" of the national magazine Semana, on September 2009, which provide more information on education promoted by sugar producers (See Annex III).

ASOCAÑA is convinced that the Colombian sugar sector does not use child workforce, however, being absolutely conscious of the relevance of protecting children, we have decided to initiate a campaign with the ILO-IPEC Office in Colombia to promote knowledge of ILO Conventions 138 and 182 among sugarcane suppliers. The sugar producers have already taken the first step in this campaign by sending their suppliers a communication, suggested and drafted by ASOCAÑA, which we attach for your information (see Annex IV). This campaign will also include posters, brochures, and audiovisual communications that will help prevent child work in the future.

Finally, the Trafficking Victims Protection Reauthorization Act directed the Secretary of Labor, through the ILAB, to carry out several activities among which is to ensure that products made by child labor in violation of international standards are not imported into the United States.

ASOCAÑA considers that the inclusion of the sugarcane produced in Colombia represents a penalty not deserved by the sugar producers of our

[4] US$1 = Pesos $1,922. Banco de la República exchange rate as of September 30, 2009.
[5] Idem

country, and therefore we request that this product is withdrawn from the List.

If the ILAB considers that the withdrawal is not feasible, we request, just as the ILAB intends[6], that the good be identified as specifically as possible, expressly stating that sugarcane produced in Colombia, bound to the production of sugar and ethanol, does not use child workforce.

We appreciate the attention you give to this communication.

Sincerely,

LUIS FERNANDO LONDOÑO CAPURRO
President

[6] Federal Register Notice, December 27, 2007, page 41: "The Office intends to identify all goods on the List as specifically as possible depending on the available information".

ANNEX I

Child Labor in Colombia[1]

Raquel Bernal
Northwestern University
and Universidad de los Andes
Evanston, IL., U.S.A.

Mauricio Cárdenas S.
Fedesarrollo
Bogotá, Colombia

First draft: October 14th 2005
This draft: June 8th 2007

This paper studies the magnitude and nature of child labor in Colombia. In particular, we evaluate the factors that determine joint child labor and school attendance decisions within the household. In addition, we study the characteristics of children, parents and households that are associated with certain types of child labor, e.g., work with relatives vs. work with non-relatives and work in certain economic sectors. We use various sources of data including the Child Labor Survey (2001), Child Labor Module Follow-up included in the National Household Survey (2003) and the *Familias en Accion* database (2002-2003). Total child labor participation, which includes all working children from 5 to 17 years of age, was approximately 14.5% in 2001. Approximately two thirds of this group also attended school. Child labor participation rates in rural areas were twice as big as those in urban areas. Around two thirds of working children worked for their parents or other relatives. The majority of children work in the agriculture sector (approximately 38%) followed by retail, manufacturing and services.

We estimate a model in which child labor and school attendance are simultaneous decisions. The results of this estimation indicate that in fact these two choices are highly correlated. Higher educational attainment of the head of the household, older head of household and higher adult employment rates within the household are positively and significantly associated with higher probabilities of child labor. In addition, the probability that a child works increases for those in the lowest income quintile, for children living in larger households and living with extended family. The most vulnerable children (e.g., ethnic minorities, with low-educated parents, living in very poor households, etc.) are more likely to work in agriculture, whereas less disadvantaged children (e.g., highly educated parents, higher adult employment rates within the household, male head of household, etc.) are more likely to work in retail and in particular, in family-owned businesses. In sum, we find evidence of two different types of child laborers: child employment with relatives in family-owned businesses predominant among less disadvantaged children, which *complements* adult labor and is usually accompanied with school attendance; and child employment with non-relatives which is not usually accompanied with school attendance, is associated with poorer households and tends to *substitute* adult labor. Finally, we find robust evidence that a conditional cash transfer program, *Familias en Accion,* has had significant effects on child labor, especially in the case of boys.

[1] Lucas Higuera provided excellent research assistance. Funding from TSG and U.S. AID is gratefully acknowledged. Corresponding author: rbernal@uniandes.edu.co.

child labor is lowest in developed economies. The estimates indicate that about two per cent of all children below 15 years of age are economically active. In panel (b) of Table 1 we show participation rates of children by age and region. Clearly Sub-Saharan Africa and Asia and the Pacific have the highest rates across ages. Latin America & the Caribbean exhibit rates very similar to the Middle East and North Africa and significantly higher than those in developed countries.

In addition to involving a sacrifice of child's human capital accumulation, child labor is particularly problematic due to the fact that working children can be the objects of extreme exploitation, e.g., toiling for long hours for minimal pay. Their work conditions might be especially severe, often not providing the stimulation for proper physical and mental development. Some forms of child labor amount to direct abuse. In the first panel of Table 2 we present the estimated number of children by region in unconditional worst forms of child labor. In Latin America & the Caribbean a significant number of children work in prostitution or pornography (750 thousand out of a total of 1,800 thousand) and illicit activities (260 thousand out of 600 thousand).

Finally, in the last panel of Table 2 we compare the extent of child labor in Colombia with other Latin American countries. By 2001, approximately 1.3% of children between the ages of 10 and 14 were economically active (only) and 12.2% were economically active and also attended school. While these numbers as not as high as in other countries of the region (for example, in Argentina 20.8% of children between 10 and 14 are economically active or are economically active and attend school, in Bolivia 25.9% and in Ecuador 39.1%) they are clearly higher than in some other countries like Costa Rica, Honduras, Panama and Venezuela.

This paper studies the magnitude and nature of child labor in Colombia. In particular, we evaluate the factors that determine joint child labor and school attendance decisions within the household. In addition, we study the characteristics of children, parents and households that are associated with certain types of child labor, e.g., work with relative vs. work with non-relatives and work in certain economic sectors; and use these results to provide some policy recommendations. We use various sources of data including the Child Labor Survey (2001), Child Labor Follow-up Chapter included in the National Household Survey (2003), the Living Standards Survey (2003) and the *Familias en Accion* database (2002-2003).

Our estimation results indicate that higher educational attainment of the head of the household, older head of household and higher adult employment rates within the household are positively and significantly associated with higher probabilities of child labor. In addition, the probability that a child works increases for those in the lowest income quintile, for children living in larger households and living with extended family. The most vulnerable children (e.g., ethnic minorities, with low-educated parents, living in very poor households, etc.) are more likely to work in agriculture, whereas less disadvantaged children (e.g., highly educated parents, higher adult employment rates within the household, male head of household, etc.) are more likely to work in retail and in particular, in family-owned businesses.

circumstances of the activity. Ultimately, the impact of child labor on the well-being of the child depends on the counterfactual of what the child would be doing in the absence of work. For example, child labor can be harmful to the extent that it involves a sacrifice of child's human capital accumulation which, in turn, would be associated with lower wages and worse labor market outcomes.

Hence, it is important to understand that we are not assuming that all child labor is by definition harmful to children. Rather, in defining child labor we evaluate several aspects of work done by children and try to understand the effects of that work on the child's other time uses and the child's well-being.

3. The Nature and Magnitude of Child Labor in Colombia

In Appendix 1 we show a table that summarizes our sources of data. First, we use the 2001 Child Labor Survey (CLS 2001) which is a nationwide survey that contains data about child labor, economic activity, wages, characteristics of the workplace, hours worked, educational attainment, health variables as well as a host of household/child demographic characteristics. Second, the 2003 child labor follow-up chapter included in the National Continued Household Survey (CHS 2003) which is nationwide and contains the same set of variables available in the 2001 CLS although the definition of "employed" was changed from one survey instrument to the other which creates some issues of comparability.[4]

Lastly, we use the evaluation of the *Familias en Accion (FA)* program which is a conditional transfers program implemented mostly in rural areas in 2002. In particular, we can use the baseline and follow-up surveys designed to assess the impact of the *FA* program, both of which contain information about child labor, educational attainment, health, consumption, anthropometric measures and a wide range of household and individual characteristics. We will discuss the program and the dataset in more detail in Section 7 where we use it to assess the effect of such a cash transfer on child labor.[5]

In this section, we present a description of the nature of child labor in Colombia, based on both, the CLS 2001 and the CHS 2003. In the first panel of Table 3 we show employment rates by age and region[6]. In 2001, 14.5% of children between the ages of 5 and 17 worked. In particular, 11% of children in urban areas, and 22.5% in rural areas participated in the labor market. The age patterns indicate that around 5% of the youngest children (between 5 and 9 years), 12% of children 10 to 11

[4] In particular, the CLS (2001) included "other unpaid workers" which were not included in the definition of employed in the CHS (2003) follow-up chapter.

[5] The National Household Survey, the Continued Household Survey and the Living Standard Survey (2003) also contain data about child labor. Some of the analyses presented in this paper are also in available with these datasets upon request. The results remain largely unchanged regardless of the source of data.

[6] The definition of employment includes individuals who worked with or without payment in some productive activity for at least one hour per week. In particular, it includes children who worked as domestic workers for a household different than their own and excludes children who devoted time to household work in their own household.

reported to be an "unpaid familiar worker" (43% vs. 37%), while the opposite happened in the case of paid workers (40% of boys compared to 21% of girls). A significantly higher number of girls reported to be domestic workers than boys (12% vs. 0.5%). Children who reported to be paid workers work mainly in agriculture and retail, with 35% participation in each case (see panel (b) of the same Table). Only 15% of paid workers worked in manufacturing. From the ones who reported to be household workers, 98% were employed in the services sector. The majority of the unpaid family workers and the unpaid assistants worked in the agriculture sector (43% and 48% respectively). Around 35% of unpaid family workers and unpaid assistants worked in retail. Finally, most part of children who reported to be self-employed worked in retail or services (40% and 24% respectively).

In Table 8 we show data about hours worked by age (panel a) and by gender (panel b). These data indicate that children younger than 11 worked for a lower number of hours per week than older children. For example, 55% of working children between the ages of 5 and 9 worked on average nine hours or less per week. Similarly, 67% of working children from 10 to 11 years of age worked 14 hours or less on average per week. However, 53% of working children between the ages of 12 and 14 worked more than 15 hours per week, and around 13% worked more than 56 hours per week. Similarly, 70% of working children from 15 to 17 years of age worked more than 15 hours per week, and 17% for more than 56 hours. The data reported in panel (b) reveal that girls worked on average fewer hours than boys. In particular, 54% of working girls worked on average less than 15 hours per week while only 43% of boys did.

In Table 9 we show data about average monthly wages of working children by occupation (panel a). Around 52% of working children in 2001 were not remunerated in exchange for their work. Approximately 26% received monthly wages lower than $71,500 colombian pesos[7] (a quarter of the minimum wage in 2001). Eight percent of working children earned wages between $71,500 and $143,000 pesos (a quarter to a half minimum wage). Additionally, 8% reported monthly earnings between half and one minimum wage on average. Finally, only around 1.3% of working children reported wages higher than a minimum wage.

Half of working children who reported to be paid workers received a monthly wage equivalent to less than a quarter of the minimum wage, while only 3% earned more than a minimum wage in exchange for their work. A great majority of children who reported to be self-employed reported monthly earnings below a quarter of the minimum wage (67%).

In panel (b) of the same table we report data about child labor by type of employer and geographic area. As can be observed, almost 50% of working children reported to work for their parents. This fraction was significantly higher in rural areas than urban areas (59% vs. 42%). An additional 16.3% reported to be employed by other relatives. Finally, around 10% of working children reported to be self-employed.

[7] Approximately US$32.

of 3-4 and 5-6 members respectively. Only 2.7% of working children belonged to families of less than three members, and 14% to families with seven or eight members. According to the data reported in panel (b), most of young workers lived in households whose head was male (75% vs. 24%). On the other hand, 70% of working children whose household was headed by a female also attended to school while this fraction is only 60% in the case of male headed households.

In Table 12 we show some of the self-reported reasons for child labor. The usual caveat applies: self-reported measures are often prone to measurement error and endogeneity due to the fact that some individuals are more likely to report better outcomes than others and the reasons why this is the case are strongly correlated with other characteristics of individuals such as education, income, etc.. The leading reasons for child labor in 2001 are: the child wants to save her own money (26% in rural areas and 39% in urban areas), need to help in the family business (23%) and at a distant third, the child needs to contribute to household income (only about 18%).

Child labor can be considered as part of the childrearing process in the sense that it might help build the child's character. Nevertheless, only 8% of working children reported working for this reason. This fraction increases to 12% when household work in the child's own home was included as child labor (see panel b). A small proportion of individuals, approximately 5%, reported to work in order to be able to pay for school.

4. A Model of Child Labor and Schooling

We now turn to the estimation of a model of joint child labor and schooling choices. This framework is set up in order to understand the factors that influence the probability of child's school attendance and working behavior in a reduced form model, focusing on a mixture of demand and supply side variables. The particular choice of the estimation method has been influenced by the decision making process, and the available data. In particular, we do not want to assume that schooling and work decisions of children are independent, which could be treated in a multinomial logit model[10]. We also do not want to assume any sequential process of decision making as we believe this is not necessarily a sequential choice[11]. Hence we treat schooling and working alternatives as two interdependent choices.

In particular, we estimate child labor and school attendance reduced form decision rules jointly. We do this by estimating a bivariate probit model to test the likelihood of children working and

[10] The logit assumes independence of irrelevant alternatives (IIA) which is often an implausible assumption. The IIA implies that the ratio between two choice probabilities is independent of the remaining alternatives included in the choice set. For example, IIA would imply that the ratio between the probability of choosing to work and the probability of choosing not to work is independent of whether the alternative of going to school is available. Clearly, this does not seem like a reasonable assumption.

[11] For example, Patrinos and Grootaert (2002) estimate a sequential probit model in which parents first decide whether to send the child to school or not, then conditional on not having chosen school parents decide whether the child should work in the labor market or not, finally and conditional on not having chosen labor market, parents decide whether to have the child work in a family business or not work at all. The results from the sequential analysis are quite sensitive to the ordering of the alternatives, which seems problematic.

Individuals face a total of 2·2=4 feasible alternatives. Let j be an alternative $\in J$={(school only), (school and work), (work only), (neither attend school nor work)}. Let $d_j = 1$ if alternative j is chosen, 0 otherwise.

The probability of choosing, for example, alternative j=1 (school only) is thus given by:

$$\begin{aligned} Pr(d_j = 1) &= Pr(V_s > 0, V_w < 0) \\ &= Pr(\varepsilon_s > -\beta_s' X, \varepsilon_w < -\beta_w' X) \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

We can obtain an analogous probability expression for each of the remaining three alternatives in the individual's choice set J. Given that $\{\varepsilon_s, \varepsilon_w\}$ are jointly distributed, the probability expression in equation (3) cannot be expressed as the product of the probability of two individual events, namely, the probability of attending school and the probability of not working. Rather, that probability will be given by the region of $\{\varepsilon_s, \varepsilon_w\}$ for which both events coincide:

$$\Pr(d_j = 1) = \int_{-\beta_s X}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{-\beta_w X} f(\varepsilon_s, \varepsilon_w) d\varepsilon_w d\varepsilon_s \tag{4}$$

where $f(\varepsilon_s, \varepsilon_w)$ is the bivariate normal density function with parameters given by equation (2). In other words, each probability expression (that makes part of the likelihood function to be maximized) is a double-order integral. Given that equation (4) does not have an analytical solution, this model has to be estimated by using simulated maximum likelihood. In particular, we use the well-known GHK simulator to estimate the probability expressions[15].

In terms of the relevant elements of the vector X, there is extensive literature that guides the choice of these variables. For example:

a) Characteristics of the child: Age, gender and ethnic group (whenever possible).

b) Characteristics of parents: Education, age, gender, employment and nature of parents' employment.

c) Household characteristics: Size, composition (age and gender of siblings present in the household), age of the head of household (to capture a life-cycle effect), whether the head of the household is male or female. In addition, we include the participation rate of the adults in the household and the nature of adults' employment (for example, whether it is self-employment or not). Note that income should not be included given the fact that it is clearly endogenous. For example, low ability parents will most likely have low income and unstable labor market histories. They are also more likely to have low ability children with unsteady performance in school, even if there is not a direct causal relationship between income and the child's schooling

[15] Note that if we have more than two alternatives then the probability expression in equation (4) would be given be a J-order integral, where J is the number of choices.

effect associated with each control variable for **each** combination of events (event s= school attendance, event w= work, i.e., a total of 4 possible combinations of events). This is the result of the assumption according to which the decisions of school attendance and child labor are interdependent. For example, the first number in the first row corresponding to the control variable "headeduc" is interpreted as the marginal effect of a one-year change in the educational attainment of the head of the household on the probability that a child neither works nor attends school (the title of the first column in Table 14), the second number of the same row is the marginal effect on the probability that a child works and does not attend school (the title of the second column of Table 14), etc.

The child's age is significant in all the cases. Since we included both, age and age squared, as explanatory variables, it turns out to be useful to graph the total marginal effect as a function of the child's age. In Figure 1 we show this result. The probability that a child works and attends school at the same time, P(w=1, s=1), always increases with her age in the range of 5 to 17 years. The effect of the child's age on the probability that the child works and does not attend school, P(w=1, s=0), is negative and decreasing up until the age of 14 and turns positive from this point on[19]. In other words, the probability that a child works and does not attend school is always increasing with age starting at 14, and the probability that younger children work and do not attend school is lower than the probability that they work and attend school at the same time.

The results also indicate that the child's gender is significantly associated with the probability of school attendance and the probability of child labor. In particular, boys are more likely to work than girls (whether they attend school or not) and girls are significantly more likely to attend school and not work[20]. This implies that there is no evidence in favor of gender discrimination in schooling against girls, which has been found to be the case in other developing countries[21].

Schooling attainment of the head of the household is statistically significant and exhibits the expected signs: a higher schooling attainment of the head of the household implies a lower probability that a child works (regardless of whether she attends school or not), a higher probability that the child attends school and does not work, and a lower probability that a child neither works not attends school[22]. The gender of the head of the household does not turn out to be significant[23]. In

[19] It is interesting to note that this inflexion point precisely coincides with the 13 to 14 years of age threshold identified as the critical point when the drop out rate significantly increases as children transition from elementary to secondary school.

[20] For example, the probability that a child works and attends school is one percent higher for boys than for girls and the probability of attending school and not working is 4.4 percentage points lower for boys than for girls.

[21] See, for example, Canagarajah and Coulombe (1997).

[22] In Appendix 2 we present a similar exercise using LSS 2003 data but we replace the schooling level of the head of the household with the average schooling attainment of the child's parents (this information is only available for this survey). Results are robust to this change, although the magnitudes of the marginal effects of education on child labor and school attendance are slightly larger in this case. For example, while the probability that a child works and does not attend school falls 0.23 percentage points if the educational attainment of the head of the household increases one year, this effect is equivalent to 0.3 percentage points in the case of the education of the child's parent.

household is significantly associated with a higher probability that a child works and attends school and less so with the probability that she only works[28].

In sum, the evidence implies that despite the fact that the presence of a family business in the household (or the proportion of self-employed adults in the household) increases the likelihood of child labor, this increase is associated almost exclusively with changes in the probability of child work and school attendance. In other words, child labor with the family is associated with lower non-attendance than child labor outside of the household in non-family businesses.

In Table 15 we provide additional evidence in favor of the hypothesis that it is more likely that children working with the family also attend school than children working outside of the household. In particular, 75% of children who work with relatives also attend school and only 25% work but do not attend school. In the case of working children who work for non-relatives, only 46% also attend school while the remaining 54% do not. This result is important, since it implies that even though child labor with the family is quantitatively very significant (around 66% of total working children), these children are at less risk in the sense that is more likely that they also attend school while working than children who work for non-relatives.

In the literature, there seems to be consensus about poverty being the main determinant of child labor[29]. To investigate this hypothesis, we included a dummy variable equal to one if the household belongs to the lowest income quintile, and zero otherwise. The results indicate that this variable has a significant positive impact on the probability that a child works even after controlling for other household characteristics, such as the age and education of the head of the household and the occupation rate of adults, which are important determinants of household income. This suggests that there are *additional* constraints that affect the poorest households, besides those associated with lower levels of human capital, which increase the likelihood that a child works.

For instance, poorest families have less access to credit markets, are less likely to be able to insure against short-run income fluctuations, and in general, can be more dependent upon child labor for survival. In Table 16 we present evidence in support of this hypothesis. In particular, the Table shows the contribution of working children to total household income. As can be observed, the contribution of working children who belong to households in the lowest income quintile is significantly higher than the average contribution. For example, while children 10 to 14 years of age contribute on average 9.7% of total income, this ratio is around 25% in the case of working children

[28] In Appendix 4 we report the results of a similar exercise in which we replaced the fraction of self-employed adults in the household with a variable labeled "head_buss", which is equal to 1 if the head of the household reported an income different from zero to a question inquiring about net monthly earnings in an activity or business different than a remunerated job, 0 otherwise. This variable is meant to capture the presence of a family business in the household. The results seem consistent, i.e., the probability that a child works (regardless of whether she attends school or not) increases with the presence of a family business in the household. However, this effect is significantly higher on the probability that a child works and attends school than on the probability that she works only.

[29] See, for example, Grootaert and Kanbur (1995).

differences emerge: (1) the probability of child labor and non-attendance significantly increases if the head of the household is male in rural areas, while the gender of the head of the household does not significantly predict the probability of child labor in urban areas; (2) the age of the head of the household only significantly predicts the probability of child labor in urban areas, but not in rural areas; (3) the presence of extended family significantly explains the probability of child labor in urban areas only; (4) the number of boys as a fraction of the total number of children in the household significantly predicts the probability of child labor and school attendance in rural areas; and (5) school attendance and child labor are "rival" activities and compete in a stronger way for the time of the child in rural areas than in urban areas (since the estimated value of ρ is -0.38 in urban areas and -0.43 in rural areas).

5. A Model of Sector Choice

In order to investigate further the main features of child labor, we now turn to the estimation of a choice model of economic sector for children who report being employed[33]. In particular, we are interested in studying the characteristics of children and their households that are associated with the probability that working children choose particular sectors of the economy.

5.2 The Econometric Model

Just as in the model presented in the previous section, here we define V_κ as the latent variable that measures the utility derived from choosing sector κ. In particular, κ=agriculture, manufacturing, retail, services and other. We define $d_\kappa = 1$ if the individual chooses to work in sector κ, 0 otherwise.

The utility derived from working in each sector will be given by:

$$V_\kappa = \beta_\kappa' X + \xi_\kappa, \quad \kappa = \text{sector}$$

The probability of choosing to work in sector j, will thus be given by:

$$\Pr(d_j = 1) = \Pr(V_j > V_k, \forall k \neq j) \qquad (5)$$

In other words, the probability of choosing to work in sector j is given by the probability that the utility derived from working in sector j is higher than the utility derived from participating in any other sector $k \neq j$.

The specific form of the probability expression in equation (5) will depend on the distributional assumptions we make about $\{\xi_1, \xi_2, ..., \xi_\kappa\}$. For example, if we assume a normal distribution in

[33] The usual self-selection problem is evident in this estimation. In other words, participating children are expected to be systematically different than non-participating children in observed and unobserved ways. Hence, several, if not all, coefficients might be biased. However, we will focus on the sign and statistical significance rather than the magnitude of the specific coefficients and this should provide a reasonable guideline for policy recommendations.

probability that a working child works in services in rural areas decreases with the number of parents that reside in the household. Finally, it is more likely that working children who reside in large households work in agriculture than in any of other sector in rural areas, while in urban areas working children who belong to large households tend to work more in services and less in retail.

In sum, we can say that the most vulnerable children (e.g., ethnic minorities[35], children of low educated parents, the ones who reside in large households or households in the lowest income quintile) tend to work in agriculture more than in any other sector. In a way, employment in agriculture could be associated with worse working conditions in general (with respect to the other sectors), higher probability of exploitation given the characteristics of these jobs[36], and probably lower levels of human capital accumulation in the form of "on-the-job-training". This implies that not only is it more likely that the population of more vulnerable children work, but also that they do in economic sectors with potentially more adverse effects on their human capital.

6. Child Labor in Family Businesses

As we discussed in Section 3, approximately 50% of children who report being employed, work for their parents. Some other stylized facts presented in that section highlighted the importance of child labor in family businesses. To better understand the nature of child labor, we now turn to analyze what characteristics of children and households are associated with child labor in family businesses compared to child labor with non-relatives out of the household.

In Table 19 we show the distribution of employment with family and employment with non-relatives by characteristics of children and households. For example, 50% of working children in urban areas work with their families and 50% are employed by non-relatives. Similarly, 68% of working children in rural areas work for parents and other relatives and 32% for non-relatives. These numbers indicate that work with family is more frequent in rural areas than in urban areas.

It can be observed that a greater proportion of working girls work for their families than boys (56% vs. 52%). Similarly, it is more likely that a child younger than 12 works for her family than if she is older than 12 (72% vs. 47%). A slightly lower fraction of working children from the poorest households work for their family than in the case of working children from richer households. Similarly, a larger share of working children from households whose head has at least secondary education are family workers, compared to the share in households with less educated heads (56% vs. 52%).

The proportion of family workers is greater in the case of children whose head of household is male than in the case of female-headed households (57% vs. 43%). This is also true for working children in households with both parents present compared to one-parent households (58% vs.

[35] According to the LSS 2003, working children who belong to ethnic minorities are more likely to work in agriculture and less likely to work in services and retail in rural areas.

[36] For example, working in the countryside under ruthless weather conditions, long walking distances, harvesting could hurt the child's hands, etc.

7. Evaluation of the Effect of "*Familias en Acción*" on Child Labor

Familias en Acción (FA) is a social welfare program aimed at improving different components of human capital including health, nutrition, and education. The program was initially targeted to the poorest; in particular, households in the lowest income quintile in rural areas in selected areas in the country. The implementation of the program began in 2001. By 2003, it was fully operating. The database used to carry out the evaluation contains information of approximately 11,500 households living in 122 municipalities. All communities are sufficiently poor to be eligible for the *FA* program; however it was implemented only in 57 municipalities out of the 122. The database is longitudinal and consists of two waves. The first wave was collected during 2002, and the second in 2003.

For the purpose of the evaluation of the program, we call the 57 communities where the subsidy was implemented the "treatment" group. Given that the program was not randomly assigned, several municipalities which did not receive the subsidy were selected as a "control" group, and are comparable to the "treatment" areas in a number of pre-program dimensions.[39]

The component of the program in which we focus in this section is a monthly conditional cash transfer offered in "treatment" communities to mothers who satisfy the eligibility criteria. The cash transfer is conditional on child (children) school attendance during the period[40]. The eligibility criteria included having a welfare indicator lower than a predefined threshold, having at least one child between the ages of 7 and 17, and living in any of the "treatment" areas. The effect of the cash transfer on school attendance and child labor is estimated by comparing school choices and occupation rates between children in "treatment" areas and children in "control" areas.

The conditional cash transfer reduces the price of education facing individuals, and therefore, it is expected to have a positive effect on school attendance of beneficiary children, as long as education is a normal good. In addition, we also expect a positive effect on children occupation rates as it reduces the tension associated with the fact that there is a significant time separation between the immediate benefits of child labor and the long-delayed costs of sending children to work. In other words, parents might prefer the immediate benefits associated with child labor, i.e., immediate increase in household earnings, over the long term benefits associated with sending children to school, i.e., higher earnings capacity during adulthood associated with higher human capital accumulation. If children could compensate their parents, for example, by means of a contract that could guarantee an income transfer by the time the child could repay their

[39] In particular, communities were stratified according to the geographic area and an index of health and education infrastructure. For each stratum, communities with the program and communities without the program were selected. This selection was done in such a way that communities would be comparable in terms of their size (population) and a quality of life index.

[40] In 2002, the cash transfer was COP$14,000 (US$5.8) for children in elementary school and COP$28,000 for children in secondary school. These amounts correspond to approximately 3% and 6% of total household consumption respectively.

This Δ estimator is known as the differences-in-differences estimator. This estimator is likely to be biased if individuals in treatment areas change occupation rates *in anticipation* of the program. This would imply that $E(Y_{0,A} \mid T = 1, X)$ would be a biased estimator of the occupation rates in treatment areas in the absence of the program. This could be particularly relevant in the case of *FA* given the specific way in which the program was implemented. In particular, in 2002, when baseline data were collected, approximately half of the treatment group had already received the subsidy. This group of communities has been called TCP ("treatment with payment"). This fact could have accelerated the effects of anticipation in the other half of the treatment group (TSP – "treatment without payment"). In other words, in anticipation of the program, households adjusted their school attendance and child labor choices.

Attanasio et al (2005) showed that the anticipation effects on school enrolment rates in TSP areas were significant[41]. These authors used an alternative estimator of Δ which makes use of retrospective enrolment rates collected during baseline in treatment areas (TCP & TSP) and control areas, i.e., enrolment rates prior to baseline (called pre-baseline data) in 2002.

The treatment effects on enrolment rates estimated by Attanasio et al (2005) are reported in Appendix 6a and 6b. Their results indicate that the cash transfer had a significant effect on enrolment rates. The biggest impact was for older children (from 14 to 17 years of age), in particular, the transfer was associated with an increase of approximately 53% in enrolment rates both, in urban and rural areas. The effect for children between the ages of 8 and 13 was approximately 3%[42]. In Appendix 6b, we report their results by gender. The program had a positive effect on enrolment rates at all ages both in urban and rural areas. The effect of the cash transfer on girls' enrolment rates was only significant for older girls (14 to 17 years old) in urban areas, and girls between the ages of 8 and 13 in rural areas.

Unfortunately, there is no retrospective data about occupation rates of children in the dataset. In other words, we do not have pre-baseline data that could help us attenuate the anticipation effects of the program on child labor. However, given that the cash transfer was conditioned on school attendance and not explicitly on employment status, we would not expect important anticipation effects in this case. In Figure 2 we show a comparison of employment rates of children by area (urban/rural) between TSP areas and control areas. As can be observed, there is basically no difference between the two in rural areas. In urban areas, there seems to be a difference between employment rates of children 15 to 16 years of age. However, this difference goes in the opposite direction of what would worry us. In other words, if anticipation effects existed in TSP areas, employment rates should have been lower than in control areas, but we observe the opposite.

[41] In other words, while the differences between enrolment rates in TSP areas and control areas *before* 2002 were practically null, once the program was implemented in TCP areas in 2002, such differences were substantial around 3 percent.

[42] This result is not surprising given that enrolment rates of children 8 to 13 were already significantly higher than those of children between the ages of 14 to 17 even before the program was implemented.

8. Conclusions

This paper analyzes the issue of child labor in Colombia, with a particular emphasis on the understanding of the determinants of joint school attendance and child labor decisions of households with children. This study uses extensively various sources of data about child labor, school attendance and socioeconomic characteristics of the households.

According to the 2001 CLS, approximately 14.5% of children between 5 and 17 years of age worked in 2001. The problem is particularly relevant in rural areas, where 22.5% of children participated in some kind of work activity during the same year. In general, the incidence of child labor is twice as big for boys than for girls. Similarly, child labor is more prevalent among older children than among younger ones, both, in terms of participation rates and hours worked. Given the magnitude of child work in rural areas, it is no surprising that more than 36% of working children worked in agriculture. Near one third of working children were employed in the retail sector, whereas 12% worked in the manufacturing sector. A similar fraction of children worked in the services sector. Approximately half of working children were unpaid, and, from the group who received payment in exchange for the work, basically all of them earned less than a minimum wage.

The type of employer of working children is one of the most relevant dimensions of our analysis of child labor. Most of child labor takes place in family businesses where children work for their parents or other relatives. Only about a quarter of working children work for non-relatives, while 10% report to be self-employed. In rural areas, working children are primarily employed by their own families.

From the point of view of the design of policies aimed at alleviating the issue of child labor, it is extremely important to distinguish between working children who also attend school (64% of total working children) and working children who do not attend school (36%). Although in both cases human capital accumulation is affected, and therefore, future earnings of the child might be sacrificed, there is no doubt that this problem is particularly severe for the second group of working children. For that reason, in this paper we have emphasized on the characteristics of children and their households that jointly affect the probability of child labor and school nonattendance.

The results of the econometric analysis about the determinants of the joint probability of child labor and school attendance choices provide some important conclusions for policy design. After controlling for a wide range of observed characteristics of children and their households, we can say that child labor decisions are not independent from school attendance choices. Our results also indicate that it is more likely that boys work (regardless of whether they attend school or not), and it is more likely that girls attend school and do not work. On the other hand, the higher the education and age of the head of the household, the lower the probability that a child works and does not attend school.

presence of a family business makes an enormous difference when it comes to assessing the effects of child labor.

Also interesting is the fact that the probability that a working child works with the family (with respect to working for unrelated individuals) increases with the education and age of the head of the household and also increases in the head of the household is male, particularly in urban areas. This is also true for smaller households and households with both parents. All of this suggests that working children in family businesses do not belong to the poorest households and, therefore, are not necessarily the priority group from the point of view of the design of public policy. The problem is particularly critical among the poorest households in which child labor happens mostly out of the household, and thus it is more likely to happen along with school nonattendance.

This paper also evaluates the effects of a conditional cash transfer program called *Familias en Acción* on child labor. The results indicate that, in addition to positive effects of the program on school attendance and nutritional outcomes of children, *Familias en Acción* has been an effective strategy for the reduction of child labor, particularly in the case of boys. For children between the ages of 10 and 13, employment rates fell from 12% before the subsidy to 10.3% after the subsidy. In the case of children from 14 to 17 years of age, the employment rate decreased from 45% before the subsidy to 40% after the subsidy. The results also indicate that the benefits have been larger in rural areas especially for children between the ages of 10 and 13, and in urban areas for children 14 to 17 years of age.

The results presented in this paper, suggest two possible avenues for the design of public policy aimed at alleviating the issue of child labor in Colombia. First, a set of policies designed to modify the incentives of households to send children to the labor market. These policies should affect both, long term and short-term incentives of households. Second, a set of administrative policies designed to legally enforce child labor laws such as inspection, monitoring and sanctions aimed at certain priority groups. A typical example of the latter is the legal prohibition of the so called "worst types of child labor".

The results presented in this paper indicate that among the group of policies aimed at modifying long-term incentives of households, special emphasis should be placed in the following issues: improving human capital of the population as child labor is significantly likely to decline with the education of children's parents; reducing household size and teenage pregnancy, as both have been shown to have significant effects on the likelihood of child labor; and alleviating structural poverty.

In terms of policies aimed at affecting outcomes in the short term, it is crucial to attenuate the agency problem associated with the fact that those who receive the benefits of child labor, i.e. adult members of the household, are not those who incur the costs, i.e. the children themselves. In addition, this issue is accentuated by the fact that benefits are immediate (increase in current household income) while costs are long delayed (future higher earnings during adulthood).

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Table 1

a. Economically active children (between 5 and 15 years of age) and employment rates in 2000

	Number of children (millions)	%
Developed Economies	2.5	2.0%
Transition Economies	2.4	4.0%
Asian-Pacific	127.3	19.3%
Latin America and the Caribbean	17.4	16.0%
Sub-Saharan Africa	48	29.0%
Middle East and North Africa	13.4	15.0%
Total	*211*	*18.0%*

Source: IPEC Action Againt Child Labor 2002-2003, ILO.

b. Employment rates by age and region in 2000 (% of total children in each age range)

	5-9	10-14	15-17
Asian-Pacific	12.3	26.5	48.4
Latin America and the Caribbean	10.6	21.5	35.0
Sub-Saharan Africa	23.6	34.7	44.8
Middle East and North Africa	10.8	19.6	31.8
Developed Economies	1.4	2.8	31.3
Total	12.2	23.0	42.4

Source: "Every Child Counts: New Global Estimates on Child Labor", April 2002, ILO.

Table 3

a. Employment Rate by Age and Area (%)

(% of total age x area cell)

Age	Total	Urban	Rural
Total 5-17	14,5	11,0	22,5
5-9	5,1	3,4	8,6
10-11	12,1	9,0	19,0
12-14	19,0	14,8	29,1
15-17	29,9	22,6	49,1

Source: CLS 2001

b. Employment Rate by Age and Gender (%)

(% of total age x gender cell)

Age	Total	Boys	Girls
Total 5-17	14,5	19,7	8,9
5-9	5,1	6,8	3,3
10-11	12,1	16,5	7,4
12-14	19,0	25,9	12,1
15-17	29,9	40,2	18,2

Source: CLS 2001

Table 5

a. Employment Rate by Age and Sector
(% of employed by age)

Age	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Retail	Services	Other	Total
Total	36,4	12,5	32,7	11,7	6,7	100
5-9	40,4	18,5	30,7	7,9	2,5	100
10-11	30,6	10,5	42,1	7,5	9,2	100
12-14	35,5	10,7	34,8	14,7	4,3	100
15-17	37,6	12,3	29,0	12,1	9,1	100

Source: CLS 2001

b. Employment Rate by Gender and Sector
(% of employed by gender)

Gender	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Retail	Services	Other	Total
Total	36,4	12,5	32,7	11,7	6,7	100
Boys	45,1	11,3	29,6	6,1	7,9	100
Girls	16,4	15,2	39,8	24,6	4,1	100

Source: CLS 2001

Table 7

a. Employment Rate by Gender and Occupation
(% of employed by gender)

Gender	Paid worker	Household worker	Unpaid family worker	Unpaid worker	Self-employed	Total
Total	34,8	4,1	39,3	11,8	10,0	100
Boys	40,8	0,5	37,3	11,7	9,8	100
Girls	21,1	12,4	43,8	12,1	10,7	100

Source: CLS 2001

b. Employment Rate by Sector and Occupation
(% of employed by occupation)

Sector	Paid worker	Household worker	Unpaid family worker	Unpaid worker	Self-employed	Total
Agriculture	35,9	-	43,4	47,7	12,7	36,4
Industry	15,3	0,1	11,7	10,2	13,5	12,5
Commerce	34,2	0,4	33,7	29,1	40,6	32,7
Services	7,1	98,2	4,6	8,0	24,4	11,7
Other	7,6	1,4	6,5	5,0	8,8	6,7
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: CLS 2001

Table 9

a. Employment by Average Earnings and Occupation
(% of workers by occupational category)

Wage (pesos)	Total	Paid workers	Self-employed	Unpaid workers
Unpaid	51,5	0,0	4,1	100,0
Up to 1/4 MW	26,1	50,9	63,3	
>1/4 MW and <$1/2 MW	8,3	17,8	13,4	
>1/2 MW y <1 MW	7,8	18,6	5,8	
>1 MW	1,3	2,9	1,6	
N.A.	5,0	9,8	11,8	
Total	100	100	100	100

Source: CLS 2001

b. Employment by type of Employer and Geographic Area
(% of employed by area)

Employed	Total	Urban	Rural
Parents	49,9	41,8	59,0
Other relatives	16,3	17,1	15,5
Non-relatives	23,7	27,3	19,7
Self-employed	10,0	13,8	5,8
Total	100	100	100

Source: CLS 2001

Table 11

a. Employment Rate by Household Size (%)

(% of total employed)

Number of Childrer	Total
<3	2,7
3 to 4	36,1
5 to 6	39,0
7 to 8	14,2
>9	7,2
N.A.	0,9
Total	100,0

Source: CLS 2001

b. Employment Rate by Gender of the Head of the Household (%)

(% of total employed by columm)

Gender of head of household	Total	Urban	Rural
Female	24,5	26,5	13,9
Male	75,5	73,5	86,1
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0

Source: CLS 2001

c. Employment Rate by Household Income (%)

(% of total employed by columm)

Household Income	Total	Urban	Rural
No Income	9,6	9,4	10,0
N.A.	0,7	0,8	0,4
<$71,500	2,9	2,2	4,1
>$71,501 y	3,1	3,6	2,1
>$143,001 y	13,5	13,7	13,1
>$286,000	70,3	70,4	70,3
Total	100	100	100

Source: CLS 2001

Table 13

Means of Characteristics in each sample

Variable	Definition	LSS (2003)	CHS (2003)	CLS (2001)
Age	Child's age	10,884	11,0325	10,9667
		(3,708)	3,6788	3,7334
Age squared	Child's age squared	132,2	135,3	134,2
		(82,33)	(82,05)	(83,00)
Gender	1 if child is male, 0 otherwise	0,5022	0,5091	0,5042
		(0,500)	0,4999	0,5000
Race	1 if is afrocolombian, 0 otherwise	0,1160	-	-
		(0,320)		
Headage	Age of the head of the household	43,85	45,05	44,91
		(12,08)	(12,52)	(12,44)
Headgender	1 if head of household is male, 0 otherwise	0,7135	0,7109	0,7483
		(0,452)	(0,453)	(0,434)
Headeduc	Educational attainment of the head of the household	6,7049	9,0893	8,9419
		(4,605)	(5,950)	(5,922)
Parenteduc	Average educational attainment of parents (N=8058)	6,7892	-	-
		(4,062)		
Occupr_hh	Employment rate of adults in the household	0,6859	0,6659	0,6683
		(0,310)	(0,301)	(0,381)
Selfempl_hh	Fraction of self-employed adults in the household	0,3431	0,3775	0,3836
		(0,417)	(0,416)	(0,415)
Quint1	1 if the household belongs to lowest income quintile, 0 otherwise	0,2735	0,2044	0,2140
		(0,446)	(0,403)	(0,410)
Urban	1 if urban, 0 otherwise	0,7287	0,9098	0,9177
		(0,445)	(0,287)	(0,275)
Parentnumbr	Number of parents living in the household	1,5005	1,7273	1,7418
		(0,656)	(0,476)	(0,438)
Extended	1 if living with extended family, 0 otherwise	0,3667	0,4121	0,5511
		(0,482)	(0,492)	(0,497)
Childnumbr	Number of siblings	2,8025	2,7572	2,8804
		(1,554)	(1,540)	(1,540)
Malenumbr	Number of boys/number of girls in the household	0,5059	0,5116	0,5068
		(0,348)	(0,349)	(0,340)
Region1	Atlantic	0,0869	0,2339	0,1732
		(0,282)	(0,423)	(0,378)
Region2	East	0,0755	0,2309	0,1313
		(0,264)	(0,421)	(0,338)
Region3	Bogota	0,4547	0,0581	0,1581
		(0,498)	(0,234)	(0,365)
Region4	Central	0,1574	0,3268	0,0953
		(0,364)	(0,469)	(0,294)
Region5	Pacific	0,1838	0,1503	0,0292
		(0,387)	(0,357)	(0,168)
Region6	Other	0,0416		
		(0,200)		
N=		22269	34047	22908

[1] For Example: Urban Atlantic, Rural Atlantic, Urban Pacific, Rural Pacific, etc.

LSS: Living Stardards Survey

CHS: Child labor follow-up chapter in the Continued Household Survey

CLS: Child Labor Survey

Table 15

a. Proportion of Chlidren by combination of activities and type of employment
(% by row)

	Only work	Work and attend school
LSS 2003		
Employment with non-relatives	54,0	46,0
Employment with relatives	28,0	72,0
CHS 2003		
Employment with non-relatives	54,0	46,0
Employment with relatives	25,5	74,5
CLS 2001		
Employment with non-relatives	39,0	61,0
Employment with relatives	22,0	78,0

b. Proportion of children by combination of activities and type of employment and area
(% by row)

	Only work	Work and attend school
Urban		
Employment with non-relatives	51,9	48,1
Employment with relatives	21,1	78,9
Rural		
Employment with non-relatives	69,0	31,0
Employment with relatives	39,5	60,5

Source: CHS 2003

Table 17a

Estimated Bivariate Probit Model of "work1" and school attendance using 2003 CHS data
Children 5 to 17 years of age, urban areas only
(Marginal Effects - Calculated on mean values)

	Pr(w=0,s=0)	Pr(w=1,s=0)	Pr(w=0,s=1)	Pr(w=1,s=1)
Age	-0,08933	-0,00771	0,07373	0,02330
	(0,0024) **	(0,0007) **	(0,0031) **	(0,0019) **
Age Squared	0,00433	0,00053	-0,00434	-0,00052
	(0,0001) **	(0,0000) **	(0,0001) **	(0,0001) **
Gender	0,00632	0,00635	-0,03394	0,02127
	(0,0034) *	(0,0008) **	(0,0045) **	(0,0025) **
Headeduc	-0,00527	-0,00124	0,00824	-0,00174
	(0,0002) **	(0,0001) **	(0,0003) **	(0,0002) **
headgender	0,00236	-0,00012	-0,00032	-0,00193
	(0,0046)	(0,0010)	(0,0062)	(0,0032)
Headage	-0,00144	-0,00024	0,00176	-0,00008
	(0,0001) **	(0,0000) **	(0,0002) **	(0,0001)
Occupr_hh	-0,01790	0,01152	-0,04994	0,05631
	(0,0047) **	(0,0011) **	(0,0064) **	(0,0038) **
Occupr_hh*Selfempl_hh	0,00273	0,00598	-0,03068	0,02198
	(0,0045)	(0,0009) **	(0,0057) **	(0,0029) **
Quint1	0,02045	0,00333	-0,02449	0,00071
	(0,0035) **	(0,0008) **	(0,0044) **	(0,0022)
Parentnumbr	-0,00921	-0,00086	0,00793	0,00215
	(0,0048) *	(0,0010)	(0,0063)	(0,0032)
Extended	0,01463	0,00191	-0,01536	-0,00119
	(0,0029) **	(0,0006) **	(0,0039) **	(0,0020)
Childnumbr	0,01169	0,00245	-0,01679	0,00265
	(0,0008) **	(0,0002) **	(0,0011) **	(0,0006) **
Malenumbr	0,00309	0,00065	-0,00445	0,00071
	(0,0049)	(0,0011)	(0,0065)	(0,0034)
Max Likelihood Function	-15237,4			
Number of obs.	30771			
rho	-0,38241 **			

Work1= 1 if the child 5 to 11 years of age works in the market or reports doing household work and if the child 12 to 17 years of age worked according to the standard definition, 0 otherwise

Pr(w=0,s=0): Probability that a child neither works nor attends school, similarly for the other probability expressions.

Includes regional dummies. ** indicates significance at the 5%, and * at 10%.

Table 18a

Estimated Multinomial Logit Model of Sector Choice using 2003 CHS data
Urban Areas
(Marginal Effects - Calculated on mean values)

	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Services	Retail
Age	-0.00052	0.02700	0.00431	-0.01106
	(0.0015)	(0.0286)	(0.0244)	(0.0330)
Age Squared	0.00002	-0.00118	0.00021	0.00013
	(0.0001)	(0.0011)	(0.0009)	(0.0013)
Gender	0.00414	0.02548	-0.18564	0.03539
	(0.0012) **	(0.0229)	(0.0232) **	(0.0290)
Headeduc	-0.00031	-0.00182	0.00471	0.00137
	(0.0001) **	(0.0016)	(0.0014) **	(0.0019)
headgender	-0.00010	0.00218	-0.04917	0.05495
	(0.0011)	(0.0310)	(0.0262) *	(0.0356)
Headage	0.00006	0.00023	0.00200	-0.00159
	(0.0000) *	(0.0008)	(0.0006) **	(0.0009) *
Occupr_hh	0.00053	0.21170	-0.12871	-0.04735
	(0.0015)	(0.0358) **	(0.0267) **	(0.0419)
Occupr_hh*Selfempl_hh	-0.00013	-0.16018	-0.03892	0.20611
	(0.0013)	(0.0289) **	(0.0250)	(0.0340) **
Quint1	0.00167	0.01037	0.00320	-0.02534
	(0.0011)	(0.0226)	(0.0178)	(0.0258)
Parentnumbr	0.00037	0.04824	-0.00364	-0.03950
	(0.0011)	(0.0318)	(0.0247)	(0.0365)
Extended	-0.00027	0.05162	-0.01979	-0.04159
	(0.0009)	(0.0191) **	(0.0157)	(0.0223) *
Childnumbr	0.00023	0.00158	0.01378	-0.01588
	(0.0002)	(0.0055)	(0.0044) **	(0.0067) **
Malenumbr	0.00237	-0.02548	-0.02278	0.05500
	(0.0016)	(0.0347)	(0.0279)	(0.0407)
Max Likelihood Function	-3089.34			
Number of obs.	2597			
Pseudo-R2	0.0905			

Excluded Category: "other" sectors

Includes regional dummies. ** indicates significance at 5% and * at 10%.

Table 19

Combination of Activities by Characteristics of Child and Household
(% of working children by category)

Category	Employment with family	Employment with non-relatives	Total
Urban	50	50	100
Rural	68	32	100
Boys	52	48	100
Girls	56	44	100
<=12 years of age	72	28	100
>12 years of age	47	53	100
Lowest Income Quintile	50	50	100
Income Quintile 2 and 3	54	46	100
Education head of household <secondary	52	48	100
Education head of household >=secondary	56	44	100
Male head of household	57	43	100
Female head of household	43	57	100
Two-parent household	58	42	100
One-parent household	43	57	100
Number of children <4	57	43	100
Number of children >=4	45	55	100
Living with extended family	45	55	100
Without extended family	59	42	100
Employed head of household	57	43	100
Unemployed head of household	28	72	100

Source: CHS 2003

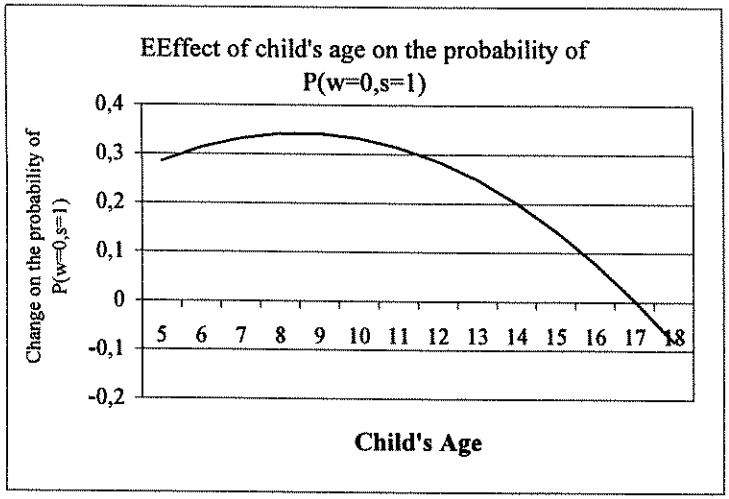
Table 21

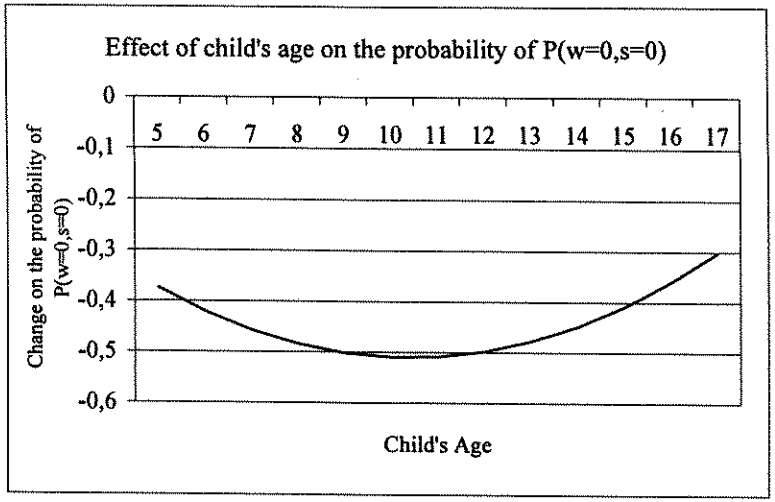
Impact of FA program on child labor by area and age
(Treatment Areas vs. Control Areas)

Area and age	Impact	Employment rate without subsidy (%)	Employment rate with subsidy (%)
10-17 years			
Total	-0,01494 (0,0041) **	17,6	16,1
Urban	-0,01298 (0,0043) **	14,3	13,0
Rural	-0,01630 (0,0065) **	20,2	18,6
Urban			
10-13 years	-0,00469 (0,0024) **	6,3	5,8
14-17 years	-0,01006 (0,0029) **	22,5	21,5
Rural			
10-13 years	-0,03216 (0,0132) **	10,7	7,5
14-17 years	-0,01547 (0,0251)	34,5	32,9

Impact is estimated parametrically using equation (9).
Both,TSP and TCP are included in treatment areas.
Standard errors are clustered at the municipality level.
** indicates statistical significance at 5%, and * at 10%.

Figure 1


EEffect of child's age on the probability of P(w=0,s=1)
Change on the probability of P(w=0,s=1)
0,4
0,3
0,2
0,1
0
-0,1
-0,2
5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18
Child's Age


Effect of child's age on the probability of P(w=0,s=0)
Change on the probability of P(w=0,s=0)
0
-0,1
-0,2
-0,3
-0,4
-0,5
-0,6
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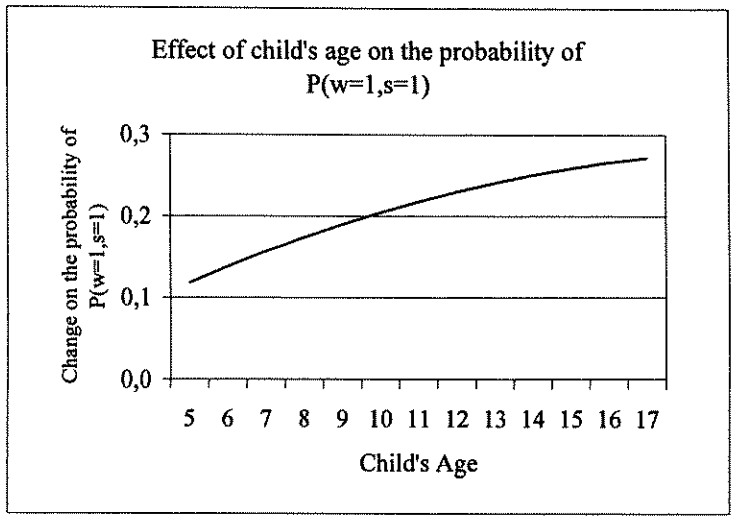
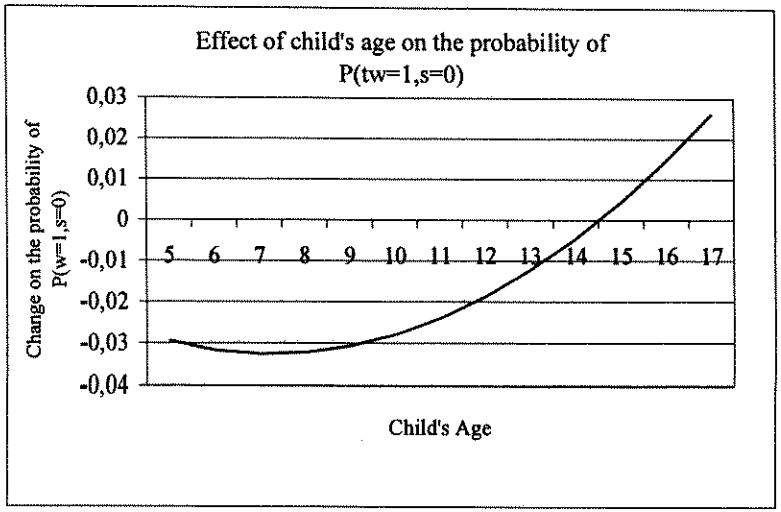
Child's Age


Effect of child's age on the probability of P(w=1,s=1)
Change on the probability of P(w=1,s=1)
0,3
0,2
0,1
0,0
5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17
Child's Age


Effect of child's age on the probability of P(tw=1,s=0)
Change on the probability of P(w=1,s=0)
0,03
0,02
0,01
0
-0,01
-0,02
-0,03
-0,04
5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17
Child's Age

Appendix 1

Survey	Abbrev.	Year	Area	Available Information
Child Labor Survey	CLS	2001	National	Child labor, economic activity, wages, workplace, hours worked, education, health, household characteristics, etc.
Follow-up chapter, 2003 CHS (4th quarter)	CHS	2003	National	Child labor, economic activity, wages, workplace, hours worked, education, health, household characteristics, etc.
Familias en Acción	FA	2002-2003	Rural	Child labor, education, health, consumption, income, household characteristics, nutrition, anthropometric measures, etc.

Appendix 3

Estimated Bivariate Probit Model of "Work1" and School Attendance using 2003 CHS data children 5 to 17 years of age

(Marginal Effects - Calculated on mean values)

	Pr(t=0,e=0)	Pr(t=1,e=0)	Pr(t=0,e=1)	Pr(t=1,e=1)
Age	-0,09843	-0,00899	0,08069	0,02673
	(0,0024) **	(0,0008) **	(0,0031) **	(0,0019) **
Age Squared	0,00475	0,00062	-0,00473	-0,00064
	(0,0001) **	(0,0000) **	(0,0001) **	(0,0001) **
Gender	0,00535	0,00924	-0,04386	0,02928
	(0,0034)	(0,0009) **	(0,0045) **	(0,0025) **
Headedcuc	-0,00584	-0,00152	0,00923	-0,00187
	(0,0003) **	(0,0001) **	(0,0003) **	(0,0002) **
Headgender	-0,00153	-0,00013	0,00120	0,00046
	(0,0043)	(0,0010)	(0,0057)	(0,0029)
Headage	-0,00137	-0,00024	0,00163	-0,00002
	(0,0001) **	(0,0000) **	(0,0002) **	(0,0001)
Occupr_hh	-0,01652	0,02129	-0,08934	0,08457
	(0,0050) **	(0,0014) **	(0,0069) **	(0,0041) **
Occupr_hh*quint 1	0,00823	-0,01100	0,04628	-0,04351
	(0,0095)	(0,0024) **	(0,0132) **	(0,0075) **
Quint 1	0,01112	0,01459	-0,06673	0,04102
	(0,0073)	(0,0029) **	(0,0124) **	(0,0085) **
Urban	-0,03769	-0,02169	0,09599	-0,03661
	(0,0052) **	(0,0021) **	(0,0075) **	(0,0043) **
Parentsnumbr	-0,00381	-0,00100	0,00609	-0,00127
	(0,0040)	(0,0011)	(0,0054)	(0,0027)
Extended	0,01374	0,00184	-0,01398	-0,00161
	(0,0029) **	(0,0007) **	(0,0039) **	(0,0020)
Childnumbr	0,01146	0,00256	-0,01622	0,00220
	(0,0008) **	(0,0002) **	(0,0011) **	(0,0006) **
Malenumbr	0,00163	-0,00048	0,00151	-0,00266
	(0,0050)	(0,0012)	(0,0066)	(0,0034)
Max Likelihood Function	-17816,6			
Number of obs.	33831			
rho	-0,3906 **			

Work1= 1 if the child 5 to 11 years of age works in the market or reports doing household work and if the child 12 to 17 years of age worked according to the standard definition, 0 otherwise

Pr(w=0,s=0): Probability that a child neither works nor attends school, similarly for the other probability expressions.

Includes regional dummies. ** indicates significance at the 5%, and * at 10%.

Appendix 5

Estimated Bivariate Probit Model of "Work1" and School Attendance using 2003 CHS data children 5 to 17 years of age

(Marginal Effects - Calculated on mean values)

	Pr(t=0,e=0)	Pr(t=1,e=0)	Pr(t=0,e=1)	Pr(t=1,e=1)
Age	-0,09817	-0,00908	0,08020	0,02705
	(0,0024) **	(0,0008) **	(0,0031) **	(0,0019) **
Age Square	0,00473	0,00062	-0,00471	-0,00065
	(0,0001) **	(0,0000) **	(0,0001) **	(0,0001) **
Gender	0,00536	0,00929	-0,04417	0,02952
	(0,0033)	(0,0009) **	(0,0045) **	(0,0025) **
Headeduc	-0,00554	-0,00149	0,00895	-0,00192
	(0,0003) **	(0,0001) **	(0,0003) **	(0,0002) **
Headgender	-0,00173	-0,00020	0,00161	0,00032
	(0,0043)	(0,0010)	(0,0057)	(0,0029)
Headage	-0,00124	-0,00023	0,00155	-0,00008
	(0,0001) **	(0,0000) **	(0,0002) **	(0,0001)
Occupr_hh	-0,00973	0,01835	-0,07923	0,07060
	(0,0044) **	(0,0012) **	(0,0062) **	(0,0037) **
Occupr_hh*Selfempl_hh	-0,00393	0,00191	-0,00710	0,00912
	(0,0032)	(0,0008) **	(0,0042) *	(0,0022) **
Quint1	0,02081	0,00317	-0,02282	-0,00116
	(0,0040) **	(0,0010) **	(0,0051) **	(0,0025)
Quintil2	0,01365	0,00027	-0,00755	-0,00637
	(0,0042) **	(0,0009)	(0,0052)	(0,0025) **
Quintil4	-0,00532	-0,00094	0,00636	-0,00010
	(0,0037)	(0,0009)	(0,0050)	(0,0026)
Quintil5	-0,01347	-0,00164	0,01243	0,00268
	(0,0038) **	(0,0009) **	(0,0053) **	(0,0029)
Urban	-0,04232	-0,02374	0,10386	-0,03780
	(0,0056) **	(0,0023) **	(0,0081) **	(0,0046) **
Parentsnumbr	-0,00227	-0,00076	0,00432	-0,00130
	(0,0040)	(0,0010)	(0,0054)	(0,0027)
Extended	0,01533	0,00206	-0,01553	-0,00186
	(0,0029) **	(0,0007) **	(0,0039) **	(0,0020)
Childnumbr	0,01155	0,00256	-0,01618	0,00207
	(0,0008) **	(0,0002) **	(0,0011) **	(0,0006) **
Malenumbr	0,00150	-0,00043	0,00133	-0,00241
	(0,0049)	(0,0012)	(0,0066)	(0,0035)
Max Likelihood Function	-17810,1			
Number of obs.	33831			
rho	-0,3919 **			

Work1= 1 if the child 5 to 11 years of age works in the market or reports doing household work and if the child 12 to 17 years of age worked according to the standard definition, 0 otherwise

Pr(w=0,s=0): Probability that a child neither works nor attends school, similarly for the other probability expressions.

Includes regional dummies. ** indicates significance at the 5%, and * at 10%.

Appendix 6b

Impact of FA program on school enrolment by area, age, and gender
(Treatment Areas vs. Control Areas)

Area and Age	Girls			Boys		
	Impact	Enrolment rate without subsidy (%)	Enrolment rate with subsidy (%)	Impact	Enrolment rate without subsidy (%)	Enrolment rate with subsidy (%)
Urban						
8-13 years	0,00520 (0,0070)	96,1	96,2	0,02100 (0,0106) **	92,7	94,8
14-17 years	0,03420 (0,0148) **	77,4	80,8	0,06920 (0,0163) **	67,3	74,2
Rural						
8-13 years	0,02700 (0,0125) **	91,2	93,9	0,03140 (0,0140) **	87,4	90,5
14-17 years	0,04240 (0,0263)	62,6	66,8	0,07020 (0,0255) **	47,9	54,9

Source: Attanasio, Fitzsimons, and Gómez (2005).

TCP and TSP in treatment areas are included. The estimation method takes into account the anticipation effects.

** indicates statistical significance at 5% and * at 10%.

ANNEX II

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DELOITTE & TOUCHE LTDA.

HACE CONSTAR QUE:

1. Por solicitud de la Asociación de Cultivadores de Caña de Azúcar de Colombia - Asocaña hemos realizado mediante procedimientos previamente convenidos, una auditoría de las Cooperativas de Trabajo Asociado que prestan servicios de corte de caña de azúcar en los años 2007, 2008 y 2009, con el alcance establecido de común acuerdo.

2. En la ejecución de tales procedimientos convenidos o acordados con Asocaña, se realizaron visitas a los cultivos de caña que fueron seleccionados en los departamentos del Valle del Cauca, Cauca y Risaralda, en donde ejecutan sus actividades las Cooperativas de Trabajo Asociado que prestan servicios a los Ingenios Incauca S.A., Ingenio Providencia S.A., Mayagüez S.A., Riopaila Castilla S.A., Ingenio Risaralda S.A., Ingenio San Carlos S.A., Manuelita S.A., Ingenio Pichichi S.A., Ingenio Central Tumaco S.A. e Ingenio Maria Luisa S.A.

3. En el marco de la ejecución de tales procedimientos previamente acordados, en las fechas en que se efectuaron nuestras visitas a los cultivos de caña seleccionados durante los años 2008 y 2009, no se observó la presencia de menores de edad realizando corte de caña.

Para constancia de lo anterior y a solicitud de la Asociación de Cultivadores de Caña de Azúcar de Colombia - Asocaña, se firma en la ciudad de Santiago de Cali a los veinte (20) días del mes de octubre del año dos mil nueve (2009).

Deloitte & Touche

DELOITTE & TOUCHE LTDA.

Santiago de Cali, Colombia

ANNEX III

FOTO: LUIS ÁNGEL MURCIA - SEMANA

El Centro de Formación Integral de Providencia, no sólo capacita a los estudiantes, también los vincula laboralmente

INGENIO PARA ESTUDIAR

Dos de las experiencias regionales de educación superior más elogiadas del país se desarrollan bajo el amparo del gremio azucarero.

A sus 25 años, Javier Antonio Correa Ibarra no le teme a los retos de la vida. Creció en un humilde hogar de corteros, y vio cómo su padre dedicó gran parte de su vida a tajar caña de azúcar y los efectos que le dejó ese duro trabajo.

Por eso tuvo bien claro que buscaría otro camino, y comenzó a soñar con aprender electrónica.

Esa aspiración, que parecía difusa, tomó forma hace tres años cuando el Centro de Formación Integral del ingenio Providencia, ubicado a tan sólo cinco minutos del casco urbano de El Cerrito, le abrió sus puertas a la profesionalización.

En 2006 y gracias a un convenio interinstitucional en el que participan el ingenio, la Universidad Autónoma de Occidente, la Universidad Católica, Comfandi, la Alcaldía y el gobierno nacional, dicha sede ofreció cuatro tecnologías: sistemas, auditoría y costos, ciclo agroecológico y por supuesto electrónica. Todo hace parte de un programa del Ministerio de Educación Nacional conocido como Centro Regional de Educación Superior (Ceres), que requiere de la alianza estratégica con el sector privado. Ese modelo se replica con similares beneficios en Candelaria, bajo el liderazgo del ingenio Mayagüez.

Dicho en palabras más simples, estos dos ingenios se convirtieron en los padrinos de la educación superior en zonas donde las probabilidades de acceso a ese nivel pedagógico son muy escasas. "*yo me gradué a finales de la década de los 90 y sólo ahora pude hacer realidad mi deseo de profesionalizarme. Temas como la distancia y los costos me lo impedían*", confesó Sor María Ramos, una madre soltera que a sus 30 años de edad se animó a estudiar auditoría y costos, en Ceres de El Cerrito. Ese mismo entusiasmo destila Esther Julia Ortiz, quien adora las matemáticas. "*lo mío era esta carrera, auditoría y costos; doy gracias por poder cumplir mi sueño*", expresó la joven estudiante. Algo similar afirmó Adrián Oviedo, quien al igual que Javier se apasiona con la electrónica.

Providencia y Mayagüez tutelan dos colegios que atienden a 5.500 estudiantes

Todos se gradúan en octubre próximo, pero ya están trabajando. "*Gracias a que el programa de estudios es nocturno, todos tienen la posibilidad de abrir su nicho laboral y varios de ellos han sido vinculados por los mismos ingenios*", explicó María Teresa Delgado, coordinadora del colegio de Providencia.

Pero la educación superior no es todo. Tanto Providencia como Mayagüez son tutores de dos colegios que atienden a unos 5.500 estudiantes entre preescolar, primaria y secundaria; y dictan cursos y talleres en convenio con el Sena. Por ejemplo, sólo en 2009 el Centro de Formación Integral Providencia de El Cerrito atendió a 4.. alumnos en todas sus modalidades.

Por su parte el colegio Ana Julia Holguín de Hurtado, ubicado en Candelaria y amparado por el ingenio Mayagüez tuvo una cobertura de 1.180 estudiantes. Sumado a ello, Providencia puso en marcha un taller de confección y maquila para producir overoles en el mismo colegio el cual genera empleo a por lo menos mujeres cabeza de familia. Todo ello sin mencionar los talleres de mecánica, metalistería y ebanistería.

Los dos proyectos educativos no se circunscriben a los municipios donde fueron construidos y atienden poblado.. de media docena de municipios aledaños como Palmira, Florida, Pradera, Ginebra, Guacarí y hasta Cali.

Esa expansión tiene una causa aún más motivadora: tanto el colegio de Providencia como el de Mayagüez ocuparon el año anterior el primer y octavo puestos como los mejores en su género y el Ministerio de Educación les concedió el premio a la Excelencia Ceres.

Sin duda este modelo de fomento al acceso de la educación superior es para el gremio azucarero del Valle ejemplo digno de imitar. ■

Manuelita donó un lote donde se construyeron 474 casas que beneficiarán a los trabajadores del ingenio. En la foto su presidente Harold Éder, con una de las beneficiarias del programa

FOTO: JAMES ARIAS

MANUELITA: MUCHO INGENIO

La decana de la actividad azucarera en el departamento sigue adelante como una de las empresas más prósperas del mismo y es líder en Responsabilidad Social Empresarial.

Ubicado en Palmira, a media hora de la capital vallecaucana, el ingenio Manuelita cuenta con 25.000 hectáreas cultivadas de caña de azúcar. Su nombre hace honor a la madre del poeta Jorge Isaacs, Manuela Ferrer Scarpetta, cuya familia era la propietaria de un globo de tierras que hoy cultiva esta compañía.

El 21 de abril de 1864 don Santiago Éder fundó esta agroindustria que sigue siendo una de las más importantes no sólo en ventas sino como generadora de empleos. Manuelita forma parte fundamental de muchas instituciones sin ánimo de lucro y entre sus labores sobresalientes, su constante presencia en la labor de preservar cuencas hidrográficas convierten a esta empresa en un ejemplo para el Valle del Cauca.

El ingenio, que opera en cuatro países, tiene una facturación promedio de 294.000 millones de pesos anuales, emplea a 3.400 colaboradores, de los cuales el 80 por ciento proviene de la localidad, y al menos 7.000 empleos directos en la producción de azúcar y alcohol carburante, una planta de tecnología que requirió una inversión cercana a los 30 millones de dólares y aplica tecnología limpia.

Esta industria que se destaca por la calidad de su producto, se enorgullece de ser el patrocinador oficial de uno de los eventos más importantes de la región, el Festival de las Macetas, pues como asegura Harold Éder, presidente de la compañía, *"sólo el azúcar Manuelita sirve para elaborar este tipo de artesanía"*.

Al menos unas 10.000 toneladas de caña de azúcar son producidas diariamente por el ingenio que se convierten al año en un promedio de 5.600.000 quintales (sacos de 50 kilos) de azúcar. Para comparar, hace años, cuando los equipos provenientes de Escocia funcionaban a vapor, tan sólo alcanzaban a cosechar unas 50 toneladas de caña cada 12 horas.

Pero esto sólo es una muestra del progreso de Manuelita. Con la premisa dirigida al progreso y bienestar de la región a partir del aprovechamiento racional y sostenible de los recursos naturales, el ingenio cuenta con tres proyectos. Uno es el programa de reforestación de Ecoaguas, otro es la preservación de bosques nativos que tiene como metodología capacitar a los habitantes y trabajadores del sector en el manejo de los recursos naturales, y el tercero es recuperar significativamente algunos sectores de las laderas con el apoyo de Asurnima y Asoamaime, asociaciones de los ríos Nima y Amaime.

Además de esto, Manuelita también le apunta a la educación en sus alrededores. En convenio con la Caja de Compensación Familiar Comfandi, el Sena y los municipios del área de influencia invierte 1.600 millones

LA EMPRESA INVIERTE 1.600 MILLONES DE PESOS EN LA EDUCACIÓN DE ALGUNOS MUNICIPIOS DEL VALLE

de pesos en escuelas y colegios del ingenio y otros 190 millones de pesos en actualización profesional para sus trabajadores. Y también participa en el esfuerzo de la industria azucarera del Valle del Cauca para en un futuro erradicar el analfabetismo y adelantar proyectos de vivienda y salud para sus colaboradores.

Pero el punto más alto en materia de Responsabilidad Social lo anotó al donar en El Cerrito un lote de 74.000 metros cuadrados donde se construyeron 474 casas de interés social con aportes del gobierno nacional, departamental y local. Por todo ello, manuelita es mucho ingenio. ■

ANNEX IV

Cali, Octubre 7 de 2009

PARA: GERENTES Y PRESIDENTES

DE: LUIS FERNANDO LONDOÑO CAPURRO

ASUNTO: CAMPAÑA CONTRA TRABAJO INFANTIL

Estimado doctores:

La responsabilidad social que genera la actividad del sector azucarero exige el mayor cuidado en el manejo de la contratación directa o indirecta, para que en la misma prevalezca el respetó por la dignidad de la persona humana. Precisamente, hemos iniciado una campaña para prevenir y evitar que en el sector azucarero se lleguen a presentar casos de trabajo infantil.

Es del mayor interés de ASOCAÑA y todos su afiliados, que los niños estén protegidos contra la explotación económica y contra el desempeño de cualquier trabajo que pueda ser peligroso o que les entorpezca su educación, su salud, su recreación y, en general, su desarrollo físico y social.

Queremos solicitarle muy comedidamente que envíe a todos y cada unos de sus contratistas, proveedores, cooperativas o empresas de servicios temporales o de mano de obra, la comunicación modelo **adjunta,** la cual requiere el cumplimiento del Convenio de la Organización Internacional del Trabajo C-182 del 17 de junio de 1999, que proscribe el trabajo infantil como una de las peores formas del trabajo humano.

Agradecemos mucho su apoyo divulgando esta información y acompañándonos a que no existan niños trabajando bajo cualquier forma de contratación directa o indirecta.

Reciba una afectuoso abrazo,

LUIS FERNANDO LONDOÑO CAPURRO
Presidente

Cali, Octubre 5 de 2009

Señor

_____

Proveedor Ingenio _____

_____

Referencia: Trabajo infantil en labores agrícolas

Estimado señor:

Dentro de los programas de responsabilidad social del sector azucarero, tiene especial importancia la educación de los niños que representan el futuro de nuestra región. Por esa razón, los ingenios han hecho un decido esfuerzo en mantener y mejorar toda una red educativa conformada por colegios y centros educativos que aportan formación y capacitación.

Todo ese esfuerzo se centra en la total convicción de que los niños deben recibir la atención que merecen, y las empresas, el Estado y los ciudadanos deben contribuir en ese propósito, velando porque los niños tengan la educación, la recreación, la salud y el afecto que requieren.

Precisamente, para proteger el desarrollo de la infancia y la niñez, la Organización Internacional del Trabajo OIT, aprobó el Convenio OIT C-182 del 17 de junio de 1999, sobre *la eliminación de las peores formas del trabajo infantil, y la protección de los menores*, convenio que considera niños a todos los menores de 18 años.

El Convenio OIT C-182, suscrito y ratificado por el Estado colombiano, prohíbe el trabajo que, por su naturaleza o por las condiciones en que se lleva a cabo, afecte la salud, la seguridad o la moralidad de los niños.

El Ministerio de Protección Social, a través de la Resolución 1677 del 16 de Mayo de 2008, estableció como perores formas de

trabajo infantil, en desarrollo del Convenio C -182 de la OIT, el realizado por menores de 18 años en actividades de agricultura, ganadería, caza y silvicultura. Adicionalmente, prohibió de manera perentoria, el trabajo de niños, niñas o adolescente menores de 18 años, ***en actividades de agricultura de la caña de azúcar*** (artículo 2 numeral 1.5 Resolución 1677/2008).

Hacemos un llamado para que entre todos vigilemos el cumplimiento estricto de esta prohibición del trabajo de niños en actividades agrícolas. En el sector azucarero todos tenemos que ser participes del deber de responsabilidad social que genera toda la cadena azucarera. Como ingenios, cultivadores y proveedores de caña, debemos velar porque en las actividades agrícolas y de campo, los trabajadores, contratistas y toda la mano de obra contratada directa o indirectamente, sea realizada por personas mayores de 18 años.

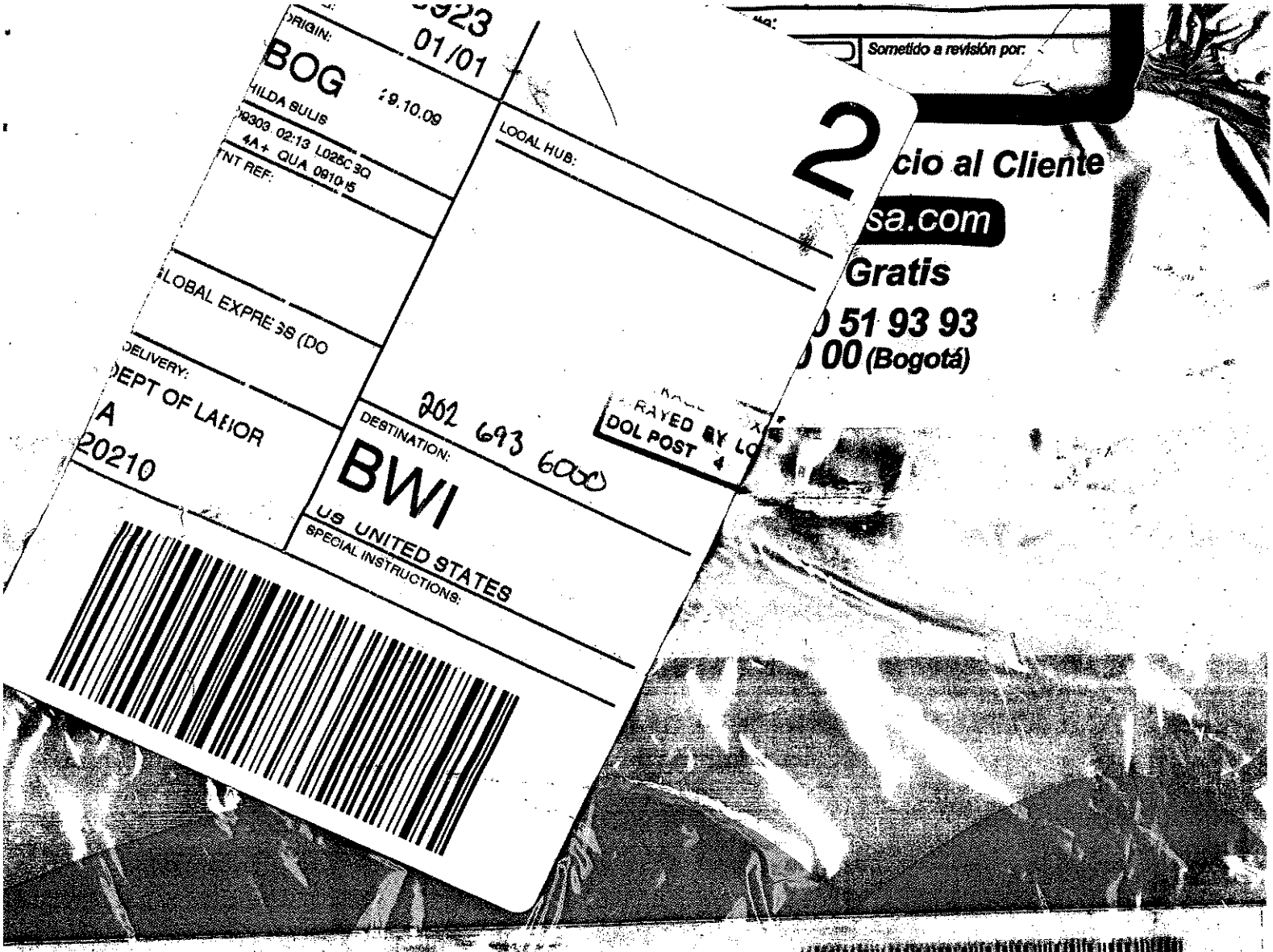
Es claro entonces el deber cortar o terminar las relaciones con contratistas o personas que utilizan menores en las actividades agrícolas relacionadas con la caña de azúcar. Los niños no deben estar trabajando, es deber de todos impedir que eso ocurra para que su salud no se afecte, y tengan el derecho a la educación, recreación y el afecto que merecen.

Agradecemos mucho nos ayude en esta campaña por el futuro de nuestros niños.

Cordialmente

_____

INGENIO _____



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IF IT IS A COMPANY INDICATE PERSON OF CONTACT
Si es una empresa indicar persona de contacto

ER nte: ASOCAÑA
ESS ón: Cll 58 NORTE # 3N-15 AUTOPISTA YUMBO / Cra 7 # 24-89
BOGOTA
DEPT. Depto.: CUND
COUNTRY País: COLOMBIA
TELEPHONE Teléfono: 647902 / 641941 2827449

IF IT IS A COMPANY INDICATE PERSON OF CONTACT
Si es una empresa indicar persona de contacto

GNEE atario: HILDA L SOLIS
ESS ón: DEPARTMENT OF LABOR ILAB OFFICE OF CHILD LABOR FORCE LABOR AND HUMAN TRAFFICKING 200 CONSTITUTION AVE NW RM S 5317
WASHINGTON
STATE Estado
COUNTRY País: USA
ZIP CODE Zona Postal: 20210
PHONE no
TELEPHONE 2 Teléfono 2

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