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TASK 3

**Research and Data Collection on
International Child Labor Issues—
Children Working in Luanda, Angola**

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

ICF International Inc. with Austral COWI, its partner organization in Angola, conducted data collection on child labor in Luanda, Angola in 2007. The specific objective of this research was to collect, describe, and analyze data on the characteristics, nature, incidence, and welfare implications of child work in Luanda. The study sought to raise awareness on the issue of child labor in Angola, and to inform the current and future child labor policy and technical assistance efforts of the U.S. Department of Labor's Office of Child Labor, Forced Labor, and Human Trafficking, and other key stakeholders.

A detailed province-wide survey was conducted in Luanda. Data collection focused on children aged 5 to 17 and included information related to conditions of work, entry points into work, characteristics of families, and educational status. In addition, an observation study was conducted to better understand the economic activities in which children on the streets of Luanda are involved.

The study provides statistically valid information for this rapidly growing city, regarding a number of issues concerning child labor and the general characteristics of working children. The study combined the use of quantitative and qualitative techniques and consisted of four phases of data collection: (a) a background research phase, including collection of background materials and key informant interviews; (b) a province-wide household survey; (c) observation fieldwork targeting economic activities of street children; and (d) an analysis phase that included detailed analysis of the United Nations Children's Fund 2001 Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) data, to supplement data collected in 2007 and to frame the Luanda data in the national landscape.

The major findings of the study are the following:

1. In Luanda, 23.4 percent of children aged 5 to 17 worked in the week preceding the survey. Children under age 14, who are legally not allowed to work, are less likely to work. According to the 2007 Macro Household Survey, only 1.4 percent of children aged 5 to 8 were working. A substantially greater proportion of children aged 9 to 13 work (12.3 percent), and an even greater proportion of those aged 14 to 17, who could potentially work legally, also work (37.7 percent). While the 2001 MICS survey did not report work rates for children aged 15 to 17, the figures for children aged 5 to 14 are quite comparable. The MICS survey indicates that 7.3 percent of children at this age work 1 percentage point lower than the same result obtained by the 2007 Macro Household Survey (8.3 percent).
2. Work rates are also higher for boys than for girls. The 2007 Macro Household Survey shows that boys in Luanda have higher child labor participation rates than girls. Nearly 3 in 10 boys aged 5 to 17 (27.0 percent) in Luanda were working at the time this survey was administered, compared with just under 1 in 5 girls (19.8 percent). According to the 2001 MICS survey, however, while girls only worked marginally less than boys in Luanda, this was not the case in other urban areas.

3. Children work in a variety of occupations. Half of working children (50.3 percent) included in the study were classified as working in sales. Others were in trades such as car washing (7.6 percent), mechanics (9.5 percent), domestic work (6.4 percent), fishing (6.5 percent), and fare collection (4.0 percent). Girls were heavily involved in sales (74.7 percent) and domestic work (12.4 percent).
4. Children work in a number of environments. About 3 in 10 (28.9 percent) work on the streets, and 20.4 percent were identified as being mobile and working in different places. Other work locations included shops and markets (16.3 percent) and at the family dwelling (14.2 percent).
5. The Macro Household Survey was conducted during the height of the work season for children. While these figures may not be typical because of the school break during which this survey was conducted, the median child worked 40 hours the week preceding the interview—as many as their adult counterparts. Younger children (aged 5 to 13) worked marginally less (35 hours). On average, children work less than 8 hours per day, with most working a 6-day week. Those who are compensated in cash reported making, on average, \$52 per week.
6. Both household size and the number of children in the household are strong indicators of child labor participation. Children from small households (4 members or less) are almost 3 times as likely to work as children from households of more than 7 members (39.0 percent compared with 13.4 percent). There are a number of factors that may lead to this result. First, larger households require a greater effort to maintain, leading to a higher demand for child participation in chores. Second, there seems to be a wealth effect, in that large families are on average wealthier than smaller families.
7. This study confirms the relationship between educational attainment and literacy of household heads and child labor participation rates, and reveals that this relationship is stronger for younger children (aged 5 to 13). For this age group, those with a household head who has never completed primary education are more than 3 times as likely to be working (18.2 percent compared with 5.6 percent). This also holds true for older children, but the difference is smaller.
8. The household survey does not show a clear relationship between the absence of a child's mother or father and the likelihood that the child will be working. It does, however, show clearly that the absence of both parents is a risk factor for child labor participation. Almost half (46.8 percent) of children whose parents are both absent are working, compared with 17.7 percent of other children. The results of the survey are also inconclusive regarding a relationship between household relocation and child labor participation.
9. Child work in Luanda is driven by economic factors. The most frequent reasons cited by adult respondents and working children include replacing adults who had to work elsewhere, helping the household enterprise, paying an outstanding family debt, and supplementing the family income.

10. School attendance and educational outcome are complexly intertwined with child labor participation. This research analyzed a number of educational variables from both the 2007 Macro Household Survey and the 2001 MICS survey. Results of this analysis revealed the following:
- a. In discussing school attendance and outcome, it is essential to disaggregate results by age. Many of the younger children included in this study have yet to begin schooling. In aggregate, this group, with its low child labor participation rates, will diminish the inverse relationship between school attendance and child labor. Likewise, educational attainment is inextricable from age, making aggregated analysis of the relationship between attainment and work all but useless.
 - b. In Luanda, the “ever” and “past” academic year school attendance rates for all children aged 5 to 17 are 87.7 and 86.9 percent, respectively. When the values are disaggregated by age, a clear relationship between school attendance and work is revealed. Children aged 14 to 17 are nearly twice as likely to work if they did not attend school in the past year (66.7 percent compared with 36.9 percent) or if they never attended school (69.0 percent compared with 37.2 percent).
 - c. There is a large gap between the educational attainment of children who are working in their teen years (ages 14 to 17) when a child should be attending secondary school. Only 30.0 percent of children who have completed some secondary school were working. At each progressively lower attainment group, this figure becomes higher (42.4 percent for primary complete, 58.8 percent for primary incomplete, and 72 percent for those with no formal education).
 - d. Of children aged 5 to 17, approximately 12.3 percent have never attended school. Reasons for not attending school are: (1) the age of the child (i.e., too young), (2) cannot afford schooling, (3) disability or illness, (4) work, (5) absence of school in the community, (6) family restrictions (i.e., family does not allow schooling of children), (7) child helps at home with household chores, (8) school is too far, and (9) child is not interested in school or is poor in studies.
 - e. About 36 percent of working schoolchildren indicated that their work often interfered with their schooling, and the forms of interference reported by school-going working children include: (1) feeling tired at the end of the day, (2) feeling tired in class, (3) receiving low school marks, (4) missing classes, (5) arriving late to school, and (6) insufficient time available for school or homework.
11. Working children in Luanda are exposed to a number of health hazards, such as dust, fumes, gas, flames, extreme humidity, noise, and chemicals. More than one third indicated that their work requires heavy lifting. In spite of such risk exposure, the majority of working children (78.1 percent) do not feel that their work is difficult for them.

12. Only 10 percent of all children included in the survey indicated that they encountered 1 or more health problems. In order of frequency mentioned, the health problems or injuries include: (1) back or muscle pain, (2) diarrhea, (3) fatigue, (4) wounds or deep cuts, (5) skin problems, (6) allergies, and (7) lung problems. However, working children tend to experience more illness or injury cases than nonworking children. Overall, although only 10 percent of children encountered health or injury problems within the past 12 months, there is a higher incidence of injuries and illnesses among children who worked during the week preceding the survey. This difference is most notable for back or muscle pain and fatigue, where the incidence among working children is nearly double the incidence rate among nonworking children.
13. Streets in Luanda are the most important work locations for children engaged in activities such as selling, car washing, shoe shining, begging, and scavenging. About half of working children in Luanda work on the streets. Furthermore, almost all children working on the streets are exposed to one or more health hazards and accidents, such as: (1) working in the sun or in midday heat; (2) working in areas of poor air quality due to exhaust, smoke, or dust; (3) working in heavy automotive traffic; (4) working with excessive noise; (5) working in unsanitary conditions; and (6) working while being exposed to gangs and crime.

The report is organized into 12 sections. Sections 1 through 4 present the introduction, research context, and background issues. These sections emphasize the methodology, background, and legal and institutional framework relevant to child labor in Angola. The findings of the surveys are discussed in sections 5 through 11. Finally, section 12 summarizes major findings and concludes the report.

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 AIM OF THE STUDY

This study aims to collect and analyze quantitative and qualitative data regarding child labor in Luanda, Angola. The study includes a broad look at the situation of child workers in Angola's capital, with an additional study of the economic activities of street children in the same city. Data collection focused on children aged 5 to 17 and included information related to conditions of work, entry points into work, characteristics of families, educational status, and services designed to assist working children. The study seeks to raise awareness about the issue of child labor in Luanda, and to inform the current and future child labor policy and technical assistance efforts of the U.S. Department of Labor (USDOL) Office of Child Labor, Forced Labor, and Human Trafficking (OCFT), and other key stakeholders.

1.2 INTRODUCTION OF THE RESEARCH TEAM

The research team responsible for the design of data gathering tools, implementation of the research, and data analysis was created through a joint effort by ICF International Inc. and its partner organization, Austral COWI. The Austral COWI survey team was led by an in-country manager and included a small and well-trained group of local interviewers.

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2 METHODOLOGY OF THE RESEARCH

2.1 RESEARCH ENVIRONMENT

Luanda is a city with a number of challenges to social researchers. The city has grown rapidly in a period of civil war, when resources were insufficient to support a growing infrastructure. This problem was aggravated by a postwar boom fueled by oil and diamonds that put automobiles within the reach of the middle class. The result was a “perfect storm” resulting in total gridlock due to the under-regulation of motor vehicles.

This makes transportation and, hence, research difficult and unpredictable. It reduces time in the field and results in a number of missed interviews.

Another issue is the lack of reliable sample frame data. The last census in Luanda was in 1983. There are no reliable estimates of the total population in Luanda, not to mention in municipalities, communes, and neighborhoods. Current and detailed maps are also difficult to obtain, making even the common practice of numbering intersections impossible outside of the center of the city.

As a result of this challenge, ICF developed an innovative geographic sampling strategy using satellite imaging. The strategy, outlined in the following section, proved to be a cost-effective solution to a very difficult problem faced in trying to create generalizable estimates of Luanda residents.

Another difficulty in conducting research in Luanda is the extreme cost of doing business in the city. A study was released at the time ICF’s own research was conducted, identifying Luanda as the most expensive city in the world for expatriates.¹ The boom in the economy has led to an overvalued currency making everything from housing to produce prohibitively expensive, not to mention research. This economic boom has severely limited the scope of the research—particularly in the size of the sample.

Cost also limited our local options of research firms and organizations. Foreign firms from South Africa, Namibia, Zimbabwe, and Mozambique are attracted by the large margins they can gain in Angola without incurring the daily expense of doing business there full time. ICF contracted a Mozambican firm known as Austral COWI to conduct the data collection. Austral COWI has extensive experience in conducting research in Luanda and a small manageable group of highly knowledgeable and competent interviewers.

¹ ECA International. (2007). *ECA International worldwide cost of living ranking 2007*. From <http://www.eca-international.com/index.aspx>.

2.2 OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH CONDUCTED

This report is based on the findings of five distinct research efforts, which vary in terms of methodology.

1. Collection of background materials

ICF conducted a broad search for materials to inform the research design and enhance its understanding of child labor in Luanda.

The first priority was to gather information on the organizations and individuals that work on children and child labor issues in Luanda, so as to assist in compiling a list of potential participants in the key informant interviews.

ICF's second priority was to search the published literature for relevant studies, examine data on population, and look for statistics on children's health, education, and working status. The background materials were used to inform the research design and will provide a picture of what is currently known about the lives and the distribution of children, as well as basic information about Luandan families.

2. Comparative data analyses

To supplement the household and working children surveys and facilitate comparison between different data sets, ICF collected secondary information on selected variables emphasized in this study. In this regard, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) data for Angola, which includes a wide range of variables on the status and socioeconomic background of children in Angola, has been used. However, the 2001 MICS data are not nationally representative, as the MICS survey covered only the then-secured places of Angola. Nevertheless, the data include information on a range of variables relevant to our study, along with information on the capital, Luanda.

3. Key informant interviews

Key informant interviews were conducted with 12 organizations that work on child and child labor issues in Luanda. While attempts were made to contact government officials, interviews could be done only with representatives of international and local nongovernmental organizations (NGOs).

4. Household and working child survey (800 households in Luanda)

The surveys covered the entire province of Luanda. The Macro Household Survey collected information on the general wellbeing of the household and information on each household regarding its demographics, educational history, and current economic and noneconomic activities; the survey also collected basic information on work conditions and remunerations. The working child survey covered the child's activities in detail, including his/her relationship to work, the relationship between work and school, and details regarding work conditions.

5. Field observation of 200 working children in 10 different locations in Luanda

Researchers selected 10 locations notable for the quantity of street children who were engaged in economic activities without adult supervision. Researchers observed 20 children in each location and filled out an observation checklist that recorded the activities of the children, the apparent danger the children faced, and a description of the child.

2.3 STUDY DESIGN

2.3.1 Key Informant Interviews

Key informant interviews were conducted to develop a profile of child labor in Luanda, covering the sectors in which children work. The interviews provide some information on the magnitude of child labor in these sectors; they also describe their working conditions and compensation. Twelve individuals from local and international organizations and local NGOs that work on child labor issues were interviewed to develop a profile of child labor in Luanda.

Interview questions included the following:

1. What is being done about the problem of child labor in Luanda, and what else could be done?
2. In what occupations and sectors is child labor the most problematic?
3. What are the characteristics of child labor in Luanda?
4. What is the relationship between child labor and education in Luanda?
5. What are the risk factors for child labor in Luanda?
6. In what communities is the problem of child labor the most severe?
7. What is the public perception of child labor in Luanda?

Key informant interviews were used to garner respondents' understanding of the nature of child work in the informal sector and how this phenomenon is maintained (where children came from, who profited from their labor, who regulated it, etc.). The key informants provided knowledge needed to identify specific geographies, to more fully develop the research questions, and to understand the current state of interventions with children working in Luanda. This produced an initial knowledge base, which the ICF team used to refine its sample plans, interview and observation guides, and questionnaires.

2.3.2 Household Surveys

2.3.2.1 Sampling

As there has been no official census in Luanda since 1983, ICF developed an innovative strategy for sampling for this project using satellite imagery. This strategy goes beyond simple geographic sampling. Simple geographic sampling is problematic because it tends to over-represent lower density areas. ICF's strategy attempts to resolve this problem by applying weights to the data derived from a proxy estimate of the density of the area sampled.

Step 1: Separating Satellite Images into Small Geographical Units

The first step of the sample development was to download detailed satellite images and to superimpose a grid system over the images. ICF downloaded 41 high-resolution images of Luanda from Google Earth that were all interconnected and in the same scale. Each image was divided into 70 equally sized blocks. The precise dimensions of each block are unknown, but images indicate that each side of each block is no longer than two and a half soccer fields.

Figure 2.1: Sample Satellite Image of Luanda



Source: Google Earth.

Step 2: Coding Geographic Blocks

A single coder examined all geographic blocks to determine two elements: the amount of each block that is inhabited and the density of the predominant residential areas.

The coder first visually estimated the total inhabited percentage of each block. In most cases, this was fairly easy to determine. Water, open fields, parks, cemeteries, broad avenues, and industrial zones were all visually excluded. In some cases, determining the extent of commercial or

residential use of an area was difficult, as many residences and businesses shared buildings. It was then left to the reviewer to balance all the information and to determine an estimate to the best of his/her ability. Ultimately, 2,046 blocks were identified with some degree of habitation. Approximately 70.2 percent of the area in these blocks was determined to be inhabited.

The coder then classified the blocks into three categories of high-density, medium-density, and low-density strata. This, again, was done through visual inspection and the discretion of the reviewer. Ultimately, 52.6 percent of the inhabited area in Luanda was classified as high density, 29.6 percent as medium density, and the remaining 17.8 percent as low density.

Step 3: Stratification

Blocks were drawn separately in each of the three density strata identified in the coding process. The 800 households necessary for the study were divided into 100 clusters, or enumeration areas (EAs)—1 block per cluster (Table 2.1).

ICF distributed the EAs somewhat arbitrarily across the clusters based on rough estimates of the population living in each stratum. The roughness of the calculation was acceptable because the data would ultimately be weighted to reflect new data-driven estimates of each stratum's population size. The implied assumptions were that medium-density areas had 2.2 times the number of households as low-density areas of the same size, and that high-density areas would have 4.1 times the number of households as low-density areas of the same size. Table 2.1 shows the final sample.

Table 2.1: Sample Stratification

Stratum	EAs	Percentage of EAs	Number of full blocks	Percentage of area	Population density assumption
High density	72	72.0%	756.0	52.6%	4.1
Medium density	22	22.0%	424.5	29.6%	2.2
Low density	6	6.0%	255.4	17.8%	1.0
Total	100	100.0%	1,435.9	100.0%	n/a

Step 4: Block Selection

Blocks were selected systematically to ensure maximum geographic dispersion. The sample frame for each stratum was listed in map order. A fixed interval was calculated to ensure that all desired EAs would cover all areas maximally. For instance, the high-density areas included 72 EAs. The interval was the number of full blocks divided by one plus the number of EAs [$756/(72+1) = 10.4$]. A random seed was selected within the range of the interval. The random seed indicated the first block. For the next block, the interval was added to the seed. The block having the cumulative number of blocks equal to the result was then selected. This process was repeated until all desired blocks were selected.

This process ensures maximum geographic dispersion and adjusts for the probability of selection based on the coverage estimates. For instance, a block that is only 20 percent inhabited has one fifth the chance of selection, compared with a fully (100 percent) inhabited block.

Step 5: Selection of Starting Points within Each Sampling Point

Supervisors selected starting points in the central office using the satellite images. More specifically, they selected six geographically disperse points and rolled a die to determine the starting point. Interviewers identified the location of the block through a master full image and found the starting point through landmarks on the image. It is assumed that there was some error in identifying starting points since the images did not have street names or boundaries.

Step 6: Household Selection—Random Walk

Households were selected by conducting a random walk. From the given starting point, the interviewers faced the building and turned to the right. They then selected the fourth household on the left. The next household would be the fourth household on the left from that household. This process was repeated until eight households were selected. At each point where they could turn left, they did so.

Step 7: Respondent Selection

After selecting a household, interviewers were instructed to interview the most knowledgeable person with regard to the regular daily activities of the household members. This was a fortunate classification, because often the most knowledgeable person was a person who was frequently home.

Step 8: Callbacks

Interviewers were required to make two callbacks before replacing the designated household. If a respondent was not home, interviewers would inquire about the best time to return. If after three attempts an interview was not completed, the interviewer would replace that household with another on the random walk within the EA.

Weaknesses of Sampling Strategy

The sampling methodology employed for this study is innovative, but imperfect. The weakness of the model is in the estimate of households per block in each stratum. If budget concerns were not an issue, the preferred methodology would be to identify the geographic block, and then conduct a census of households in each block that was selected. This, however, would be prohibitively expensive.

The estimate itself has two major weaknesses. First, it assumes that all visibly identifiable rooftops are households, or that the proportion of roofs that are not households is the same in each stratum. One way this may distort results is by overestimating households in less dense areas, where small business owners may own multiple small buildings for workshops, barns, or garages.

Another potential weakness is in the accuracy of the estimates of households per building. It is common in developing countries for interviewers to have trouble gaining access to apartment buildings. If this is the case, the number of household estimates for the apartment stratum may be low, hence leading to an under-representation of this population.

Regardless, ICF believes the methodology adopted for this survey is a great improvement on other samples employed in Luanda. It is a cost-effective solution in a difficult environment. The results it has yielded are very realistic and comparable to studies like the Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) and the MICS surveys, which may have had much larger budgets.

2.3.2.2 Data Processing, Data Entry, and Quality Control

Questionnaires were thoroughly reviewed by supervisors daily upon return of interview staff. The final processing, however, took place in Maputo, Mozambique, at the headquarters of Austral COWI. Austral COWI entered the data using a double-entry quality control and delivered the data in SPSS format to ICF.

As part of the standard quality control process, ICF conducted a number of data assessments using custom SPSS and Excel programs. ICF analysts then examined all data received from the subcontractor with respect to the following indicators of data integrity:

- Data completeness, as evidenced by the presence of all questions and response categories from the final fielded questionnaire;
- Duplicate records test;
- Thorough comparison of locations in the data with the sample plan;
- Item-by-item review of the data to verify labeling consistency between data variables and questionnaire items, as well as the presence of missing values or results out of the expected range;
- Questionnaire logic integrity tests. Many items in the questionnaire only apply to those who gave a specific response to a previous question. The logic of the questionnaire is tested by applying filters to the data that reproduce the skip patterns on the questionnaire, verifying that filtered questions have in fact been responded to by only those who are supposed to respond; and
- Qualitative assessments to determine whether the data concord with a number of logical principles and universal demographic parameters (e.g., gender splits, maximum possible educational attainment by age, maximum number of interviews by interviewer, and day).

Weighting Data

Weights were derived from an estimation of the number of households in an average block within a stratum. To do this, ICF created a new stratum of high-density blocks, which were determined to be those that included large apartment complexes.

This exercise required an estimation of the number of households (Table 2.2), which included the number of buildings in the block and the average number of households per building, as reported in the survey. First, analysts systematically counted the number of rooftops that they could identify in the block (excluding obvious commercial buildings). A weighted average was then calculated to

estimate the number of resident buildings per full block in each stratum. This number was multiplied by the average number of households per building to determine the average number of households per full block.

Table 2.2: Estimated Number of Households by Stratum

Stratum	Buildings per full block	Households per building	Number of households per full block	Number of full blocks	Estimated number of households
High density—high rise	105.6	2.55	269.0	126.0	33,890
High density—low rise	264.9	1.97	521.7	630.0	328,666
Medium density	180.8	1.93	349.3	424.5	148,258
Low density	195.1	1.42	276.9	255.4	70,713

From the estimated number of households per stratum, ICF derived weights to adjust the achieved sample to match the estimate (Table 2.3).

Table 2.3: Sample Weights

Stratum	Percentage of households	Percentage of achieved sample	Weight
High density—high rise	5.8%	10.8%	0.54
High density—low rise	56.5%	67.5%	0.84
Medium density	25.5%	17.9%	1.43
Low density	12.2%	3.9%	3.14

2.3.3 Street Child Observation

Street child observations were conducted in 10 locations identified as being common places where children work unattended by adults. A street child was defined as “any child in the streets (including in and around markets) engaged in economic activity.” The 10 locations were identified through key informant interviews with local organizations working with street children. Experts from a local NGO known as Projeto Renascer were of particularly valuable assistance. This NGO works with abandoned and working children; its experts, therefore, have a good understanding of the circumstances of children in the city.

This activity included the field observation of 200 working children in 10 different locations of Luanda, Angola. The observations were conducted in December 2007—from Wednesday the 12th to Saturday the 15th—by 5 trained observers. The 200 observations were equally distributed; thus, 20 observations were completed per location.

The observations were conducted at different times—between 7:00 a.m. and 5:00 p.m. The observation start times varied depending on the availability of children working in those selected sites. Once observations started, the observers completed checklists and continued to the next child.

Researchers visited each site twice at different times and days of the week. On each date, the researcher would identify 10 children to observe. Interviewers were instructed to document the diversity of activities at each location. For instance, if there was a group of shoe shiners, instead of describing all of them individually, the interviewers were instructed to describe one child and move on.

The observation checklist included a wide range of variables in eight different categories: (1) personal data, including age and sex of the child; (2) physical appearance, including sufficiency and cleanliness of clothing, shoes, body, and hair; (3) appearance of disability; (4) appearance of injury; (5) emotional appearance; (6) type of activity in which the child was engaged; (7) working environment; and (8) physical risks associated with the child's work.

The street children research presented here is just a first step in this kind of research. The research provides no estimates of the absolute number of street children in Luanda. Also, the results themselves cannot be considered truly representative. The locations selected were not from a known frame of locations, and the child selection process was geared for documenting the diversity of activities rather than for systematically measuring the characteristics of the population.

This is not to diminish the results, but to caution their interpretation. We believe that the data provide vivid details of the different lives of children working on the streets of Luanda.

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3 DEMOGRAPHIC, EDUCATIONAL, AND SOCIOECONOMIC PROFILE OF ANGOLA AND LUANDA

War and its aftermath have defined Angola's recent history, affecting the country's population dynamics, infrastructure, and delivery of basic services. All of these factors impact the country's children and their relation to labor.

During the early colonial period, the Portuguese used Luanda as a focal point for slave shipments out of Angola, establishing a pattern of centralized control by minority elites in the colony. Subsequent to independence, a 27-year conflict between the Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola (MPLA), the National Liberation Front of Angola (FNLA), and the National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA) devastated the country. It finally ended in April 2002 with the demobilization of UNITA and the lifting of United Nations sanctions. International organizations estimated that 500,000 people fled Angola, and over 4 million were internally relocated during the war.² The negative effects of the conflict continue to resonate, as civic organizations and infrastructure were severely damaged and are only slowly redeveloping. However, the reconstruction efforts of the national government (combined with extreme need) have inspired many international and regional groups to help ameliorate the problems.

The following subsections (sections 3.1 to 3.4) briefly describe the prevailing demographic, educational, and socioeconomic characteristics of Angola and the capital, Luanda.

3.1 MODERNIZATION AND MIGRATION PATTERNS OF LUANDA

Luanda is the political capital of Angola. It is Angola's largest city and is a major port and economic center. The province of Luanda contains nine municipalities and is nearly entirely urban. There is no clearly defined city of Luanda, so in most cases, as with this study, the province and city of Luanda are considered one in the same. All current population figures for the city are estimates. The most recent census was in 1983 (Luanda only); Luanda's population has increased rapidly both during and after the war, and many residents lack a fixed address. Population estimates for Luanda range from 3.4 million³ to 4.7 million⁴ inhabitants.

Luanda's demography has been influenced by three migration patterns: (1) the arrival of international migrants from Portugal and later from neighboring countries; (2) national movements from Angola's rural to urban areas; and (3) internal relocations as slums are cleared for development, street dwellers shift quarters, and people continue to build squatter housing within the city's limited space. Based on a thriving trade in coffee and other resources, a large port, and Portuguese policies favoring Portuguese immigrants, the city's pre-independence population doubled in size approximately every

² Mai, V. A., and Wisner, F. G. (2007). *Toward an Angola strategy: Prioritizing U.S.-Angola relations*. New York: Council on Foreign Relations—Center for Preventive Action. From <http://www.cfr.org/content/publications/attachments/AngolaCommissionReport.pdf>.

³ Jenkins, P., Robson, P., & Cain, A. (2002). Local responses to globalization and peripheralization in Luanda, Angola. *Environment & Urbanization*, 14 (1), 115–127. From <http://www.bvsde.paho.org/bvsacd/cd26/enurb/v14n1/115.pdf>.

⁴ World Health Organization. (2007). *Cholera country profile: Angola*. From <http://www.who.int/cholera/countries/Angola%20country%20profile%202007.pdf>.

decade from 1940 onward.⁵ Subsequent post-independence migrations into Luanda further swelled its population, as the BaKongo people from the north of Angola returned from the then Belgian Congo where they had fled to escape civil unrest. Many BaKongo settled in urban centers, including Luanda.⁶ During the civil war, people from Angola's war-affected rural areas sought refuge in Luanda's relative peace. The third migration pattern occurred within Luanda as the Angolan government attempted to reunite families and resettle the civil war's internally displaced persons (IDPs) and ex-combatants to their home areas. Despite these efforts, many people remain in the city rather than returning to rural areas, which are fraught with mines and are relatively lacking in basic services and economic opportunity. A 2006 joint assessment by the Angolan government, the United Nations (UN), and foreign governments through the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre estimated that in 2006, there remained 91,000 IDPs, and most did not intend to return to their place of origin.⁷ Most nonreturning IDPs stayed in Luanda's outskirts or in other towns, sustaining themselves from the informal economy and living in slums.⁸

Thus, the migrations overtaxed the city's services and geographic carrying capacity. The proportion of households living below the extreme poverty line increased from 12 percent in 1995 to 25 percent in 2004.⁹

The increase in Luanda's population through migration is augmented by Angola's relatively high fertility rates (about 6.6 children per woman)¹⁰ and young population. Although the legal age for marriage with parental consent is 15, traditional forms of marriage persist and common-law marriage is widespread.¹¹ Various sources estimate that more than two thirds of the population is younger than 25 years old, and about 44 percent is younger than 14 years old.¹² Because youth comprise most of the people migrating to urban centers, the youth percentage of urban populations may be higher than the national average.¹³

Angola also has high infant mortality and low life expectancy rates. The average Angolan life expectancy in 2005 was only 41 years of age, and UNICEF ranks Angola second only to Sierra Leone in terms of infant mortality.¹⁴

⁵ Jenkins, P., Robson, P., & Cain, A. (2002). Local responses to globalization and peripheralization in Luanda, Angola. *Environment & Urbanization*, 14 (1), 115–127. From <http://www.bvsde.paho.org/bvsacd/cd26/enurb/v14n1/115.pdf>.

⁶ Ibid.

⁷ U.S. Department of State. (2008). *Angola: Country reports on human rights practices—2007*. Washington, DC: Author. From <http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/2007/100465.htm>. See also Kaun, A. (2008). *When the displaced return: Challenges to 'reintegration' in Angola* (Research Paper No. 152). Washington, DC: Office of Refugee and Asylum, U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services. From <http://www.unhcr.org/research/RESEARCH/47a315402.pdf>.

⁸ World Food Programme. (2006). *Protracted relief and recovery operation—Angola 10433.0*. Executive Board, First Regular Session, Rome, 20-23 February 2006, p. 6. From http://www.wfp.org/operations/current_operations/project_docs/104330.pdf.

⁹ Kaun, A. (2008). *When the displaced return: Challenges to 'reintegration' in Angola* (Research Paper No. 152). Washington, DC: Office of Refugee and Asylum, U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services. From <http://www.unhcr.org/research/RESEARCH/47a315402.pdf>.

¹⁰ United Nations Children's Fund. (2006). *The state of the world's children—2007*. New York: Author. From <http://www.unicef.org/sowc07/docs/sowc07.pdf>.

¹¹ U.S. Department of State. (2008). *Angola: Country reports on human rights practices—2007*. Washington, DC: Author. From <http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/2007/100465.htm>.

¹² U.S. Central Intelligence Agency. (2007). *The world factbook: Angola*. From <http://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ao.html>.

¹³ The World Bank. (2007). *Angola: Oil, broad-based growth, and equity*. Washington, DC: Author.

¹⁴ United Nations Children's Fund. (2006). *The state of the world's children—2007*. New York: Author. From <http://www.unicef.org/sowc07/docs/sowc07.pdf>.

Many children have no access to healthcare, and one quarter of Angolan children die before age 5. Despite the decrease in population resulting from war and emigration between 1990 and 2005, Angola's growth rate for the period was still about 2.8 percent.¹⁵

Overlaying the impact of the migratory trends are forced evictions, when slums are cleared for urban development or other reasons. Between 2002 and 2006, Human Rights Watch documented more than 3,000 evictions where houses were destroyed and land appropriated.¹⁶ Other reports cite mass land reclamations between 2002 and 2006 in the Luanda neighborhoods of Cambamba I, Cambamba II, Banga We, 28 de Agosto, Maria Eugenia Neto, Wengi Maka, Soba Kopassa, Bairro da Cidadania, Munlevos, Mbondo Chape (Fubu), Onga, Rio Seco, Talatona, Gaiolas, and Bem-Vindo (municipalities of Kilamba Kiaxi, Viana, Samba, and Cacucaco);¹⁷ the reports indicate a private security company evicted 70 families from the Gika neighborhood of Luanda in 2007.¹⁸ The impact of evictions is multiplied by the high density of occupants per household. According to a survey conducted by Development Workshop, more than half of Luanda's households hold at least three people per room.¹⁹

Throughout its history, Luanda's population grew without corresponding investments in infrastructure, planning, or regulated construction. The continued influx and growth of the population, combined with the lack of regulation, resulted in a checkerboard of rich and poor dwellings, sometimes side by side, surrounded by wealthier suburbs, traditionally poor areas (such as the northern municipalities like Sambizanga), and shantytowns.

3.2 SOCIOCULTURAL PROFILE

The warring parties in the civil war split along ethnic lines, with the MPLA including the Mbundu people—the dominant ethnic group around Luanda—as well as European descendants and *mestizos*. The FNLA's followers were mainly the BaKongo ethnic group of northwestern and northern Angola, and UNITA represented the largest ethnic group in Angola—the Ovimbundu of the Central Highlands and southern provinces.²⁰ Some ethnic disparities have arisen as the mixture of groups within Luanda has shifted, particularly with the increase of BaKongo people.

The Ministry of Justice and the Ministry of Culture require religions to register with them to avoid being limited in their rights and activities. To register, a religion must have at least 100,000 adherents who are legal residents. The UN Special Rapporteur on Freedom of Religion

¹⁵ United Nations Foundation. (2003). UNICEF study finds 25 percent mortality among children under 5. *UN Wire*. From http://www.unwire.org/unwire/20030127/31681_story.asp.

¹⁶ Human Rights Watch. (2007). *Human Rights Watch world report 2007—Angola*. From <http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/45aca29816.html>.

¹⁷ Roggero, P., Mangiaterra, V., Bustreo, F., & Rosati, F. (2007). The health impact of child labor in developing countries: Evidence from cross-country data. *American Journal of Public Health*, 97 (2), 271–275.

¹⁸ U.S. Department of State. (2008). *Angola: Country reports on human rights practices—2007*. Washington, DC: Author. From <http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/2007/100465.htm>.

¹⁹ Development Workshop. (2005). *Development Workshop—Angola*. From <http://dw.angonet.org>.

²⁰ Mai, V. A., and Wisner, F. G. (2007). *Toward an Angola strategy: Prioritizing U.S.-Angola relations*. New York: Council on Foreign Relations—Center for Preventive Action. From <http://www.cfr.org/content/publications/attachments/AngolaCommissionReport.pdf>.

and Belief believes this provision discriminates against religious minorities, such as some Muslim and Christian groups.²¹

Belief in witchcraft is common among several cultures and impacts child labor within Angola. A joint government-NGO report claims most witchcraft-related cases occurred in Luanda, Uige, and Zaire provinces, and affected particularly vulnerable children, such as orphans or the very poor. More specifically, witchcraft has been linked to instances of child trafficking and forced child labor. Children are often abused or expelled from their homes. Some religious sects take advantage of traditional beliefs and offer to “remove spirits” by performing abusive ceremonies and later using the children as low-cost or slave labor for the church.²² Some social workers claim the phenomenon has followed poor migrants from the northern Angolan provinces to the slums of Luanda.²³

Another sociocultural issue impacting children is the lasting effects of child soldiering. Now that many of the children who were abducted into soldiering during the civil war have grown, many are disenfranchised and poor. Furthermore, parents are often uneducated and have lost the support of their home communities; their children may be particularly vulnerable to child work or child labor. Human Rights Watch has expressed concern that children who were used in the last years of the war were made to continue serving in the army after the war ended.²⁴

The government’s soldier reintegration program after the war did not include girls, who were also abducted to serve as soldiers and laborers for the soldiers. A study of 40 formerly abducted girl soldiers who now reside in Luanda and in rural areas of Huambo province found that most live in extreme poverty and have children of their own. In Luanda, about half were younger than 18 years old in 2004, but many did not remember their age at the time of abduction and thought they were about 11 years old. Sixty percent had no education and 80 percent were living in conditions of extreme poverty, working at multiple jobs in the informal economy.²⁵

Displacement and poverty increase the number and vulnerability of street children, who form their own subculture within Luanda, often retreating at night to the sewer system under the streets. According to UNICEF, approximately 43,000 children remain separated from their families and are particularly vulnerable to exploitation.²⁶

Many street people live in Independence Square, the Avenida Brasil ward, and inner regions of the wards of Vila-Alice and Rangel.²⁷

²¹ U.S. Department of State. (2008). *Angola: Country reports on human rights practices—2007*. Washington, DC: Author. From <http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/2007/100465.htm>.

²² Criança, R. (2004). *Supplementary report by NGOs on the implementation of the Convention on the Rights of the Child. Angola*. From http://www.sarpn.org.za/documents/d0000813/P908-Rede_Angola_Feb2004.pdf.

²³ LaFraniere, S. (2007). African crucible: Cast as witches, then cast out. *New York Times*. From <http://www.nytimes.com/2007/11/15/world/africa/15witches.html>.

²⁴ Human Rights Watch. (2003). *Child soldiers forgotten in Angola*. From <http://www.hrw.org/en/news/2003/04/28/child-soldiers-forgotten-angola>.

²⁵ Stavrou, V. (2005). *Breaking the silence: Girls forcibly involved in the armed struggle in Angola*. From <http://www.europeanchildrensnetwork.org/violence/search/closeup.asp?infoID=11756>.

²⁶ International Confederation of Free Trade Unions. (2006). *Internationally recognized core labour standards in Angola: Report for the WTO General Council review of the trade policies of Angola (Geneva, 14 and 16 February 2006)*. From <http://www.icftu.org/www/pdf/clsangola2006.pdf>.

²⁷ Angola Press Agency. (2007). *Angola: Welfare Ministry offers professional courses to street children*. From <http://streetkidnews.blogspot.com/2007/04/17/angola-welfare-ministry-offers-professional-courses-to-street-children/>.

While Angola is not a focal point of the African HIV/AIDS crisis, some observers are concerned that the disease is growing at an accelerating pace, exacerbated by the general lack of health facilities. UNICEF estimates the number of Angolan children infected with HIV to be about 35,000.²⁸ One study showed the rate of infection in pregnant women at clinics in Luanda increased from 3.4 percent in 1999 to 8.6 percent in 2001.²⁹ The U.S. Embassy reports that the 2007 data collected by the Luanda Provincial Health Directorate from Luanda's tuberculosis (TB) hospital indicate that 18 percent of the 401 TB patients tested for HIV were positive.³⁰ Cultural practices possibly adding to the disease's spread include polygamy and sexual initiation rites. In addition, refugees are returning from neighboring countries with high prevalence rates.³¹ There are reports of discrimination against those living with HIV/AIDS,³² and the increase in one-parent families and orphans leaves children susceptible to labor or other exploitation. Several NGOs and foreign governments conduct programs to address the HIV/AIDS issue in Angola, which include a \$15.4 million budget request for HIV/AIDS, malaria, maternal and child health, family planning, and reproductive health in the U.S. Department of State's 2008 budget. The United States' development assistance to Angola more than doubled between 2006 and 2008.³³

3.3 EDUCATIONAL PROFILE OF LUANDA

The age of compulsory education in Angola is 14 years. Public education is free but fees, inadequate schools, and a lack of teachers and materials have forced some parents to resort to bribery to secure their children's admission to schools. According to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, a gender gap in enrollment rates favors boys over girls, especially at the secondary level.³⁴ As much as 44 percent of children do not attend school, and there is a higher dropout rate and lower completion rate for girls. Less than one quarter of girls or boys attend secondary school.³⁵

Many unregistered children and street children have no viable alternative to formal schooling. Undocumented children are not allowed to access the educational system, and many unregistered people exist in the country. Furthermore, fees for birth certificates and identification cards remain prohibitive for poor families. The national government has made some efforts to address the issue by planning to provide birth certificates at clinics, and some ministries have implemented small projects to address the problem. In 2007, for example, the Municipal Department of the Assistance

²⁸ United Nations Children's Fund. (2006). *The state of the world's children—2007*. New York: Author. From <http://www.unicef.org/sowc07/docs/sowc07.pdf>.

²⁹ United Nations Development Programme. (2006). *Evaluation of UNDP's role and contributions in the HIV/AIDS response in Southern Africa and Ethiopia*. Evaluation Office. From <http://www.undp.org/execbrd/pdf/Evaluation%20of%20HIV%20AIDS%20Programme%20-%20May%202023.pdf>.

³⁰ U.S. Embassy—Luanda. (2007,). *Angola 2007 performance report*.

³¹ International Fund for Agricultural Development. (2002). *A review of gender issues in support of IFAD's COSOP formulation process*. From <http://www.ifad.org/genderpf/pdf/angola.pdf>.

³² U.S. Department of State. (2008). *Angola: Country reports on human rights practices—2007*. Washington, DC: Author. From <http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/2007/100465.htm>.

³³ Ibid.

³⁴ Ibid.

³⁵ International Confederation of Free Trade Unions. (2006). *Internationally recognized core labour standards in Angola: Report for the WTO General Council review of the trade policies of Angola (Geneva, 14 and 16 February 2006)*. From <http://www.icftu.org/www/pdf/clsangola2006.pdf>.

and Social Welfare Ministry registered more than 100 street dwellers, ranging in age from 7 to 29, in Luanda’s Rangel district for courses offered at a social center.³⁶

The national education system is divided into 4 preuniversity levels: Levels 1 and 2 coincide with what is generally considered primary school (grades 1 through 6), and Level 3 (grades 7 to 8) and Middle Level (9 to 12) would be considered secondary.

Primary School	{	• Level 1 (grades 1 through 4)
	}	• Level 2 (grades 5 through 6)
Secondary School	{	• Level 3 (grades 7 through 8)
	}	• Middle Level (grades 9 through 12)

According to the most recent MICS data (2001), urban children are more likely to attend school, particularly in the capital, where three quarters of children attend school (Table 3.1). This figure is higher for children aged 5 to 12, both across the sample and in Luanda (92.0 and 94.7 percent, respectively). Across the sample, more than three quarters (76.5 percent) of children aged 8 to 14 are currently attending school—85.2 percent in Luanda.

Table 3.1: School Attendance of Children

School attendance	Luanda	Other urban	Rural	Total*
Never attended	15.9%	22.5%	36.6%	25.6%
Attended in past	8.8%	10.3%	8.8%	9.8%
Currently attending	75.3%	67.2%	54.6%	64.6%
Sample size	1,088	6,439	3,292	10,819

Base: n=10,819 children (aged 5 to 17).

* The sample frame for the 2001 MICS survey excluded many rural areas. Totals, therefore, have an urban bias.

Source: 2001 MICS.

Across the MICS sample (Table 3.2), 71.6 percent of adults have never completed primary education, and nearly one third (32.2 percent) have no formal education. These figures are much lower in urban areas (63.8 and 26.1 percent, respectively), and are lower yet in Luanda, where just over half (52.1 percent) of adults have completed at least a primary education. These figures are weighted heavily by older adults who were of school age either before or during Angola’s civil war. While, across the sample, a similar portion (68.6 percent) of young adults aged 18 to 25 have not completed a primary education, in Luanda the figure is much lower for young adults (36.2 percent). A substantially lower proportion of young adults have no education, both across the sample (24.1 percent compared with 35.6 percent for older adults) and in Luanda (7.6 percent compared with 18.6 percent).

³⁶ Angola Press Agency. (2007). *Angola: Welfare Ministry offers professional courses to street children*. From <http://streetkidnews.blogspot.com/2007/04/17/angola-welfare-ministry-offers-professional-courses-to-street-children/>.

Table 3.2: Educational Attainment of Adults in Angola

Completed education	Luanda	Other urban	Rural	Totals
None	15.0%	28.0%	46.9%	32.3%
Level 1 incomplete	14.8%	16.2%	25.0%	18.6%
Level 1 complete	11.6%	14.6%	12.7%	13.8%
Level 2 incomplete	6.6%	7.7%	5.5%	6.9%
Level 2 complete	10.8%	10.7%	5.4%	9.1%
Level 3 incomplete	8.1%	6.0%	1.6%	4.9%
Level 3 complete	16.0%	7.9%	2.0%	7.0%
Middle Level incomplete	10.5%	5.0%	0.4%	4.2%
Middle Level complete	5.3%	3.5%	0.4%	2.7%
Higher	1.4%	0.3%	0.1%	0.4%
Sample size	1,357	7,484	4,441	13,282

Base: n=13,282 adults (aged 18 or older).
Source: 2001 MICS.

3.4 ECONOMIC PROFILE OF ANGOLA

Angola's dependence on extractive resources that are highly valued internationally has led to a concentration of wealth among a relatively small group of elites, attracted the interest of the major oil-dependent countries, restricted job opportunities for a majority of the population, and created a per capita gross domestic product (GDP) that misrepresents the quality of life actually experienced by most Angolans. The International Monetary Fund estimated the country's real GDP growth to be 15.9 percent for 2006 and 31.4 percent for 2007, and for real GDP to increase by almost 16 percent for 2008 and 13 percent for 2009,³⁷ which would make "Angola's economy one of the fastest-growing in the world."³⁸ High oil prices, increased oil production, and development loans, mainly from China, further boost the economy's growth rate. In January 2007, Angola joined the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries, underlying its importance within the global oil economy. Oil production and supporting activities contribute about 85 percent of Angola's GDP.³⁹ Angola has become the United States' sixth largest supplier of oil and should "surpass Nigeria as Africa's largest producer."⁴⁰ Diamonds represent Angola's second largest resource in terms of dollar value as an export.

Continued reliance on a few high-value resources has necessitated that Angola import most of its industrial equipment and consumer goods. Its main imports are machinery and electrical equipment, vehicles and spare parts, medicine, food, textiles, and military goods. The country's main trading partners are the United States and Portugal (about 15.3 percent of imports each), South Korea (10.1 percent), China (8.8 percent), Brazil (8.2 percent), South Africa (6.7 percent),

³⁷ International Monetary Fund. (2008). *World economic outlook*. Washington, DC: Author.

³⁸ International Monetary Fund. (2006). *Regional economic outlook: Sub-Saharan Africa*. From <http://imf.org/external/pubs/ft/reo/2006/ENG/02/sreo0906.pdf>.

³⁹ U.S. Central Intelligence Agency. (2007). *The world factbook: Angola*. From <http://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ao.html>.

⁴⁰ U.S. Embassy—Luanda. (2007). Letter, presenting *2007 performance report*, from Francisco Fernandez, Charge d'Affairs, Luanda, to Henrietta H. Fore, Director of Foreign Assistance, U.S. Department of State.

and France (6.2 percent). Besides crude oil and related products, Angola exports diamonds, coffee, sisal, fish products, timber, and cotton to the United States (38 percent), China (34.2 percent), Taiwan (5.8 percent), France (4.9 percent), and Chile (4.1 percent).⁴¹

Angola's potential wealth has attracted the involvement of several foreign countries. "The presence of Chinese companies is very noticeable throughout the country, in particular construction companies working on the rehabilitation of major infrastructure such as railroads."⁴² The population boom and poor infrastructure are increasing demand in the construction industry, and China has extended a \$7 billion line of credit to rebuild Angola's public infrastructure. Angola also received large credit lines from Brazil, Portugal, Germany, Spain, and the European Union (EU).⁴³

The oil and diamond industries provide only limited employment opportunities for the average Angolan. Highly skilled positions have been filled mainly by foreign nationals. The informal economy evolved to meet basic needs that the state or national economy did not provide, and profits from the sale of oil and diamonds allow the import of food and commercial goods that are eventually resold at the street level. Profits at the consumer end of the trading cycle are very low and competition is intense. The result is that most family members, including children, are now involved in trading or menial work for low profit, often selling in the market or streets.⁴⁴

UNICEF estimates that more than one third of children aged 10 to 14 are working, and that at least 10,000 children work on Luanda's streets in the informal sector trading, shining shoes, fetching water, or performing other unskilled tasks. Girls in particular work in domestic labor. In rural areas, children also work for wages on commercial and family farms, produce charcoal, and work in mining. In both areas, children are forced into prostitution, they load or carry goods in ports and across borders, and they are used to sell or transport illegal drugs. Cocaine is transported across the Angola-Namibia border bound for other African states and Western Europe.⁴⁵ The International Labour Organization (ILO) estimates that there are at least 3,000 child prostitutes, and that 440,000 children worked in 2000. There is also a large number of street children due to displacements. According to UNICEF, approximately 43,000 children remain separated from their families. They are particularly vulnerable to physical and sexual exploitation.⁴⁶ Journalists have reported that young children working full time on a rural plantation did not attend school and were often paid with food.⁴⁷

⁴¹ U.S. Central Intelligence Agency. (2007). *The world factbook: Angola*. From <http://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ao.html>.

⁴² Human Rights Watch. (2007). *Human Rights Watch world report 2007—Angola*. From <http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/45aca29816.html>.

⁴³ U.S. Central Intelligence Agency. (2007). *The world factbook: Angola*. From <http://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ao.html>.

⁴⁴ Jenkins, P., Robson, P., & Cain, A. (2002). Local responses to globalization and peripheralization in Luanda, Angola. *Environment & Urbanization*, 14 (1), 115–127. From <http://www.bvsde.paho.org/bvsacd/cd26/enurb/v14n1/115.pdf>.

⁴⁵ U.S. Central Intelligence Agency. (2007). *The world factbook: Angola*. From <http://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ao.html>.

⁴⁶ International Confederation of Free Trade Unions. (2006). *Internationally recognized core labour standards in Angola: Report for the WTO General Council review of the trade policies of Angola (Geneva, 14 and 16 February 2006)*. From <http://www.icftu.org/www/pdf/clsangola2006.pdf>.

⁴⁷ U.S. Department of State. (2008). *Angola: Country reports on human rights practices—2007*. Washington, DC: Author. From <http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/2007/100465.htm>.

4 LEGAL AND INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK WITH REGARD TO CHILD LABOR IN ANGOLA AND LUANDA

4.1 LEGAL FRAMEWORK—LABOR LAW AND LEGAL ACTS

Angola has ratified the following international and regional human rights treaties that are of particular importance for the rights of children:

- Convention 29, Forced Labor Convention (1976);
- Convention 105, the Abolition of Forced Labor (1976);
- Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (1986);
- Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) (1991);
- CRC Optional Protocol on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution, and Child Pornography (2002);
- CRC Optional Protocol on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict (2002);
- African Charter on Rights and Welfare of the Child (1992);
- ILO Convention 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labor (2001); and
- ILO Convention 138, the Minimum Age Convention (2001).

Angola's General Labor Law establishes the minimum age for employment at 14, but it is not strictly enforced and does not apply to children working in the informal sector. The act pertains only to persons with a paid employment relationship and excludes those working on their own, in the informal economy, in family work, and in occasional work. Minors, with no minimum age specified, may perform light work that does not harm their physical or mental development, thus allowing for apprenticeships. Children between ages 14 and 18 may not work at night, in dangerous conditions, or in employment requiring great physical effort. Children younger than 16 years old are prohibited from doing factory work.⁴⁸

⁴⁸ U.S. Department of State. (2008). *Angola: Country reports on human rights practices—2007*. Washington, DC: Author. From <http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/2007/100465.htm>. See also International Confederation of Free Trade Unions. (2006). *Internationally recognized core labour standards in Angola: Report for the WTO General Council review of the trade policies of Angola (Geneva, 14 and 16 February 2006)*. From <http://www.icftu.org/www/pdf/clsangola2006.pdf>.

Article 4.1 of the General Labor Law prohibits forced labor, but it is not enforced. Furthermore, work required pursuant to civil service laws of general interest is exempt from this prohibition. There have been reports of trafficking of women and children for forced labor or forced prostitution.⁴⁹

The national legislation does not prohibit the sale and trafficking of children for economic or sexual purposes.⁵⁰ The country is a place of origin for trafficking women and children into South Africa, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, and parts of Western Europe. Laws criminalizing forced or bonded labor, prostitution, pornography, rape, kidnapping, and illegal entry have been used to prosecute trafficking cases, but no trafficking-related prosecutions were brought during 2007.⁵¹

The Ministry of Justice intends to revise and update the Angolan Penal Code, which dates from 1886. Changes include provisions criminalizing pedophilia and trafficking in persons.⁵²

Although it is illegal, child prostitution exists. Sexual relations with a child under age 12 are considered rape, and sexual relations with a child aged 12 to 15 may be considered sexual abuse. The minimum sentence for rape is eight years of imprisonment, and sentences for related offenses carry a maximum of life imprisonment, but there were no prosecutions in 2007. The Family Code (Article 24) states that marriage can only be entered into at age 18 (or 15 with parental approval). However, younger people marry at an earlier age according to traditional customs, and common-law marriages are widespread.⁵³

The Constitution of Angola prohibits the recruitment of soldiers under age 18, as does the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child. The 1996 Angolan decree on the applicability of military service sets the minimum age for voluntary service at 18 for men and 20 for women.⁵⁴ Also, ILO Convention 182 identifies the compulsory recruitment of children to armed conflict as one of the worst forms of child labor.

⁴⁹ International Confederation of Free Trade Unions. (2006). *Internationally recognized core labour standards in Angola: Report for the WTO General Council review of the trade policies of Angola (Geneva, 14 and 16 February 2006)*. From <http://www.icftu.org/www/pdf/clsangola2006.pdf>.

⁵⁰ Ibid.

⁵¹ U.S. Department of State. (2008). *Angola: Country reports on human rights practices—2007*. Washington, DC: Author. From <http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/2007/100465.htm>.

⁵² U.S. Library of Congress Global Legal Monitor. (2006). *Código Penal, datado de 1886, vai sofrer reforma profunda, NOTÍCIAS LUSÓFONAS, Sept. 29, 2006*.

⁵³ U.S. Department of State. (2008). *Angola: Country reports on human rights practices—2007*. Washington, DC: Author. From <http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/2007/100465.htm>.

⁵⁴ Human Rights Watch. (2003). *Child soldiers forgotten in Angola*. From <http://www.hrw.org/en/news/2003/04/28/child-soldiers-forgotten-angola>.

4.2 INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK

4.2.1 Government Agencies

The Angolan government has made efforts to improve the judicial system and has created several child-related institutions within its ministries, as a corollary to its participation in international conventions.

The National Institute of Children (INAC) is responsible for the definition of policy and strategies to benefit children. INAC was also responsible for documenting unregistered children, but many undocumented children remain. During 2007, immigration services and INAC conducted antitrafficking training for border officials to combat trafficking. Border control agents verified travel documents for children, but could not patrol all border points. Antitrafficking programs providing some services to victims existed only in Luanda. INAC also created a Child Protection Network, which reportedly removed some children from “exploitive work.”⁵⁵

The Inspector General of the Ministry of Public Administration, Employment, and Social Security (MAPESS) is responsible for investigating complaints of child labor. During 2007, MAPESS raised the minimum wage in the formal sector, but the wage was inadequate as a living wage; many working people earned extra money through the informal sector.

The Children’s Affairs Court under the Ministry of Justice has jurisdiction over general child protection in Luanda. It will have jurisdiction in the other provinces as the provincial courts become operational.⁵⁶

The National Commission to Combat Child Labor and Trafficking in Minors is researching the extent of trafficking in persons and the government’s response in four border provinces.

The National Children’s Council, an interministerial commission, sets national priorities and policies regarding children and violence against children, including unlawful child labor, trafficking, and sexual exploitation.⁵⁷

Several observers state that labor laws are not enforced, and that those operating in the informal economy often escape the attention of authorities. The court system was overextended and resources for family or children affairs courts were limited. There was no formal procedure for inspections and investigations of child labor abuses outside of the family law system, although private persons can file accusations of violations of child labor laws.⁵⁸

The national government enacted the Strategy to Combat Poverty (*Estrategia de Combate a Pobreza*) in 2002 and updated it in 2005. Among other objectives to alleviate poverty, it aims to control the spread of HIV/AIDS, minimize the problems of those families living with AIDS, and provide universal access to quality primary education for girls as well as boys.

⁵⁵ U.S. Department of State. (2008). *Angola: Country reports on human rights practices—2007*. Washington, DC: Author. From <http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/2007/100465.htm>.

⁵⁶ Ibid.

⁵⁷ Ibid.

⁵⁸ Ibid.

4.2.2 Nongovernmental Organizations

More than 100 international and 350 domestic NGOs operate in Angola. Two of those working in Luanda are listed below.

- The **Development Workshop** is working with local governments and NGOs to rehabilitate and construct schools, including 80 schools in Luanda's periurban areas. The program also helps communities produce school furniture and equipment locally. It targets girls who have never gone to school or who have dropped out because of economic stress. Partners include the EU, various governments, British Petroleum, and Esso/Mobil.⁵⁹
- The **Luanda Urban Poverty Program** works under a grant from the Department for International Development, and is implemented by a consortium of the Development Workshop, Save the Children UK, and CARE International. Its goal is to reduce poverty in Luanda and its periurban areas of Sambizanda, Kilamba, Kiaxi, and Ho Yi Ha Henda. Programs involve education, water and sanitation, and good governance.⁶⁰

4.2.3 Faith-Based Organizations

Christian Children's Fund (CCF) works in child and youth protection, resilience building, and the reintegration of war-affected children and youth. In partnership with Save the Children, CCF implements Protecting Children from Exploitive Labor through Education Solutions in communities where children are most vulnerable to exploitation and where the worst forms of child labor continue. The project promotes literacy, promotes life-skills training, and supports primary education enrollment for children who are engaged in or at risk of child labor; the project also supports primary education enrollment for former child laborers.⁶¹

CCF and World Learning for International Development are also USDOL grantees for the project Combating Exploitive Child Labor through Education in Angola. The objective of the project is "to reduce the number of children engaged in the worst forms of child labor by providing access to nonformal educational opportunities, with a focus on two communities in Benguela and an emphasis in working with street children in Luanda."⁶²

4.2.4 Research Institutions

The ILO International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour implemented a pilot project, funded by the Government of Brazil, that will develop national timebound measures against the worst forms of child labor in Angola and Mozambique.⁶³

⁵⁹ Development Workshop. (2005). *Development Workshop—Angola*. From <http://dw.angonet.org>.

⁶⁰ Ibid.

⁶¹ Christian Children's Fund. (2006). *Child labor*.

⁶² Christian Children's Fund. (n.d.). *Combating exploitive child labor through education in Angola-ONJOI: ILAB technical cooperation project summary*.

⁶³ International Labour Organization. (2007). *ILO activities in Africa*.

4.2.5 International Donor Organizations

UNICEF conducts a broad range of health and social services, policy support, and research pertinent to children. In 2007, UNICEF strengthened immigration controls at airports and border checkpoints to help counter human trafficking. Using computerized tracking systems at border posts, including at the Luanda airport, officials were trained to monitor the movement of children in and out of the country. UNICEF has also helped reintegrate war-affected children and worked to create protection mechanisms against discrimination, violence, abuse, and exploitation. It provides health services to children, including immunizations and distribution of HIV/AIDS information, and recently provided training to teachers on mine hazards.⁶⁴

The World Bank has established its Angolan office in Luanda and is taking part in several projects to rebuild the governance, public health, and economic infrastructure. The projects are aligned with Angola's Strategy to Combat Poverty and are very diverse. They include HIV/AIDS prevention and control programs and the Angolan Program for Demobilization and Reintegration, implemented at the national level by the Institute of Socio-Professional Reintegration for Ex-combatants, which will deliver assistance to female ex-combatants, widows of ex-combatants, minors whose parents are ex-combatants, and ex-combatants with disabilities.⁶⁵

⁶⁴ U.S. Department of State. (2008). *Angola: Country reports on human rights practices—2007*. Washington, DC: Author. From <http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/2007/100465.htm>. See also United Nations Children's Fund. (2008). *Country report: Angola*. From <http://www.unicef.org/countryreport/Angola>.

⁶⁵ The World Bank. (2008). *Overview of human resources in health in Angola*.

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5 RESEARCH MEASUREMENT ISSUES AND PROFILE OF WORKING CHILDREN

5.1 RESEARCH MEASUREMENT ISSUES

5.1.1 Measuring Work

For the original research presented in this report, a battery of questions originally designed for ILO's Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour (SIMPOC) surveys was used to measure the incidence of work. This battery of questions measures work through three- or four-part questions designed to capture information on all children who work, whether in a traditional sense (in an employee/employer relationship) or in a more informal capacity, such as through unpaid work for a family business (Table 5.1). These questions addressed work conducted in the past week and within the past year. The fourth question was not used for the annual measure.

Table 5.1: Household Survey Questions for Last Week's Work

Question	Categories
During the last 7 days, did you work?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Yes—Working. 2. No.
Since last (day of the week), did you undertake any activity for the following?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Payment in cash. 2. Payment in kind. 3. His/her own enterprise. 4. A family member without pay. 5. No.
[If none] Since last (day of the week), did you undertake any of the following activities?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Cultivate or harvest agricultural products, catch/gather fish or seafood, or carry out mining activities. 2. Prepare food, clothes, or handicrafts for sale. 3. Sell articles, newspapers, drinks, food, or agricultural products. 4. Wash, iron, clean, repair tools or equipment for someone else for payment in cash or in kind. 5. Transport goods to market or for storage, or other activities related to the transport of goods for sale. 6. Carry out construction or maintenance of buildings, homes, or boats for someone else. 7. Other similar activities. 8. No.
Even if you were not working since last (day of the week), did you have a job, business, or enterprise from which you were temporarily absent?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Yes—Working. 2. No.

Source: 2001 MICS.

MICS/DHS data also used in this report calculate work somewhat differently (Table 5.2). For this survey, there are four types of work identified as weekly work: work outside of the home for pay, work outside of the home without pay, domestic work or chores, and other work at the home. For purposes of this study, domestic work or chores within the home where the child resides were excluded from the calculation.

Table 5.2: MICS/DHS Survey Questions for Last Week's Work

Question	Categories
During the past week, did (name) do any kind of work for someone who is not a member of this household? If yes, for pay?	1. Yes, for pay (cash or in kind). 2. Yes, unpaid. 3. No. } Working
During the past week, did (name) help with housekeeping chores such as cooking, shopping, cleaning, washing clothes, fetching water, or caring for children?	1. Yes. 2. No.
During the past week, did (name) do any other family work (on the farm or in a business)?	1. Yes—Working. 2. No.

The SIMPOC questions used in the household survey are different for two reasons. First, they count someone who is only temporarily absent from their job. Secondly, the SIMPOC questions differ in that they do not juxtapose work with domestic chores. This allows for some misspecification because some individuals identify their domestic chores as work.⁶⁶

5.2 PROFILE OF WORKING CHILDREN

5.2.1 Percentage of Children Working

The 2007 household study in Luanda reveals that 23.4 percent of children aged 5 to 17 in Luanda are currently working. This figure is substantially higher than figures from the 2001 MICS study, but the difference is primarily a function of age. The MICS study collected working status data only for children aged 5 to 14, but for this study, only data for children aged 5 to 13 are reported.⁶⁷ According to the MICS data, the work rate for this younger age group is 7.3 percent in Luanda. A comparable figure from the 2007 Luanda household study is also 8.3 percent.

The MICS data reveal that child labor rates are quite low in Luanda as compared with other parts of the country. While the MICS data are not nationally representative, combined results indicate that 25.8 percent of those aged 5 to 13 in the sample frame were working when the study was conducted. This figure is likely understated since all of the areas excluded from the survey were rural areas, which tend to have higher child labor rates. Aside from this exclusion, Luanda has the lowest child labor rates of the provinces in Angola, according to the 2001 MICS survey.

⁶⁶ The data confirm that a certain level of misspecification does take place with the SIMPOC questionnaire. Nearly half of domestic workers (47.1 percent—adults and children) report working in their own home, and 45.9 percent identify this work as unpaid family work. These figures are higher for children (75.6 and 73.3 percent, respectively). It is assumed that in many of these cases, the main activity is chores. If all of these children are in fact not engaged in economic activity, this would result in about a 1 percentage point drop in child labor rates.

⁶⁷ The 5 to 13 age group was chosen because 14-year-olds in Angola can work legally with restrictions.

Table 5.3: Child Work in Angola—Worked Last Week by Province

Province	Percentage who worked last week	Percentage who worked last week and were not in school	Sample size
Uige	41.5%	10.2%	804
Zaire	38.3%	16.7%	124
Huambo	37.6%	9.4%	731
Kuanza Sul	37.1%	13.4%	527
Kuanza Norte	35.9%	17.6%	236
Bengo	35.5%	16.6%	104
Cunene	34.2%	8.1%	354
Namibe	25.0%	4.4%	242
Kuando Kubango	24.1%	12.2%	145
Cabinda	24.0%	4.8%	147
Bie	23.9%	4.0%	588
Moxico	20.5%	7.4%	399
Malange	18.8%	5.3%	321
Huila	18.5%	5.1%	858
Benguela	18.4%	8.5%	724
Lunda Sul	18.0%	9.0%	462
Lunda Norte	7.9%	2.6%	480
Luanda	7.3%	2.0%	758
Total	24.7%	7.6%	8,004

Base: n=8,004 children (aged 5 to 13) in Angola.
Source: 2001 MICS.

There are relatively large differences between provinces in terms of the work rates of children. Uige—an interior province on the northern border with the Democratic Republic of the Congo that was hard hit by the 26-year civil war—recorded the highest child labor rates (41.5 percent), followed by the northern frontier Zaire province (38.3 percent) and the agriculturally rich Central Plateau province of Huambo (37.6 percent). Lunda Norte, a province that has both rural and urban areas in the northeast corner of the country, has comparatively low child labor participation rates (7.9 percent).

Luanda also has the lowest rates of children who work and do not attend school (2.0 percent), followed closely by Lunda Norte (2.6 percent). Higher rates are found in the northeast corner in the contiguous provinces of Kuanza Norte (17.6 percent), Zaire (16.7 percent), Bengo (16.6 percent), and Kuanza Sul (13.4 percent).

Table 5.4: Child Work in Angola—Worked Last Week by Setting

Setting	Percentage who worked last week	Percentage who worked last week and were not in school	Sample size
Luanda	7.3%	2.0%	758
Other urban	21.5%	5.9%	4,724
Rural	37.7%	13.2%	2,522
Total	24.7%	7.6%	8,004

Base: n=8,004 children (aged 5 to 13) in Angola.
Source: 2001 MICS.

Much of the variation in child labor participation rates across provinces is due to the proportion of the population living in rural areas. Rural Angolans included in the MICS sample have a child labor participation rate of 37.7 percent, with 13.2 percent of children aged 5 to 13 working and not attending school. Urban children outside of Luanda have much lower child labor participation rates (21.5 percent), and less than half the rate of children working and not in school (5.9 percent). It is important to note that this difference considerably distorts the total figure reported. All of the areas excluded from the survey were rural areas. As a result, only 28.6 percent of the weighted MICS sample is rural. According to UN estimates, the urban-rural split in Angola was 53.3 percent in 2005 (and likely higher in 2001). Assuming that work rates are similar in nonsurveyed rural areas, a weighted average (using 53.3 percent rural) shows that the actual national figures would be closer to 31 and 10 percent, respectively.

Table 5.5: Child Work in Luanda—Worked Last Week by Municipality

Municipality	Percentage who worked last week	Percentage of weighted sample		Sample size
		Working children	All children	
Viana	40.6%	26.2%	15.3%	86
Kilamba Kiaxi	36.4%	21.0%	13.7%	111
Maianga	25.8%	7.8%	7.0%	83
Cazenga	25.7%	11.1%	10.0%	75
Samba	21.8%	14.8%	15.9%	142
Sambizanga	21.1%	8.0%	8.8%	90
Rangel	15.2%	4.3%	6.5%	61
Ingombota	12.5%	3.0%	5.8%	84
Cacuaco	5.1%	3.7%	17.1%	94
Total	23.4%	100.0%	100.0%	826

Note: The sample was not selected or weighted to match estimates of municipal population (see methodology). While the methodology should reflect the relative size of these government units, it was not designed specifically to estimate this distribution accurately.

Base: n=826 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda—627 nonworking, 189 working, and 10 cases missing work information.

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

Work rates also vary within Luanda by municipality (Table 5.5). The periphery municipalities of Viana, Kilamba Kiaxi, and Cazenga have the highest rates of child labor in the province (40.6 percent, 36.4 percent, and 25.7 percent, respectively). The northeastern municipality of Cacuaco has the lowest rate (5.1 percent), followed by centrally located Ingombota (12.5 percent).

5.2.2 Sociodemographic Characteristics of Working Children

5.2.2.1 Age of Working Children

Age is an important component of child labor participation. According to the 2001 MICS, young children across Angola (aged 5 to 8) are less than half as likely to work as older children (aged 9 to 13). Taking the entire MICS sample into account, one third (33.2 percent) of children aged 9 to 13 work, compared with 15.5 percent of younger workers. This is true in rural areas as well as in urban areas. In rural areas, more than half (51.0 percent) of children aged 9 to 13 work, compared with 24.9 percent of children aged 5 to 8. While the figures are lower in Luanda, the relative difference is similar. In the capital, just fewer than 1 in 10 (9.4 percent) children aged 9 to 13 works, compared with 4.6 percent for younger children.

This pattern, however, does not hold for the rate at which children work while not attending school (Table 5.6). Across the weighted MICS sample, the rate at which children work while not going to school is similar for older children (8.3 percent) as it is for younger children (6.8 percent). In fact, younger children in Luanda are slightly more likely to be working and not in school (2.3 percent compared with 1.7 percent for older children). This difference is due to the fact that many younger children have not yet begun to attend school.

Table 5.6: Child Work by Age and Setting

Setting	Age	Percentage of children working	Percentage of children working and not in school	Percentage of weighted working children sample	Sample size
Luanda	5–8	4.6%	2.3%	27.6%	332
	9–13	9.3%	1.7%	72.4%	426
	Total	7.3%	2.0%	100.0%	758
Other urban	5–8	12.6%	4.8%	27.8%	2,253
	9–13	29.7%	7.0%	72.2%	2,471
	Total	21.5%	5.9%	100.0%	4,724
Rural	5–8	24.9%	12.6%	33.6%	1,281
	9–13	51.0%	13.8%	66.4%	1,241
	Total	37.7%	13.2%	100.0%	2,522
Total	5–8	15.5%	6.8%	30.3%	3,866
	9–13	33.2%	8.3%	69.7%	4,138
	Total	24.7%	7.6%	100.0%	8,004

Base: n=8,004 children (aged 5 to 13) in Angola. n=2,032 working children (aged 5 to 13) (62 in Luanda, 1,017 in other urban areas, and 953 in rural areas).

Source: 2001 MICS.

The 2007 Macro Household Survey reveals a much sharper difference in child labor participation rates between age groups (Table 5.7). In particular, this survey reveals much lower work rates among the youngest age group (1.4 percent for children aged 5 to 8) as compared with the next oldest age group (12.3 percent for children aged 9 to 13). About 4 in 10 (38.8 percent) older children (aged 14 to 17) are currently working. According to these data, this older group represents 82 percent of the working population, but this figure is probably overstated.⁶⁸

Table 5.7: Child Work in Luanda—Worked Last Week by Age

Age group	Percentage who worked last week	Percentage of weighted sample		Sample size
		Working children	All children	
5–8	1.4%	1.1%	18.2%	151
9–13	12.3%	16.8%	32.3%	268
14–17	38.8%	82.0%	49.4%	407
Total	23.4%	100.0%	100.0%	826

Base: n=826 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda—627 nonworking, 189 working, and 10 cases with no working information.

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

5.2.2.2 Gender of Working Children

In Luanda, there are slightly higher rates of child labor among boys (8.6 percent as compared with 6.0 percent for girls), with boys accounting for 61.0 percent of all working children. In other urban areas of Angola, child labor participation rates are virtually the same for boys and girls. Rural areas also have a higher work rate for boys, but again the differences are small. Total figures are disproportionately weighted toward non-Luanda urban and, therefore, show little gender differences in child labor rates. Nationally, it would be expected that work rates would be slightly higher for boys if all rural areas were considered. The proportion of children working while not attending school follows a similar pattern when disaggregated by gender, with differences between them remaining small.

Table 5.8: Child Work by Gender and Setting

Setting	Gender	Percentage of children working	Percentage of children working and not in school	Percentage of weighted working children sample	Sample size (number of children)
Luanda	Male	8.6%	2.7%	61.0%	397
	Female	6.0%	1.2%	39.0%	361
	Total	7.3%	2.0%	100.0%	758
Other urban	Male	20.8%	5.8%	47.8%	2,337
	Female	22.2%	6.1%	52.2%	2,387
	Total	21.5%	5.9%	100.0%	4,724

⁶⁸ It is expected that this figure is overstated because the weighted sample in the Macro Household Survey appears to overrepresent this age group. In this sample, 49.5 percent of children aged 5 to 17 are older than 13. The MICS data from 2001 indicated that this group accounted for 31.1 percent. If the population was weighted to reflect the MICS age distribution, only about half (51.5 percent) of working children would be 14 years or older.

Setting	Gender	Percentage of children working	Percentage of children working and not in school	Percentage of weighted working children sample	Sample size (number of children)
Rural	Male	39.1%	11.9%	50.9%	1,241
	Female	36.4%	14.4%	49.1%	1,281
	Total	37.7%	13.2%	100.0%	2,522
Total	Male	24.6%	7.2%	49.5%	3,975
	Female	24.7%	8.0%	50.5%	4,029
	Total	24.7%	7.6%	100.0%	8,004

Base: n=8,004 children (aged 5 to 13) in Angola. n=2,032 working children (aged 5 to 13) (62 in Luanda, 1,017 in other urban areas, and 953 in rural areas).
Source: 2001 MICS.

The 2007 household survey also shows that boys in Luanda have higher child labor participation rates than girls.⁶⁹ Nearly 3 in 10 (27.0 percent) boys aged 5 to 17 in Luanda were working at the time of the survey, compared with just under 1 in 5 girls (19.8 percent). When limited to children aged 5 to 13 (in order to be comparable with 2001 MICS results), child labor participation rates are much closer—8.9 percent for boys and 7.8 percent for girls (Table 5.9).

Table 5.9: Child Work in Luanda—Worked Last Week by Gender and Age

Age group	Gender	Percentage who worked last week	Percentage of weighted sample		Sample size
			Working children	All children	
5–13	Male	8.9%	48.5%	45.4%	195
	Female	7.8%	51.5%	54.6%	224
	Total	8.3%	100.0%	100.0%	419
14–17	Male	42.3%	59.7%	54.5%	226
	Female	34.5%	40.3%	45.5%	181
	Total	38.8%	100.0%	100.0%	407
Total	Male	27.0%	57.7%	49.9%	421
	Female	19.8%	42.3%	50.1%	405
	Total	23.4%	100.0%	100.0%	826

Base: n=826 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda—627 nonworking and 189 working (32 aged 5 to 13 and 157 aged 14 to 17), and 10 cases with no working information.
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

5.2.2.3 Urban Setting

Luanda is a city that has grown rapidly in its recent history, and this growth had a strong impact on the geography of the city. The core of the city has a limited capacity to house new arrivals, and rising costs of housing have pushed newcomers and locals to the sprawling periphery. For sampling, ICF analysts systematically examined sectors in satellite images to classify them as low, medium,

⁶⁹ This work rate does not include household chores, where girls have higher participation than boys. The discussion on gender and household chores is presented in section 5.5.2.

and high density. Whereas high-density areas are concentrated in the core city, the low- and medium-density areas are predominantly in the periphery and could be considered semiurban.

Children (aged 5 to 17) in medium-density areas are more likely to work than are children in low- and high-density regions, with 27.3 percent of the children in the medium-density areas working, compared with 22.4 percent in high-density areas and 22.0 percent in low-density areas. In terms of overall numbers of working children, however, more than half of Luanda's working children live in high-density urban areas (Table 5.10). This difference is almost completely due to higher work rates among younger children in the medium-density areas. Younger children (aged 5 to 13) are much less likely to work if they live in low-density and high-density areas (8.3 and 6.4 percent, respectively) than if they live in medium-density areas (13.8 percent). One possible explanation for this outcome might be the socioeconomic status of households in different areas of the city. The slums are in the high-density areas, and the semi-urban areas are in the low-density areas. Therefore, children from low socioeconomic backgrounds are more likely to be working than children from households with higher socioeconomic backgrounds. Similarly, children from rural areas are more likely to be working than children from urban areas.

Table 5.10: Child Work in Luanda—Worked Last Week by Density and Age

Age group	Density	Percentage who worked last week	Percentage of weighted sample		Sample size
			Working children	All children	
5–13	High	6.4%	46.2%	60.1%	328
	Medium	13.8%	36.1%	21.8%	66
	Low	8.3%	17.7%	18.1%	25
	Total	8.3%	100.0%	100.0%	419
14–17	High	39.6%	58.8%	57.8%	313
	Medium	40.3%	23.7%	22.9%	68
	Low	34.6%	17.4%	19.3%	26
	Total	38.8%	100.0%	100.0%	407
Total	High	22.4%	56.6%	58.9%	641
	Medium	27.3%	26.0%	22.3%	134
	Low	22.0%	17.5%	18.7%	51
	Total	23.4%	100.0%	100.0%	826

Base: n=826 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda—627 nonworking and 189 working (32 aged 5 to 13 and 157 aged 14 to 17), and 10 cases with no working information.

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

5.2.3 Business Sectors and Occupation

5.2.3.1 Occupation

Occupation and industry data were collected in open-ended questions for all children and adults who worked in the past week. ICF coded these responses into both general and more specific categories. Table 5.11 shows the breakdown of occupations.

A majority of working children in Luanda are involved in the sale of goods. While the table below indicates that only 50.3 percent participate in selling goods, the actual number is higher. For many children, selling the product is the final stage of an endeavor, which they see from beginning to end. For instance, the data indicated that many children were involved in fishing and selling fish or baking and selling bread. Children were also involved in technical services (11.2 percent), with many children identified as mechanics' assistants or otherwise involved in auto and appliance repair, and one 15-year-old was reported to be working as a welder. An equal number of children (11.0 percent) work in occupations related to personal services, with many children washing cars. Others work as hairdressers or as shoe shiners. The next most common occupations for children are agriculture/fishing⁷⁰ (6.9 percent), domestic labor (6.4 percent), and customer service⁷¹ (5.3 percent).

Children represent 10.1 percent of the workforce that responded to the occupation questions, but represent a greater portion of some individual occupations. Children represent 37.8 percent of the personal services workers, 30.9 percent of those fishing, 22.0 percent of food service workers, 17.6 percent of those selling goods, and 15.4 percent of load carriers.

Table 5.11: Occupations by Child Status in Luanda

Category	Occupation	% of workers	% of working children	% of all workers who are children	Sample size
Selling	Seller	28.8%	50.3%	17.6%	537
	Money exchanger	0.8%	0.0%	0.0%	15
	Total	29.6%	50.3%	17.1%	552
Construction-related services	Construction laborer	3.7%	3.9%	10.7%	64
	Electrician	1.3%	0.0%	0.0%	18
	Carpenter	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	18
	Plumber	0.8%	0.0%	0.0%	19
	House painter	0.7%	0.4%	6.5%	14
	Total	7.3%	4.3%	6.0%	133

⁷⁰ Mostly fishing.

⁷¹ Mostly as drivers' helpers (fare collectors).

Category	Occupation	% of workers	% of working children	% of all workers who are children	Sample size
Production of goods	Manufacturer	0.7%	0.7%	10.2%	15
	Artist/artisan	0.5%	0.4%	8.8%	10
	Dressmaker/seamstress/tailor	0.7%	0.0%	0.0%	12
	Food processor/preparer	1.9%	0.9%	4.5%	45
	Total	3.8%	2.0%	5.3%	82
Personal services	Beautician/barber	1.6%	2.2%	13.2%	34
	Car washer	1.0%	7.6%	74.5%	21
	Shoe shiner/repairer	0.2%	1.2%	50.0%	4
	Total	2.9%	10.9%	37.8%	59
Technical services	Mechanic	6.2%	9.5%	15.3%	114
	Industrial service worker (welding, workshop)	1.0%	0.4%	4.5%	20
	Technician	4.1%	1.2%	2.9%	80
	Total	11.3%	11.2%	9.9%	214
Administration	Manager	3.0%	0.9%	2.9%	57
	Accountant	1.7%	0.0%	0.0%	33
	Clerk/secretary	6.9%	0.0%	0.0%	139
	Total	11.6%	0.9%	0.7%	229
Professional services	Activist	0.3%	0.0%	0.0%	5
	Architect/designer	0.4%	0.0%	0.0%	6
	Attorney	0.6%	0.0%	0.0%	12
	Teacher	4.2%	0.0%	0.0%	86
	Economist/statistician	0.3%	0.0%	0.0%	7
	Decorator/designer	0.2%	0.0%	0.0%	5
	Journalist	0.5%	0.8%	0.0%	8
	Doctor/nurse/physical therapist	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%	20
	Engineer	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	16
	Pilot	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	3
	Total	8.5%	0.0%	0.0%	168
Customer service	Food service worker	0.6%	1.3%	22.0%	14
	Fare collector	0.7%	4.0%	62.3%	13
	Customer service worker	2.1%	0.0%	0.0%	34
	Total	3.4%	5.3%	16.2%	61
Domestic	Domestic worker	8.8%	6.4%	7.3%	173
	Total	8.8%	6.4%	7.3%	173

Category	Occupation	% of workers	% of working children	% of all workers who are children	Sample size
Agriculture/ fishing	Fisherman	2.1%	6.5%	30.9%	41
	Agricultural laborer	0.9%	0.4%	4.8%	20
	Total	3.0%	6.9%	23.2%	61
Other	Load carrier*	0.5%	0.7%	15.4%	10
	Other service worker	0.5%	0.0%	0.0%	11
	Security guard	1.1%	0.4%	4.0%	23
	Driver/deliveryman	3.3%	0.4%	1.3%	59
	Entertainer/athlete	0.6%	0.4%	7.1%	11
	Public servant (policeman/fireman/mailman)	1.8%	0.0%	0.0%	30
	Hospital worker	1.9%	0.0%	0.0%	33
	Total	9.7%	1.9%	2.1%	177
Total		100.0%	100.0%	10.1%	1,915
Sample		1,915	187	n/a	n/a

Base: n=1,915 working Luanda residents (5 years old and older).

* Load carriers are typically in the market setting. There were some children who were identified as, for example, carrying bricks, but these children were classified as working as construction laborers.

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

Gender has a strong influence on the occupations in which children participate. The economic activities of girls, for example, are concentrated in a handful of occupations. Three quarters of girls who are working reported selling goods (74.7 percent). Domestic activities are the second most cited occupation for girls (12.4 percent), followed by working as beauticians (5.1 percent). Selling is still the number one occupation for boys—employing nearly one third of boys who work (32.2 percent). Technological services (primarily mechanic professions) employ nearly 1 in 5 working boys (18.3 percent). Driven by car washing, personal services employ the next most boys (16.3 percent), followed by fishing (11.1 percent) and fare collecting (7.6 percent).

Table 5.12: Occupations of Children by Gender in Luanda

Category	Occupation	Percentage of boys who work	Percentage of girls who work
Selling	Seller	32.5%	74.7%
	Total	32.5%	74.7%
Construction-related services	Construction laborer	5.4%	1.7%
	House painter	0.7%	0.0%
	Total	6.2%	1.7%

Category	Occupation	Percentage of boys who work	Percentage of girls who work
Production of goods	Manufacturer	1.3%	0.0%
	Artist/artisan	0.7%	0.0%
	Food processor/preparer	0.7%	1.0%
	Total	2.7%	1.0%
Personal services	Beautician/barber	0.0%	5.1%
	Car washer	13.1%	0.0%
	Shoe shiner/repairer	2.0%	0.0%
	Total	15.1%	5.1%
Technical services	Mechanic	16.3%	0.0%
	Industrial service worker (welding, workshop)	0.0%	1.0%
	Technician	2.0%	0.0%
	Total	18.3%	1.0%
Administration	Manager	0.7%	1.0%
	Total	0.7%	1.0%
Customer service	Food service worker	0.7%	2.0%
	Fare collector	7.6%	0.0%
	Total	8.4%	2.0%
Domestic	Domestic worker	2.0%	12.4%
	Total	2.0%	12.4%
Agriculture/fishing	Fisherman	11.1%	0.0%
	Agriculture laborer	0.0%	1.0%
	Total	11.1%	1.0%
Other	Load carrier	1.3%	0.0%
	Security guard	0.7%	0.0%
	Driver/deliveryman	0.7%	0.0%
	Entertainer/athlete	0.7%	0.0%
	Total	3.5%	0.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%
Sample		114	73

Base: n=187 working children in Luanda (aged 5 to 17).
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

Given the relatively small sample size, it is difficult to definitively identify occupations that disproportionately attract younger workers. The data do show, however, a tendency for younger children (aged 5 to 13) to be overrepresented in occupations related to selling (58.0 percent compared with 48.6 percent for older children), but the median age of children working in this occupation is the same as for other workers. Technical services appear to be less common for

younger children (6.4 percent compared with 12.0 percent), but again, the median age is the same as it is for other working children.

Table 5.13: Occupations of Children by Age in Luanda

Occupation	Age group		Median age	Minimum age	Maximum age	Sample size
	5–13	14–17				
Selling	58.0%	48.6%	16	8	17	87
Construction-related services	2.4%	4.7%	16	10	17	9
Production of goods	0.0%	2.5%	17	16	17	4
Personal services	10.3%	11.0%	15	10	17	22
Technical services	6.4%	12.1%	16	12	17	20
Administration	0.0%	1.0%	16	16	16	2
Customer service	6.4%	5.1%	16	10	17	11
Domestic	7.9%	6.1%	16	7	17	15
Other	6.4%	1.0%	13	10	17	4
Agriculture/fishing	2.4%	7.9%	15	8	17	13
Total	100.0%	100.0%	16	7	17	187
Sample size	32	155	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

Base: n=187 working children in Luanda (aged 5 to 17).

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

5.2.3.2 Industry

The patterns outlined above parallel the analyses of industry. About half (49.8 percent) of children in Luanda participate in retail sales as their primary activity, but as explained earlier, others participate in the sector as part of their work without identifying it as their main activity. A large portion of children (17.2 percent) also work by offering personal services, including domestic services, car washing, shoe shining, and personal care. Children in some numbers also participate in technical services (11.1 percent), such as auto and appliance repair, or are simply identified as mechanics. Other notable sectors include construction (6.3 percent), fishing (6.5 percent), and transportation (4.4 percent).

Retail is one of the sectors in which children represent the highest proportion of the total work force (17.1 percent), particularly in the sale of food (26.5 percent). Other sectors with a disproportionate number of children working in them include fishing (29.7 percent), mechanical and industrial services (20.0 percent), and personal services (14.7 percent).

Table 5.14: Industry by Child Status in Luanda

Category	Industry	% of workers	% of working children	% of all workers who are children	Sample size
Retail	Retail—food	13.9%	36.4%	26.5%	268
	Retail—other	13.7%	12.0%	8.8%	261
	Retail—cell phones/repair	1.8%	1.3%	7.2%	26
	Total	29.8%	49.8%	17.1%	555
Manufacturing	Crafts	0.3%	0.4%	13.0%	7
	Food processing	1.3%	0.9%	6.7%	29
	Manufacturing	1.0%	0.7%	7.3%	16
	Total	2.7%	2.0%	7.7%	52
Restaurant/ hotel	Restaurant	1.5%	1.3%	8.7%	28
	Hotel	0.8%	0.0%	0.0%	17
	Total	2.3%	1.3%	5.6%	45
Personal services	Personal services	1.8%	3.3%	18.5%	37
	Car washing	1.0%	7.5%	74.5%	21
	Domestic services	9.0%	6.4%	7.1%	180
	Total	12.0%	17.3%	14.7%	238
Construction	Construction	8.7%	6.3%	7.4%	157
	Total	8.7%	6.3%	7.4%	157
Transportation	Transportation	3.6%	4.4%	12.7%	68
	Air transportation/travel	1.3%	0.0%	0.0%	23
	Total	4.9%	4.4%	9.3%	91
Agriculture and fishing	Fishing	2.2%	6.5%	29.7%	43
	Agriculture	1.1%	0.4%	4.0%	24
	Total	3.3%	6.9%	21.2%	67
Financial and business services	Business services	2.6%	0.0%	0.0%	47
	Banking	2.6%	0.0%	0.0%	54
	Total	5.2%	0.0%	0.0%	101
Communications	Telecommunications	0.8%	0.0%	0.0%	12
	Communications	1.1%	0.0%	0.0%	21
	Total	1.8%	0.0%	0.0%	33
Community services	Health	3.7%	0.0%	0.0%	69
	Education	4.5%	0.0%	0.0%	91
	Utilities	0.4%	0.0%	0.0%	7
	NGO	0.8%	0.0%	0.0%	12
	Total	9.5%	0.0%	0.0%	179

Category	Industry	% of workers	% of working children	% of all workers who are children	Sample size
Technical services	Mechanical and industrial services	4.2%	8.2%	20.0%	83
	Computer-related services	1.8%	0.4%	2.4%	34
	Automotive services*	5.5%	2.4%	4.5%	103
	Total	11.6%	11.1%	9.8%	220
Other services	Other service	0.7%	0.0%	0.0%	15
	Entertainment/sports	1.0%	0.4%	4.4%	20
	Security services	1.4%	0.4%	3.1%	29
	Total	3.1%	0.9%	2.8%	64
Diamonds and petroleum	Petroleum	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%	15
	Diamonds	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1
	Total	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%	16
Government	Government	3.9%	0.0%	0.0%	69
	Total	3.9%	0.0%	0.0%	69
Total		100.0%	100.0%	10.1%	1,887
Sample		1,887	187	n/a	n/a

Base: n=1,887 working Luanda residents (5 years old and older).

* Many mechanical and industrial services employees are identified only as mechanics. It is, therefore, likely that some of these should in fact be placed in the automotive services sector.

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

As is true for many occupations, girls' economic activities are also concentrated in a fewer number of industries than those of boys. Almost three quarters (71.9 percent) of working girls work in retail trade, with more than half (55.5 percent) involved in the selling of food. Roughly the same proportion of girls as boys work in personal services industries (17.6 and 17.0 percent, respectively). The next most important sector for girls who work is construction (5.5 percent). While girls were a minority in the building occupation, many are involved in the building supplies industry. Boys work in much larger numbers in technical services (18.4 percent), fishing (11.2 percent), and transportation (7.6 percent)—industries that have few girls.

Table 5.15: Industry by Gender in Luanda

Category	Industry	Percentage of boys who work	Percentage of girls who work
Retail	Retail—food	22.5%	55.5%
	Retail—other	8.8%	16.3%
	Retail—cell phones/repair	2.2%	0.0%
	Total	33.7%	71.9%

Category	Industry	Percentage of boys who work	Percentage of girls who work
Manufacturing	Crafts	0.7%	0.0%
	Food processing	0.7%	1.0%
	Manufacturing	1.3%	0.0%
	Total	2.7%	1.0%
Restaurant/hotel	Restaurant	0.7%	2.0%
	Total	0.7%	2.0%
Personal services	Personal services	2.0%	5.1%
	Car washing	13.0%	0.0%
	Domestic services	2.0%	12.4%
	Total	17.1%	17.6%
Construction	Construction	6.9%	5.5%
	Total	6.9%	5.5%
Transportation	Transportation	7.6%	0.0%
	Total	7.7%	0.0%
Agriculture and fishing	Fishing	11.1%	0.0%
	Agriculture	0.0%	1.0%
	Total	11.2%	1.0%
Technical services	Mechanical and industrial services	13.4%	1.0%
	Computer-related services	0.7%	0.0%
	Automotive services	4.1%	0.0%
	Total	18.4%	1.0%
Other	Entertainment/sports	0.7%	0.0%
	Security services	0.7%	0.0%
	Total	1.5%	0.0%
Total		100.0%	100.0%
Sample size		114	73

Base: n=187 working children in Luanda (aged 5 to 17).
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

As reported in the section on occupations, limitations in the sample size make it difficult to definitively determine whether certain industries are deliberately attracting younger workers. The data tend to indicate that the construction sector utilizes the labor of younger children, but this is based only on 11 identified cases. The median age of this sample is 14, which is 2 years below the median age for all working children. This was not the case for the construction occupation, indicating that the difference is likely due to younger workers in the construction supply chain. The agriculture and fishing sector attracts a broad range of ages (8 to 17), but older children are more likely to work in this industry. Technical services also appear to attract older child workers.

Table 5.16: Occupations of Children by Age in Luanda

Industry	Age group		Median age	Minimum age	Maximum age	Sample size
	5–13	14–17				
Retail	53.2%	49.1%	16	8	17	88
Manufacturing	0.0%	2.5%	17	16	17	4
Restaurant/hotel	0.0%	1.6%	17	17	17	3
Personal services	18.2%	17.1%	16	7	17	37
Construction	13.6%	4.7%	14	10	17	11
Transportation	6.4%	4.0%	16	10	17	9
Agriculture and fishing	2.4%	7.9%	15	8	17	13
Technical services	6.4%	12.1%	16	12	17	20
Other services	0.0%	1.0%	17	17	17	2
Sample	32	155	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

Base: n=187 working children in Luanda (aged 5 to 17).

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

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6 WORK CHARACTERISTICS

6.1 HOURS/DAYS WORKED

The 2007 Macro Household Survey reveals that there is little difference between the time children spend at work and the time that adults spend at work. Table 6.1 shows descriptive statistics of both usual and actual work hours for all working household members and for working children in Luanda. For working children, the mean value for usual working hours per week is 42.7 hours, which is less than 2 hours shorter than the average typical week for adults (44.3 hours). Similarly, the actual hours spent in the past week for working children are only slightly lower than those of adults (39.4 hours compared with 41.9 hours). In both cases, values indicate that adults work slightly more hours than children. However, when median values are considered instead, the difference between adults and children disappears. Overall, it is worth noting that working children, on average, work almost the same hours as adults work.

Table 6.1: Descriptive Statistics of Work Hours per Week

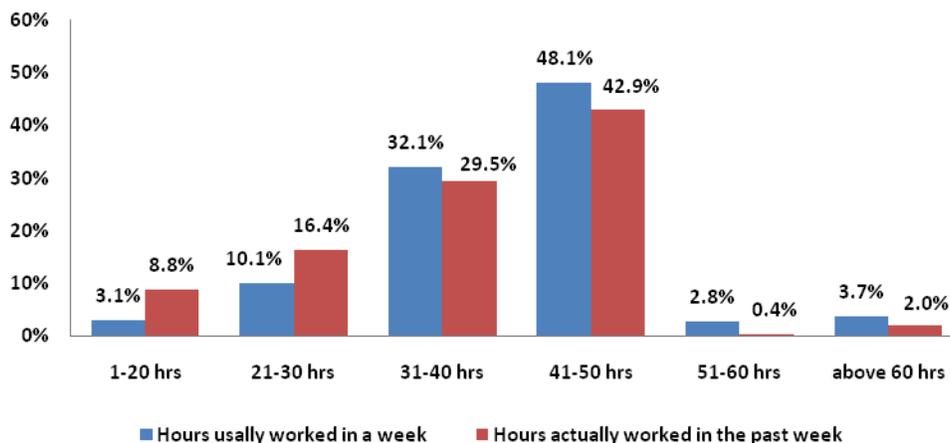
Status	Group	Mean	Median	Standard deviation	Min	Max	Sample
Usual work hours per week	All working household members	44.4	42.0	9.5	14.00	98.00	1.913
	Working children only	42.7	42.0	10.1	16.00	84.00	187
Actual worked hours in the past week	All working household members	42.1	40.0	9.6	5.00	99.00	1.903
	Working children only	39.4	40.0	9.9	16.00	80.00	185

Base: n=1,920 working Luanda residents (5 years old and older).

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

Chart 6.1 presents the distribution of weekly hours usually and actually worked by children in Luanda, according to adult respondents. As the chart shows, more than 70 percent of children usually work or actually worked for more than 30 hours in the past week. The hours worked included in the chart do not include other normal domestic activities, such as cooking, cleaning, child and adult care services, and other tasks carried out by children. Therefore, in terms of the amount of time spent on labor activity, the burden on the majority of working children in Luanda is much more than that of a full-time (8 hours per day) work week.

Chart 6.1: Number of Hours Worked per Week



Base: n=187 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda, Angola who worked in the week preceding the survey.

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

The 2007 Macro Household Survey does indicate somewhat shorter work weeks for children under age 14. The median child between ages 5 and 13 works 5 hours less than does the median child aged 14 to 17. A difference similar in magnitude is also apparent in the mean hours worked.

Table 6.2: Descriptive Statistics of Last Week's Work Hours by Age Group

Age group	Median	Mean	Standard deviation	Sample
5–13	35.0	35.6	9.5	31
14–17	40.0	40.2	9.8	154
Total	40.0	39.7	10.6	185

Base: n=185 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda, Angola who worked in the week preceding the survey.

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

There is little difference in hours worked by gender of the working child. The median girl worked 2 hours longer than the median boy, but the mean hours worked are nearly equal. When household chores are considered, however, girls devote more time to laboring than do boys (see section 6.7.2).

Table 6.3: Descriptive Statistics for Last Week's Work Hours by Gender

Gender	Median	Mean	Standard deviation	N
Male	40	39.2	10.4	112
Female	42	39.7	9.0	73
Total	40	39.4	9.9	185

Base: n=185 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda, Angola who worked in the week preceding the survey.

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

Table 6.4 shows that school attendance in the past year has no net relationship with hours worked. While the lack of difference is greatly due to the fact that the survey took place during a school break, any relationship that may exist could be canceled out by a complex age effect. Hypothetically, young children who have not entered school are not very likely to work. Older children who are out of school would potentially work more, since they have immersed themselves into the labor market year round. The data, however, are too limited to confirm this effect.

Table 6.4: Descriptive Statistics for Last Week's Work Hours by School Attendance Status

Attended school at any time in the past academic year	Median	Mean	Standard deviation	N
Yes	40	39.5	9.6	163
No	40	38.3	12.0	21
Total	40	39.4	9.9	184

Base: n=184 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda, Angola who worked in the week preceding the survey.
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

Table 6.5 presents working children's responses regarding the number of hours worked each day in the week that preceded the survey. According to their responses, working children in Luanda worked about 40 hours per week on average. Approximately 70 to 80 percent of the respondents indicated that they worked all days (from Monday to Saturday). Although Sunday is generally not a workday, 31 percent of the respondents reported that they worked, on average, 6 hours on Sunday, which is 1 to 2 hours lower than the median value for other workdays.

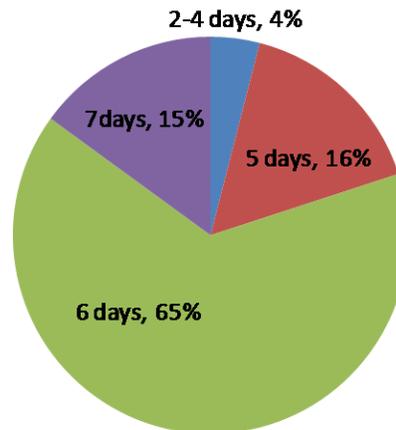
Table 6.5: Descriptive Statistics of Workday Hours of Children

Workdays	Mean	Median	Standard deviation	Number of children worked on that day	Percentage of total respondents
Monday	8.2	8.0	3.9	146	79%
Tuesday	7.7	8.0	3.1	142	79%
Wednesday	7.8	8.0	3.2	139	75%
Thursday	7.7	8.0	3.3	138	74%
Friday	7.7	8.0	3.2	133	72%
Saturday	7.4	8.0	3.5	130	70%
Sunday	6.6	6.0	3.6	58	33%
Total	36.9	36.0	24.4	187	100%

Base: n=188 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda, Angola who worked in the week preceding the survey. (One case missing time worked).
Source: 2007 Macro Working Children Survey.

Respondents to the household questionnaire were asked to indicate the number of days that each working child in the household worked during the week preceding the survey (Chart 6.2). According to respondents, about 62 percent of working children worked 6 days in the past week, about 17 percent worked 7 days, and about 18 percent worked 5 days. It is also reported that a few (about 3 percent of working children) worked 4 days or less in the week preceding the survey.

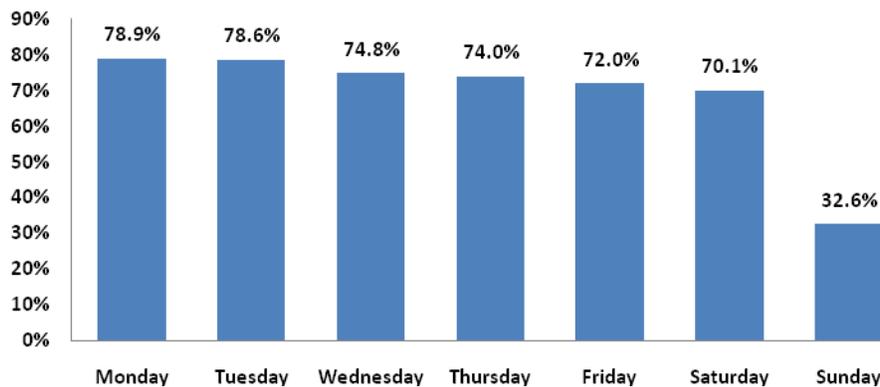
Chart 6.2: Number of Days Worked per Week



Base: n=187 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda, Angola who worked in the week preceding the survey.
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

According to the results from the survey data on working children, weekdays from Monday to Friday, as well as Saturday, are major working days. As presented in Chart 6.3, the distribution of the responses is almost the same; the chart is relatively flat on all 6 days from Monday to Saturday, with slightly more children working in the beginning of the week. However, Sunday is mentioned by only approximately 33 percent of the respondents. This means that nearly two thirds of working children rested on Sundays.

Chart 6.3: Working Days Reported by Working Children



Base: n=187 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda, Angola who worked in the week preceding the survey.
Source: 2007 Macro Child Survey.

6.2 EARNINGS

About 78 percent of working children in Luanda reported receiving earned income in the week preceding the survey. Some working children also indicated that they received payments in kind, including food (25.5 percent), clothes (12.0 percent), shelter (4.6 percent), and transport (6.8 percent). The aforementioned items were reported as benefits received in kind in addition to the salary.

Data on earnings are generally unreliable, due to potential measurement errors resulting from the contamination of misreporting. One of these common problems is the presence of outliers (values at least three standard deviations away from the mean). The following subsections on weekly, hourly, and daily earnings report averages after having controlled for these outliers.

6.2.1 Weekly Earnings

According to the responses obtained from the working children survey, approximately 78 percent of the respondents reported that they received earned income in the week preceding the survey.⁷² As presented in Table 6.6, the median actual weekly earnings and a typical week's earnings are the same: 4,000 Angolan Kwanza,⁷³ or approximately US\$52.⁷⁴ The standard deviation is large, and the distribution in general exhibits the presence of substantial variation.

Table 6.6: Descriptive Statistics for Actual and Usual Weekly Earnings

Rate	Measure of descriptive statistics	Weekly income (Angolan Kwanza)
Weekly rate (actual in the past week)	Mean	6,589.1
	5% trimmed mean	5,695.2
	Median	4,000.0
	Standard deviation	6,898.3
	Minimum	50
	Maximum	50,000
Weekly rate (usual in a typical week)	Mean	6,661.5
	5% trimmed mean	5,772.1
	Median	4,000.0
	Standard deviation	7,437.4
	Minimum	50
	Maximum	42,000

Note: Values exclude a few respondents who said that they did not earn income in the last week or do not usually earn income. One extreme value was also excluded in the above description. Mean, median, minimum, and maximum values are in Angolan Kwanza.

Base: n=188 working children (aged 5 to 17).

Source: 2007 Macro Working Children Survey.

In the household survey, adults were asked to estimate the average monthly earnings of all working children in the household. According to the adults' responses, the average monthly earnings of working children, divided by 4 weeks, are about 2,000 Angolan Kwanza. The weekly

⁷² Working children were asked to report their earned income in the week preceding the survey. Out of the total 188 working children, 145 reported that they received earned income, 14 reported no income, and the remaining 28 refused to respond to the weekly earnings question. The 78 percent indicated here is weighted.

⁷³ This similarity between actual and typical weekly earnings might be due to the setup of the questionnaire, which asks these two questions consecutively. In this case, the actual earnings question was asked first, and it is likely that children said "same or almost same, similar, etc." in the subsequent typical week question.

⁷⁴ The 2007 currency rate obtained from the CIA World Factbook shows that US\$1 was 76.6 Angolan Kwanza. Available at <http://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ao.html#Econ>.

earnings of working children reported by adult respondents are about half of the amount obtained when the working children themselves were asked.

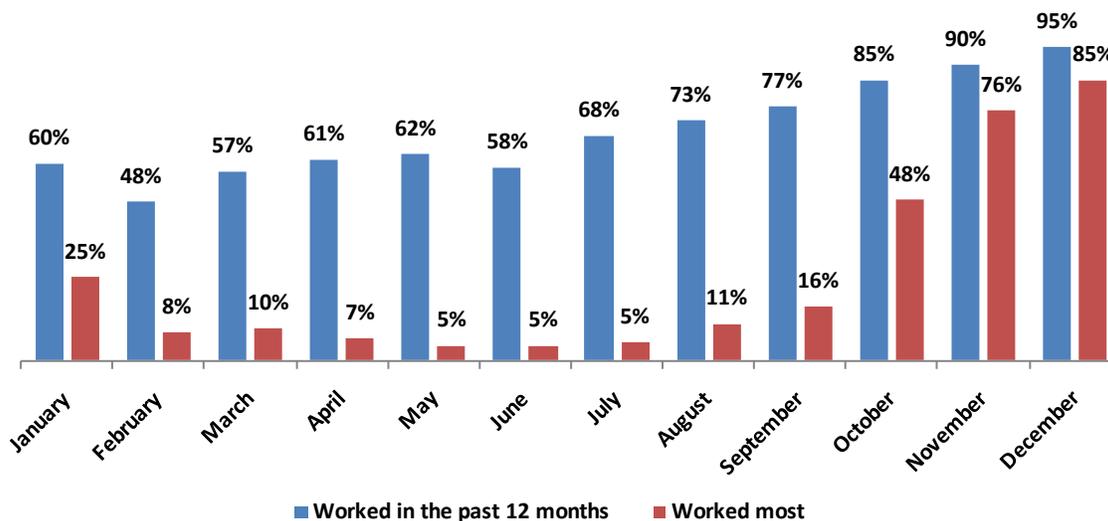
6.3 SEASONALITY

The data reveal that, while most children work throughout the year, the height of their activity was in the fall. Working children were asked about the seasonality of their work. More than 3 in 5 working children (62.8 percent) indicate that they work the same amount throughout the year. Owing to the fact that the study is entirely urban based, where there is little or no agricultural activity, the absence of seasonality is expected.

When children who were identified as seasonal workers were asked to identify in what months they worked, they revealed that October, November, and December were the most worked months; in any of these 3 months, more than 96 percent of working children are working.⁷⁵ This makes sense because school vacations start in late October. Also, it is likely that many children are working in retail trades that are busy in the months before Christmas.

Children who were identified as seasonal workers were also asked in what months they worked the most. The results show clearly that November and December are the months when children work the most.

Chart 6.4: Seasonality of Child Workers—Months Worked



Base: n=70 (for months worked) and n=70 (for months worked most) responding seasonal working children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda, Angola who worked in the week preceding the survey (70 seasonal and 118 nonseasonal).

Source: 2007 Macro Working Children Survey.

⁷⁵ It is important to note that the December figure is likely to be overstated. Since the survey was conducted in December, nearly all (if not all) respondents should have worked in December.

6.4 ENTRANCE INTO WORK

Although the minimum working age in Angola is 14 years, about half (49.6 percent) of the working children included in this survey reported that they started working at a younger age (5 to 13).⁷⁶ Only 24 percent of the respondents reported that they started working after their 14th birthday. These numbers are somewhat misleading because of the large number of “don’t know” responses. If these responses are excluded, the median starting age that the children entered work is 12. The actual figure may be lower because these are self-reported figures. A “don’t know” response in this case is likely to indicate that the child started work at an early age.

Girls are more likely to start work young (age 5 to 8) and more likely to indicate that they do not know how old they were when they started—also a possible indicator of young starting age. However, the median starting age of girls is 1 year older than that of boys.

Table 6.7: Frequency Distribution and Descriptive Statistics of Work-Starting Age by Gender

Work-starting age	Male	Female	Total
5–8	2.2%	7.6%	4.4%
9–13	47.8%	41.4%	45.1%
14–17	27.8%	21.9%	25.4%
Don't know	22.2%	29.1%	25.1%
Sample size	116	72	188
Median	12	13	12
Mean	12.4	12.4	12.4
Standard deviation	2.31	2.65	2.45
Sample size*	90	53	143

Base: n=188 working children (aged 5 to 17).

*Sample excludes children who responded “don’t know.”

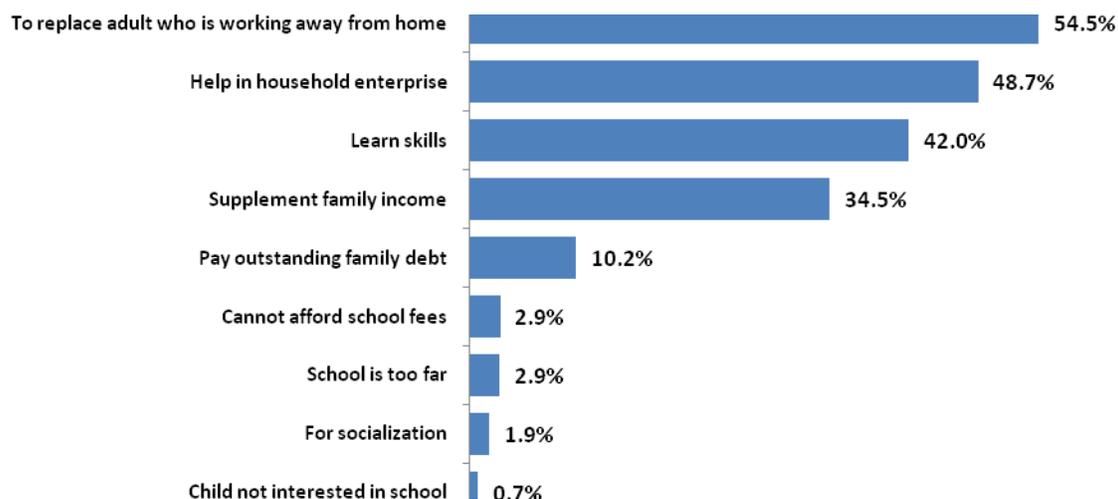
Source: 2007 Macro Working Children Survey.

6.5 REPORTED REASONS TO WORK

Chart 6.5 presents responses provided by adult respondents on the reasons why the child in the household works. In order of importance, the top four reasons are: (1) to replace adult working household member who is working away from home, (2) to help in household enterprise, (3) to learn skills, and (4) to supplement family income. To pay outstanding family debt is also mentioned in 10 percent of the cases. No considerable response is obtained from adults on school-related and other factors that might have influenced the child to work.

⁷⁶ Moreover, one quarter of respondents do not know their work-starting age. Therefore, the proportion of children who started working at a younger age than the minimum allowed is likely to be higher than that.

Chart 6.5: Reported Reasons to Work



Note: The values are based on adult respondents. The respondents were asked to report up to two reasons. Therefore, due to the presence of more than 1 response, the percentages do not sum up to 100.

Base: n=185 working children (aged 5 to 17).

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

Table 6.8 disaggregates reported reasons why children work by gender of the child. The table shows no substantial gender differences in reported reasons. The top four reasons are the same for both boys and girls. However, there are slight variations within the top four factors mentioned as major reasons. For instance, adults reported the need for boys to replace income lost, with family members working away from home as the most important reason to work. However, helping in the household enterprise is the most important reason for girls. Similarly, “learning skills” is the second most mentioned for boys, and third for girls. Another important gender difference is found in paying outstanding family debt, mentioned as a reason by 16.5 percent of working girls and by only 5.7 percent of working boys.

Table 6.8: Reported Reasons to Work by Gender

Reason	Male	Reason	Female
Replace adult who is working away from home	60.6%	Help in household enterprise	59.0%
Learn skills	43.7%	Replace adult who is working away from home	46.1%
Help in household enterprise	41.4%	Learn skills	39.7%
Supplement family income	35.5%	Supplement family income	33.1%
Pay outstanding family debt	5.7%	Pay outstanding family debt	16.5%
Cannot afford school fees	4.2%	School is too far	1.0%
School is too far	4.2%	Cannot afford school fees	1.0%
Socialization	2.7%	Socialization	0.7%
Child not interested in school	1.3%	Child not interested in school	0.0%
Sample size	114	Sample size	71

Note: The values are based on adult respondents. Due to the presence of more than 1 response, the percentages do not sum up to 100.

Base: n=185 children (aged 5 to 17).

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

Table 6.9 classifies reported reasons to work by age group. The table shows no substantial age differences in reported reasons to work by adults. The first four reasons are the same for all three age groups. However, similar to gender, it seems that there exist some variations in importance within the top four reasons mentioned as major reasons. The differences are small, however, relative to the available sample size.

Table 6.9: Reported Reasons to Work by Age Group

Reason	5–13	Reason	14–17
Help in household enterprise	52.8%	Replace adult who is working away from home	56.4%
Replace adult who is working away from home	46.2%	Help in household enterprise	47.9%
Supplement family income	42.4%	Learn skills	42.3%
Learn skills	40.7%	Supplement family income	32.8%
Pay outstanding family debt	13.8%	Pay outstanding family debt	9.4%
Child not interested in school	4.1%	Cannot afford school fees	3.6%
School is too far	0.0%	School is too far	3.5%
Cannot afford school fees	0.0%	Socialization	2.3%
Socialization	0.0%	Child not interested in school	0.0%
Sample size	31	Sample size	154

Note: The values are based on adult respondents. Due to the presence of more than 1 response, the percentages do not sum up to 100.

Base: n=185 children (aged 5 to 17).

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

6.6 CHILD WORK LOCATIONS

6.6.1 Work Locations of Adults and Children

Table 6.10 presents work locations for working adults and working children. The table also shows the percentage of workers at that location who are children.

Almost half (49.3 percent) of children work on the street in fixed locations (28.9 percent) or are mobile in different places for their work (20.4 percent). Other common work locations for children are in shops and markets (16.3 percent) and at home (14.2 percent). Children represent a disproportionately large portion of those working on the street in fixed locations. While only 9.8 percent of the workforce is children, they represent 29.3 percent of those who work on the street.

Table 6.10: Work Locations for Adults and Children

Work locations for main activity	Percentage of working adults	Percentage of working children	Percentage of workers who are children	Sample size
(His/her) family dwelling	11.2%	14.2%	12.4%	230
Employer's house	6.4%	2.0%	3.4%	113
Formal office	15.4%	0.0%	0.0%	281
Factory/atelier	2.7%	0.0%	0.0%	48
Plantation/farm/garden	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	16
Construction sites	5.0%	4.7%	9.6%	90
Mines or quarrying sites	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	2
Shop/market/kiosk/coffee house	16.0%	16.3%	10.3%	301
Different places (mobile)	17.3%	20.4%	11.7%	327
On the street (fixed place)	7.8%	28.9%	29.3%	184
On the water/sea	1.6%	6.8%	31.4%	42
Other	15.7%	6.8%	4.6%	279
Sample size	1,726	187	n/a	n/a

Base: 1,913 adults and children (aged 5 and older) in Luanda who worked in the past week.

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

6.6.2 Work Locations by Gender

Table 6.11 shows work locations by gender of working children. It shows that, in terms of work locations, girls are concentrated in three places: (1) family dwelling, (2) shop/market/kiosk/coffee house, and (3) in the street (fixed location).

The three important locations for boys are: (1) in different places (mobile), (2) on the street (fixed), and (3) on the sea.

Table 6.11: Work Locations of Children by Gender

Work locations for main activity	Gender		Total
	Male	Female	
(His/her) family dwelling	6.7%	24.3%	14.2%
Employer's house	2.0%	2.0%	2.0%
Construction sites	6.2%	2.7%	4.7%
Shop/market/kiosk/coffee house	9.6%	25.6%	16.3%
Different places (mobile)	29.1%	8.4%	20.4%
On the street (fixed place)	27.3%	31.1%	28.9%
On the water/sea	11.7%	0.0%	6.8%
Other	7.5%	5.8%	6.8%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Sample size	114	73	187

Base: 187 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda who worked in the past week.

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

6.6.3 Work Locations by Age

Table 6.12 shows children’s work locations by age group.⁷⁷ On the street in a fixed location is the number one location for both age groups, but younger children are more likely to work in this location (41.4 percent compared with 26.1 percent for older children). In different places (or mobile) is identified as the second most common location for both groups, but in this case, there is little difference between age groups. Younger children are more likely to work at home and less likely to work in shops and markets.

Table 6.12: Work Locations of Children by Age

Work locations	Age group		Total
	5–13	14–17	
(His/her) family dwelling	18.9%	13.1%	14.2%
Employer’s house	0.0%	2.4%	2.0%
Construction sites	4.7%	4.7%	4.7%
Shop/market/kiosk/coffee house	4.0%	19.0%	16.3%
Different places (mobile)	24.7%	19.4%	20.4%
On the street (fixed place)	41.4%	26.1%	28.9%
On the water/sea	0.0%	8.2%	6.8%
Other	6.4%	6.9%	6.8%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Sample size	32	155	187

Base: 187 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda who worked in the past week.
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

6.7 CHILD WORK AND HOUSEHOLD CHORES

6.7.1 Chores: Types of Activities and Prevalence

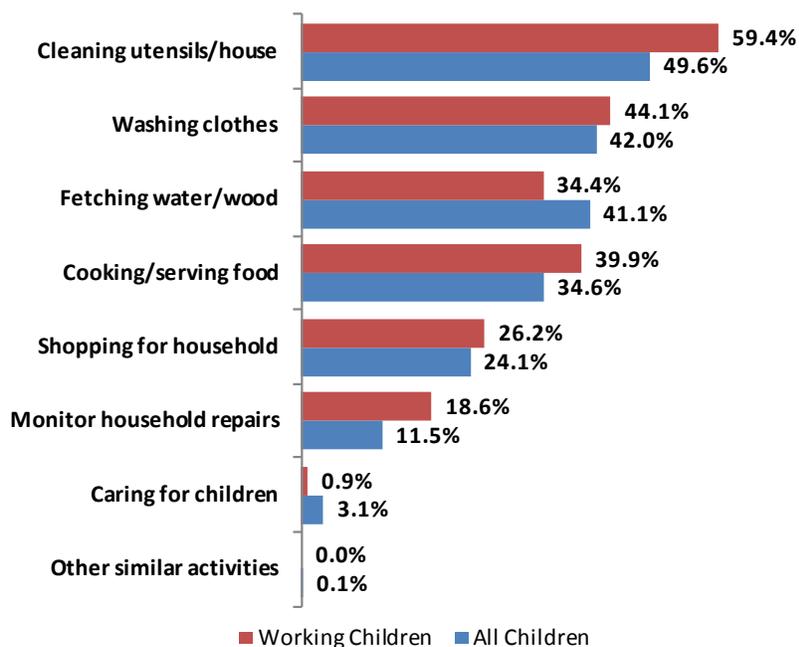
Household chore activities are carried out by both adults and children. About 48 percent of children reported working on 1 or more household chores in the past week for at least an hour. This rate is slightly higher for working children (approximately 54 percent).⁷⁸

Chart 6.6 shows that, in Luanda, these activities for children include cleaning utensils/house, washing clothes, fetching water/wood, cooking/serving food, shopping for the household, minor household repairs, caring for children, and other similar activities (in order of importance). Working children do similar chores as nonworking children.

⁷⁷ As indicated earlier in other sections of this report, comparison between the 2 age groups is constrained by the small sample size of working children under 14 years old.

⁷⁸ “Working” and “nonworking” are in reference to child work other than normal household activities. If not hired as a housemaid or for these specific activities, chores carried out by household members are not regarded as work proper in the sense of child labor.

Chart 6.6: Types of Household Chores Carried Out by Children



Base: n=372 children (aged 5 to 17) who worked on household chores in the past week and reported the type of household chores done.
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

On average, children aged 5 to 17 in Luanda who do chores spend about 2.7 hours per week on them. The survey results show that, on average, working children do slightly more chores, averaging 2.9 hours per week as compared with 2.6 hours for nonworking children. The average number of hours worked by working children is reflected in both the household survey, for which respondents were adults, and in the working child survey, for which respondents were working children themselves.⁷⁹

Table 6.13 presents the number of hours spent on chores in 4 categories for working and nonworking children. In all cases, more than 95 percent do less than 10 hours per week of chores. Only 3.1 percent of working children spend more than 10 hours per week on chores—slightly higher than for nonworking children (1.1 percent).

⁷⁹ The mean is the same for working children in the household survey and working children in the working child survey. However, the median is about 6 hours in the household survey and 4 hours in the child survey.

Table 6.13: Hours Spent on Chores per Week by Work Status

Number of hours	Nonworking	Working	Total
None	53.9%	46.0%	52.0%
1 to 5 hours	20.1%	26.8%	21.7%
6 to 10 hours	25.0%	24.0%	24.8%
More than 10 hours	1.1%	3.1%	1.6%
Mean	2.6	2.9	2.7
Standard deviation	3.3	3.6	3.4
Sample size	624	189	813

Base: n=813 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda, Angola.
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

Household activities are performed by both boys and girls in all age groups. Disaggregating chores by both gender and age reveals some important differences, both in the type of activities in which they specialize and the amount of hours each group spends on chores.

6.7.2 Chores and Gender

Girls in general, and working girls in particular, are more likely to do chores and spend more time doing them than their male counterparts. More than half of girls (55.1 percent) did chores the week preceding the survey, compared with only 41.1 percent for boys. The difference is larger for working girls, with 71.0 percent of working girls and 41.5 percent of working boys doing chores. Girls who do chores spend more time doing them than boys do. The mean hours of chores is more than an hour less for boys than for girls, and more than two hours less for working boys than for working girls.

Table 6.14: Hours Spent on Chores per Week by Gender

Number of hours	All		Working	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	58.4%	45.6%	58.5%	29.0%
1 to 5 hours	21.6%	21.7%	26.1%	27.7%
6 to 10 hours	19.5%	30.1%	14.6%	36.8%
More than 10 hours	0.5%	2.6%	0.7%	6.4%
Median	0	2	0	4
Mean	2.1	3.2	1.9	4.4
Standard deviation	2.9	3.7	2.8	4.1
Sample size	416	397	115	74

Base: n=815 children (aged 5 to 17).
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

Boys and girls often specialize in different activities of household chores. Table 6.15 reports on gender-differentiated household activities, based on the actual chore activities performed by each group during the week preceding the survey. In order of importance, the top four chores carried out by boys are fetching water or wood, cleaning utensils or the house, washing clothes, and shopping for the household. For girls, cleaning utensils or the house ranks first, followed by cooking or serving food, washing clothes, and fetching water or wood. Another observation is that in all categories, the number of affirmative responses is higher for girls than for boys, implying that girls do a larger number of chores while boys will concentrate on fewer activities. Again, working children do similar chores as nonworking children.

Table 6.15: Household Chores Performed by Gender

Type of chore	All		Working	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Cooking/serving food	18.1%	47.3%	23.3%	53.6%
Shopping for household	24.4%	24.7%	22.7%	29.0%
Cleaning utensils/house	45.4%	52.5%	54.4%	57.7%
Washing clothes	38.8%	44.9%	32.9%	53.4%
Doing minor household repairs	14.6%	9.0%	19.3%	18.1%
Fetching water/wood	52.6%	31.5%	42.6%	27.7%
Caring for children	0.9%	5.4%	0.0%	1.6%
Caring for the old/sick	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Other similar activities	0.0%	0.2%	0.0%	0.0%
Sample size	163	213	43	51

Base: n=376 children (aged 5 to 17) who worked on household chores in the past week.
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

6.7.3 Chores and Age

Older children, on average, spend more time on chores than younger children. Only 38.8 percent of children aged 13 and younger participate in household chores, compared with 57.6 percent of older children. For working children, however, this does not hold true, with younger working children being just as likely to do chores as older working children. Older children, on average, do an hour more of chores than their younger counterparts. This pattern, however, is not present in working children. The results here seem to indicate that differences in the amount of chores done when comparing children by work status are more a result of age differences than work.

Table 6.16: Hours Spent on Chores per Week by Age

Number of hours	All		Working	
	5–13	14–17	5–13	14–17
None	61.6%	42.4%	46.1%	46.0%
1 to 5 hours	15.7%	27.6%	15.0%	29.4%
6 to 10 hours	22.3%	27.3%	38.9%	20.7%
More than 10 hours	0.3%	2.8%	0.0%	3.8%
Median	0	2	3	2
Mean	2.1	3.2	3.1	2.9
Standard deviation	3.1	3.5	3.1	3.7
Sample size	412	401	32	157

Base: n=813 children (aged 5 to 17).

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

There are few notable differences between the types of chores that younger and older children do. Older children are more likely to cook and serve food and do minor repairs on the house. This pattern is not apparent when analyzing the difference between the chores of younger and older working children. It is difficult, however, to make detailed comparisons because of the small sample size.

Table 6.17: Household Chores Performed by Age

Type of chore	All		Working	
	5–13	14–17	5–13	14–17
Cooking/serving food	30.2%	37.6%	40.5%	39.8%
Shopping for household	25.1%	24.3%	21.3%	27.0%
Cleaning utensils/house	46.9%	51.0%	60.1%	55.5%
Washing clothes	43.0%	41.8%	30.7%	46.5%
Doing minor household repairs	8.8%	13.0%	21.3%	18.2%
Fetching water/wood	39.8%	41.1%	40.5%	33.3%
Caring for children	3.0%	3.7%	0.0%	1.0%
Caring for the old/sick	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Other similar activities	0.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Sample size	152	224	16	78

Base: n=376 children (aged 5 to 17) who worked on household chores in the past week.

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

6.7.4 Work and Chores

The total hours spent by children doing chores and work in the week preceding the survey averaged 42.5 hours, with a median of 42. These figures vary substantially by gender and age. While the sample is small, the data reveal that younger working children (aged 5 to 13) spend considerably less time on chores and work (in terms of median and mean) than do older working children. The gender difference is also substantial, with the median working girl spending 5 hours more on work and chores than the median working boy.

Table 6.18: Hours Spent on Chores and Work per Week by Age and Gender

Hours spent	Age		Gender		Total
	5–13	14–17	Male	Female	
Median	37	44	42	47	42
Mean	38.8	43.1	41.2	44.3	42.4
Standard deviation	10.0	9.8	10.7	9.7	10.4
Sample size	31	154	112	73	185

Base: n=186 children (aged 5 to 17) who worked in the past week.
 Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

7 CHILD WORK AND SELECTED HOUSEHOLD AND DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

7.1 CHILD WORK AND HOUSEHOLD SIZE

In Luanda, there is an inverse relationship between the work rates of children and the size of the household in which the child lives. The 2007 Macro Household Survey reveals that small households have higher child labor participation rates (Table 7.1). At the time of the study, 13.4 percent of children in large households (7 to 13 members) were working—less than half the rate for smaller families (28.4 percent). Particularly, younger children (aged 5 to 13) in large households have low child labor rates (1.3 percent) compared with 12.0 percent for younger children in smaller households.

An explanation for this strong relationship is somewhat elusive. One theory would be that larger households require more work to maintain and manage, and that child labor activity is directed to household chores. The data reveal that nonworking children from larger families (5 household members or more) are twice as likely to do household chores (53.1 percent compared with 24.1 percent for children from smaller families). The reported hours of chores, however, appear not to confirm a simple shift of available resources to domestic activities.

Another factor may be related to wealth. It appears that larger households are wealthier. For instance, computer ownership is twice as high for children in households with seven members or more than in households with four members or less.

Table 7.1: Child Work in Luanda—Worked Last Week by Household Size and Age Group

Age group	Number of household members	Percentage of weighted sample		Percentage who worked last week	Sample size
		Working children	All children		
5–13	1–4	55.3%	30.7%	15.0%	142
	5–6	39.1%	35.0%	9.3%	141
	7–13	5.5%	34.2%	1.3%	136
	Sample size	32	419	n/a	n/a
14–17	1–4	46.1%	28.1%	63.6%	126
	5–6	31.7%	39.0%	31.5%	166
	7–13	22.3%	32.9%	26.3%	115
	Sample size	157	407	n/a	n/a
Total	1–4	47.7%	29.4%	38.0%	268
	5–6	33.0%	37.0%	20.9%	307
	7–13	19.3%	33.6%	13.4%	251
	Sample size	189	826	n/a	n/a

Base: n=826 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda.

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

The 2007 Macro Household Survey also reveals an inverse relationship between number of children in a household and work rates. The child labor participation rate for children in families with 4 or more children is 7.7 percent. This figure becomes progressively higher as the number of children decreases, reaching 44.8 percent for only children (children with no siblings). Only children have particularly high work rates. This difference is most striking for younger children (aged 5 to 13). For this group, 27.8 percent of only children work, compared with 4.7 percent of children in households with more than 1 child.⁸⁰ Only children represent more than half of the younger working children (53.1 percent), while representing only 15.9 percent of children their age.

**Table 7.2: Child Work in Luanda—Worked Last Week
by Number of Children in Household and Age**

Age group	Number of children in household	Percentage of weighted sample		Percentage who worked last week	Sample size
		Working children	All children		
5–13	Only child	53.0%	15.9%	27.8%	69
	2 children	25.4%	31.5%	6.7%	133
	3 children	21.6%	29.1%	6.2%	113
	4+ children	0.0%	23.5%	0.0%	104
	Sample size	32	419	n/a	n/a
14–17	Only child	44.2%	32.2%	53.3%	133
	2 children	30.8%	27.2%	43.9%	113
	3 children	16.8%	23.3%	27.9%	94
	4+ children	8.1%	17.3%	18.3%	67
	Sample size	157	407	n/a	n/a
Total	Only child	45.8%	24.0%	44.8%	202
	2 children	29.8%	29.4%	23.8%	246
	3 children	17.7%	26.3%	15.8%	207
	4+ children	6.7%	20.4%	7.7%	171
	Sample size	189	826	n/a	n/a

Base: n=826 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda.
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

7.2 CHILD WORK AND GENDER OF THE HOUSEHOLD HEAD

The 2007 Macro Household Survey indicates that a high percentage of children in Luanda live in a female-headed household.⁸¹ The 2007 data do not, however, indicate that the gender of the head of household has any effect on child labor rates. The proportion of child workers in female-headed households is similar to the proportion of children in general, irrespective of age.

⁸⁰ While it is important to acknowledge the small sample for this group (n=74), the difference is quite large and significant.

⁸¹ In the 2001 MICS data, only 16.9 children came from female-headed households. The 2007 Macro Household Survey revealed a figure of 29.8 percent for the comparative age group (ages 5 to 13).

Table 7.3: Child Work in Luanda—Worked Last Week by Gender and Age

Age group	Gender of head of household	Percentage of weighted sample		Percentage who worked last week	Sample size
		Working children	All children		
5–13	Male	73.2%	71.2%	8.6%	282
	Female	26.8%	28.8%	7.7%	137
	Sample size	32	419	n/a	n/a
14–17	Male	75.0%	73.8%	39.4%	299
	Female	25.0%	26.2%	37.0%	108
	Sample size	157	407	n/a	n/a
Total	Male	74.7%	72.5%	24.1%	581
	Female	25.3%	27.5%	21.5%	245
	Sample size	189	826	n/a	n/a

Base: n=826 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda (10 cases with no working information).
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

7.3 CHILD WORK BY EDUCATION AND LITERACY OF THE HOUSEHOLD HEAD

The 2007 Macro Household Survey shows an inverse relationship between child work rates and the literacy of the head of household where the child resides. Combined, those children in households where the head would have difficulty reading or could not at all read a letter or newspaper have a child labor participation rate of 31.8 percent—10 percentage points higher than children in households where the household head can read easily (21.4 percent).

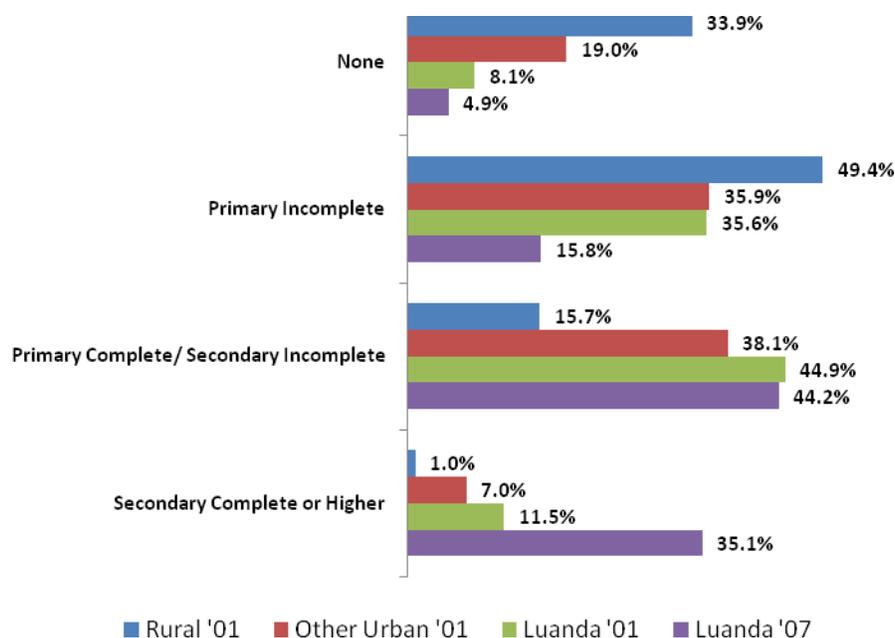
Table 7.4: Child Work in Luanda—Worked Last Week by Household Size and Age

Age group	Ability to read a letter or newspaper	Percentage of weighted sample		Percentage who worked last week	Sample size
		Working children	All children		
5–13	Easily	81.4%	85.8%	7.9%	337
	With difficulty	18.6%	10.2%	15.3%	48
	Not at all	0.0%	4.0%	0.0%	19
	Sample size	31	404	n/a	n/a
14–17	Easily	87.0%	86.6%	38.3%	334
	With difficulty	12.5%	11.4%	41.5%	52
	Not at all	0.5%	2.0%	10.3%	9
	Sample size	149	395	n/a	n/a
Total	Easily	86.0%	86.2%	23.0 %	671
	With difficulty	13.6%	10.8%	29.1%	100
	Not at all	0.4%	3.0%	3.4%	28
	Sample size	180	799	n/a	n/a

Base: n=799 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda with valid head of household data.
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

The 2001 MICS shows that 43.6 percent of children in Luanda live in households with a head who has not completed primary education; 11.1 percent live in households with a head who has no formal education (Chart 7.1). This chart shows that the number of household heads who have not completed primary education is higher in other urban areas (54.9 percent) and nearly double in rural areas (83.3 percent). The 2007 Macro Household Survey shows a large improvement in Luanda. This study reveals that only 20.8 percent of children live in households where the head has not completed primary education. These data also reveal a large difference in the percentage of children in households where the head has completed secondary education. In the 2007 Macro Household Survey, this accounted for more than one third (35.1 percent) of children in Luanda. In the 2001 MICS survey, this figure was only 15.2 percent. While the difference is larger than would be expected, it is clear that there has been some improvement in this regard.

Chart 7.1: Educational Attainment of Heads of Household by Setting—Percentage of Children



Base: n=3,305 children (under 17 years old) in rural Angola; n=6,471 children in non-Luanda urban areas; n=1,096 children in Luanda (2001); n=994 children in Luanda (2007).
Source: 2001 MICS for Angola and 2007 Macro Household Survey for Luanda.

The 2007 Macro Household Survey reveals that there is a relationship between child labor and educational attainment of household heads, and that this relationship is stronger among younger children (aged 5 to 13) (Table 7.5). For this age group, those with a household head who has never completed primary education are more than 3 times as likely to be working (16.9 percent compared with 5.6 percent). This group represents 22.8 percent of children and 47.0 percent of working children in this age group. For older children, the difference is smaller, but also notable. More than one third of children aged 14 to 17 (36.3 percent), from a household headed by someone who has completed at least a primary education or higher, work, compared with 45.0 percent from households with a less-educated head of household.

**Table 7.5: Child Work in Luanda—Worked Last Week
by Educational Attainment of Household Head and Age**

Age group	Educational attainment of head of household	Percentage of weighted sample		Percentage who worked last week	Sample size
		Working children	All children		
5–13	None	2.4%	5.8%	3.6%	28
	Primary incomplete	44.6%	17.0%	22.0%	84
	Primary complete/ secondary incomplete	35.5%	41.5%	7.0%	179
	Secondary complete or higher	17.6%	35.6%	4.1%	127
	Sample size	32	418	n/a	n/a
14–17	None	6.1%	5.2%	44.9%	22
	Primary incomplete	21.5%	18.3%	45.5%	82
	Primary complete/ secondary incomplete	47.8%	46.9%	39.9%	180
	Secondary complete or higher	24.6%	29.6%	32.1%	122
	Sample size	157	406	n/a	n/a
Total	None	5.4%	5.5%	23.5%	50
	Primary incomplete	25.6%	17.6%	34.1%	166
	Primary complete/ secondary incomplete	45.6%	44.3%	24.1%	359
	Secondary complete or higher	23.3%	32.6%	16.8%	249
	Sample size	189	824	n/a	n/a

Base: n=826 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda (10 cases with no working information and 2 cases missing head of household information).

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

7.4 DEATH OR ABSENCE OF PARENT

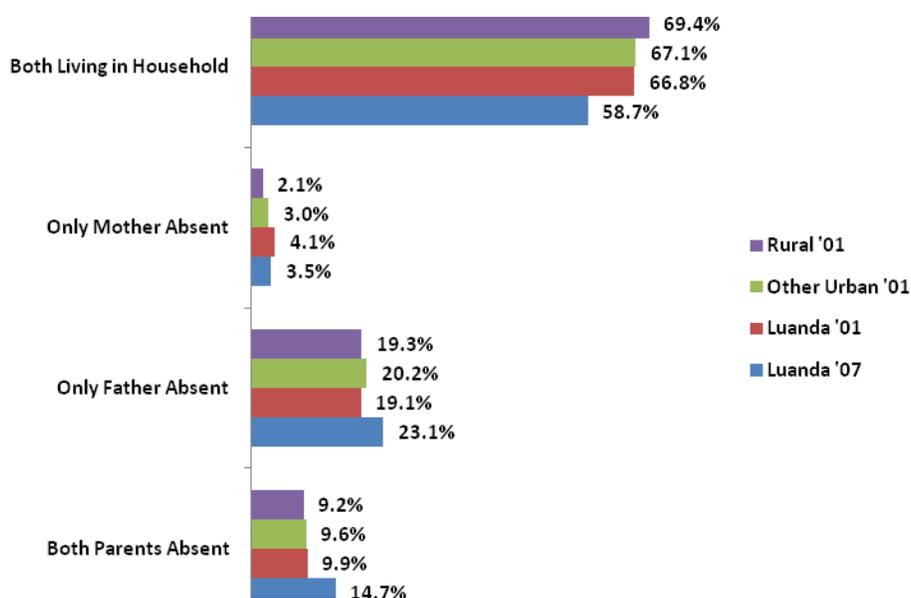
Chart 7.2 presents results on the status of parents and children from the 2001 MICS data and the 2007 Macro Household Survey data. According to the 2001 MICS data, 14.0 percent of children (under 18 years old) in Luanda had an absent or deceased mother, and 29.1 percent had an absent or deceased father. Combined, 9.9 percent live without either parent present in the household. Of the children who had an absent mother, in 24.4 percent of these cases the mother was deceased—death was the reason for 27.8 percent of absent fathers. These figures are nearly identical in urban areas outside of Luanda and in rural areas.

The 2007 Macro Household Survey data indicate that slightly more children in Luanda are without their mother (18.8 percent), 6.1 percent having a deceased mother. Malaria was the cause of death for more than half (53.2 percent) of the deceased mothers. The next leading cause of death was an accident (14.7 percent), followed by a heart attack (10.7 percent). Although the war ended in 2001, 9.8 percent of deceased parents were reportedly victims of the armed conflict.

Regarding absence of fathers, data reveal that 37.7 percent of children have an absent father, and for 10.6 percent of children, their fathers were deceased. Accidents are the leading cause of death for these fathers (41.3 percent), followed by malaria (31.2 percent). More than 1 in 10 (10.6 percent) deceased fathers was reported to be a victim of the armed conflict, and a similar percentage were victims of other forms of violence (9.5 percent). In all, 1.4 percent of children in Luanda have lost one parent or more to the war.

This research project attempted to measure the impact of HIV/AIDS on children in Luanda. There was only one case reported of a child losing a parent to HIV/AIDS. Weighted, this case represents less than one tenth of a percent (0.08 percent) of Luandan children. While the incidence rates of HIV in Angola are among the lowest in Southern Africa, this figure is undoubtedly low.

Chart 7.2: Status of Parents by Setting—Percentage of Children



Base: n=14,427 children (under 17 years old) in Angola (1,265 for Luanda, 8,556 for other urban areas, and 4,606 for rural areas); n=969 children in Luanda.

Source: 2001 MICS for Angola and 2007 Macro Household Survey for Luanda.

The 2007 Macro Household Survey does not show a clear relationship between the absence of a child's mother or father and the likelihood that the child will be working. It does, however, show clearly that the absence of both parents is a risk factor for child labor participation. Almost half (46.8 percent) of children with 2 absent parents are working, compared with 17.7 percent of other children. Part of this difference is due to differences in age. The median age of children with both parents absent is a full 2 years older than that of other children. Some of these older children may have left their families to work. Despite this age effect, younger children also have elevated labor participation rates if both parents are absent (23.9 percent compared with 6.5 percent). The magnitude of this difference, however, is difficult to interpret with precision because of the small sample on which it is based (n=40).

Table 7.6: Child Work in Luanda—Worked Last Week by Status of Parent and Age

Age group	Parent status	Percentage of weighted sample		Percentage who worked last week	Sample size
		Working children	All children		
5–13	Both present	43.9%	57.6%	6.5%	218
	Only mother absent	0.0%	4.2%	0.0%	21
	Only father absent	26.1%	27.4%	8.1%	130
	Both parents absent	30.1%	10.8%	23.9%	40
	Sample size	32	405	n/a	n/a
14–17	Both present	40.9%	49.5%	31.5%	185
	Only mother absent	2.6%	3.7%	26.6%	19
	Only father absent	19.4%	22.0%	33.6%	87
	Both parents absent	37.1%	24.8%	57.0%	100
	Sample size	148	385	n/a	n/a
Total	Both present	41.5%	53.6%	17.9%	403
	Only mother absent	2.1%	3.9%	12.3%	40
	Only father absent	20.6%	24.7%	19.3%	217
	Both parents absent	35.8%	17.7%	46.8%	140
	Sample size	180	790	n/a	n/a

Base: n=780 children who worked last week (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda whose data are available.
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

7.5 CHILD WORK AND MIGRATION STATUS

The 2007 Macro Household Survey asked about migration episodes at the household level. The results show that 4.9 percent of children in Luanda were in households that had relocated within the past 2 years; 11.3 percent had relocated within their lifetime. It is unclear what percentage came from outside of Luanda.

The results for the 2007 Macro Household Survey were inconclusive in identifying a relationship between household relocation and child labor participation. The lack of a measurable relationship could be due to the small sample size (n=42 for children who have recently relocated). Combined, 20.2 percent of children who had relocated sometime in their lives are currently working, marginally lower than children who have never migrated (23.9 percent). Nearly all of the difference is attributed to younger children (aged 5 to 13), with 1.7 percent of those who have relocated having worked within the past week.

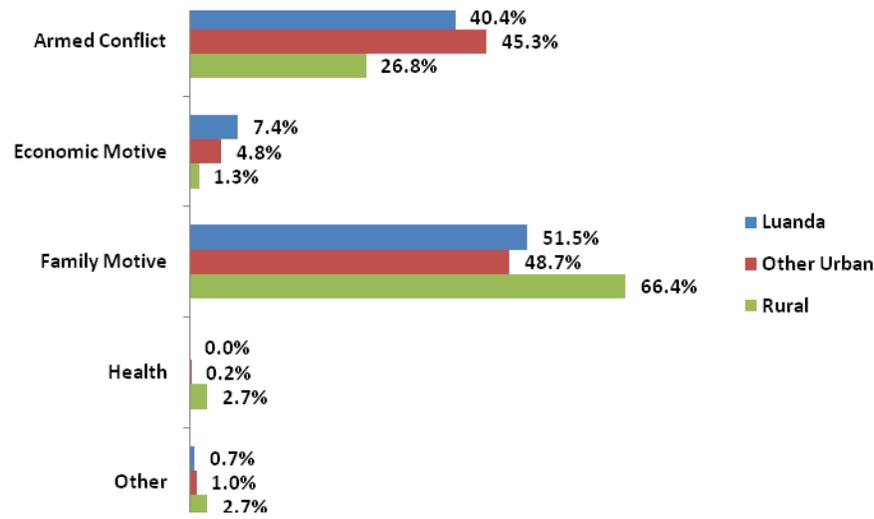
Table 7.7: Child Work in Luanda—Worked Last Week by Relocation History and Age

Age group	Time lived at current location	Percentage who worked last week	Percentage of weighted sample		Sample size
			Working children	All children	
5–13	Whole life	9.2%	97.6%	88.2%	366
	Arrived in last 2 years	0.0%	0.0%	6.0%	26
	Arrived over 2 years ago	3.4%	2.4%	5.7%	27
	Total	8.3%	100.0%	100.0%	419
14–17	Whole life	39.0%	87.5%	87.0%	354
	Arrived in last 2 years	51.7%	5.0%	3.8%	16
	Arrived over 2 years ago	31.4%	7.5%	9.2%	37
	Total	38.8%	100.0%	100.0%	407
Total	Whole life	23.9%	89.3%	87.6%	720
	Arrived in last 2 years	19.6%	4.1%	4.9%	42
	Arrived over 2 years ago	20.6%	6.5%	7.4%	64
	Total	23.4%	100.0%	100.0%	826

Base: n=826 children who worked last week (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda.
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

Both the 2001 MICS study and the 2007 Macro Household Survey asked those who have relocated for the reason for the relocation. Data provided by UNICEF are precoded into five categories. Family motives is the most cited reason in all settings—cited by more than half (51.5 percent) of Luandan children who have migrated. The next most cited reason across all settings is armed conflict (40.5 percent in Luanda), which officially ended the same year the survey was completed. Economic motives were a distant third (7.4 percent). For children in Luanda who had relocated within the past 2 years, the war and economic motives were cited more often than by those children who had relocated earlier. Children who relocated because of the war are marginally more likely to work than those who relocated for other reasons (27.2 percent compared with 23.1 percent).

Chart 7.3: Reason for Relocating—Percentage of Children



Base: n=1,147 children (aged 5 to 13) in Angola who had migrated (136 for Luanda, 838 for other urban areas, and 173 for rural areas).
Source: 2001 MICS.

The 2007 Macro Household Survey also asked households for the reasons for relocation. Survey results indicate that most households that have relocated have done so because of prearranged employment opportunities. However, due again to small sample sizes, it is difficult to determine any meaningful differences in the labor participation rates of children by the circumstances behind their relocation.

Table 7.8: Child Work in Luanda—Worked Last Week by Relocation History and Age

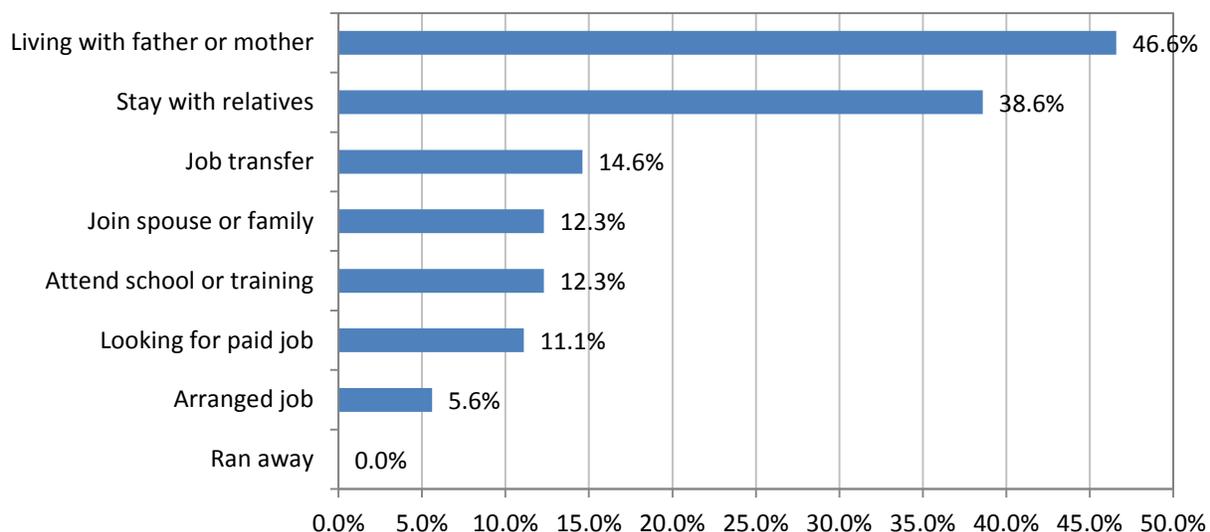
Reason for relocating	Percentage who worked last week	Percentage of weighted sample		Sample size
		Working children	All children	
Job transfer	19.5%	38.6%	38.1%	55
Found a job	16.5%	47.8%	55.7%	55
Looking for a job	47.7%	13.6%	5.5%	8
Schooling/training	0.0%	0.0%	0.7%	1
Total	19.2%	100.0%	100.0%	119

Base: n=119 children (aged 5 to 17) in Luanda whose households have relocated in their lifetime.
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

In addition to asking about household migration, the 2007 Macro Household Survey asked about children who were residents, yet were currently absent from the home. The data revealed 26 children (aged 5 to 17) who were living away from the family at the time the survey was administered. When weighted, the sample is quite evenly split between boys and girls (46.8 percent boys). With a median age of 10, these children are relatively young compared with a median age of 13 for the remaining sample.

The survey also asked for the top two reasons why the child was living away from the household. Almost half of the children were living with a parent (46.6 percent), and nearly 2 out of 5 (38.6 percent) were living with a relative. Many of the employment-related reasons (job transfer, looking for paid job, and arranged job) may be referring to the parent. More than three quarters of the children for whom employment is mentioned are age 7 or younger.

Chart 7.4: Reason for Living Away from Household—Percentage of Children



Base: n=27 children (aged 5 to 17) currently living away from home.
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey for Luanda.

Children who were absent from the household had been absent for as little as a few months and as long as 15 years. All had been in contact with the household during the past 6 months.

8 CHILD WORK AND HOUSEHOLD SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS

The 2007 Macro Household Survey incorporated questions to obtain information on selected socioeconomic status indicators of the household. These include housing characteristics and durable goods. Section 8.1 summarizes the selected housing characteristics by children's work status. Section 8.2 focuses on selected durable goods available in the child's household.

8.1 CHILD WORK AND HOUSING CHARACTERISTICS

Table 8.1 presents selected housing characteristics by child work status, based on the results of the 2007 Macro Household Survey. The majority of children live in detached or separate houses. This is generally true for both working and nonworking children. However, the proportion of children living in poorer quality houses, such as huts and shacks (as well as in building blocks and other living quarters), is higher for working than for nonworking children.

In terms of the ownership status of the house, approximately 74.1 percent of the houses where both nonworking and working children live are owned. The second important tenure is rent from a private owner; this accounts for about 19.2 percent of the houses. When the responses are considered by child work status, the results show that the proportion of working children living in rented houses is larger than the proportion of nonworking children living in rented houses.

More than 95 percent of the houses have kitchen and sanitation facilities of various standards. No considerable difference exists when these facilities are disaggregated by the child's work status.

Table 8.1: Housing Characteristics by Child Work Status

Characteristics	Type	Child work status		Total
		Not working	Working	
In what type of dwelling does the household live?	Detached/separate house	68.1%	77.8%	70.4%
	Semidetached	16.0%	0.7%	12.4%
	Flat/apartment	6.1%	3.3%	5.4%
	Hut/shack	3.6%	5.4%	4.0%
	Building block	4.1%	7.5%	4.9%
	Living quarters	2.1%	5.4%	2.9%
What is the ownership status of this dwelling?	Owned	75.1%	70.6%	74.1%
	Provided free by employer	0.7%	0.4%	0.6%
	Provided free by owner	6.4%	5.4%	6.2%
	Rented from private owner	17.8%	23.6%	19.2%
Is there a kitchen available to the household?	Inside house and exclusive	71.6%	74.2%	72.2%
	Inside house and shared	12.6%	9.5%	11.9%
	Outside house and exclusive	8.4%	8.9%	8.5%
	Outside house and shared	2.8%	1.1%	2.5%
	Not available	4.6%	6.2%	4.9%

Characteristics	Type	Child work status		Total
		Not working	Working	
Are there bathrooms available to the household?	Inside house and exclusive	49.7%	49.5%	49.6%
	Inside house and shared	14.5%	10.8%	13.6%
	Outside house and exclusive	18.1%	22.4%	19.1%
	Outside house and shared	14.3%	15.5%	14.6%
	Not available	3.5%	1.8%	3.1%
Are there toilets available to the household?	Inside house and exclusive	48.9%	49.8%	49.1%
	Inside house and shared	14.7%	10.8%	13.8%
	Outside house and exclusive	19.0%	21.5%	19.6%
	Outside house and shared	14.0%	15.9%	14.5%
	Not available	3.5%	2.0%	3.1%
What kind of toilet facility does your household use?	Flush to sewage system or septic tank	25.8%	15.0%	23.3%
	Pour flush latrine (water seal)	9.4%	9.0%	9.3%
	Improved pit latrine (e.g., VIP)	32.2%	28.6%	31.4%
	Traditional pit latrine	30.8%	43.1%	33.7%
	Open pit	1.0%	2.7%	1.4%
	Bush/field	0.8%	1.6%	1.0%
Sample size		627	189	816

Base: n=816 children (aged 5 to 17) in 799 households.
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

8.2 CHILD WORK BY DURABLE GOODS

This section investigates another socioeconomic indicator, availability of durable items in the household and its implication on child work status. Table 8.2 presents the results, which suggest that socioeconomic status represented by the possession of these items is negatively related to the child's working status. This holds true for almost all durable items listed in the table. Large differences are observed in the availability of computers, car or trucks, refrigerators, and bicycles. The overall result is intuitive since the aforementioned items are more likely to be available in households that are better off financially.

Table 8.2: Selected Durable Goods Available in the Household by Child Work Status

Durable goods	Child work status		Total
	Nonworking	Working	
Televisions	94.0%	91.9%	93.5%
Radios	81.4%	82.9%	81.8%
Computers	29.6%	15.4%	26.3%
Refrigerators	79.0%	69.9%	76.9%
Cars/trucks	37.9%	18.7%	33.4%

Durable goods	Child work status		Total
	Nonworking	Working	
Motorbikes	6.3%	4.4%	5.9%
Bicycles	20.2%	10.8%	18.0%
Sample size	627	189	816

Base: n=816 children (aged 5 to 17) in 799 households.
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

The results regarding housing characteristics and durable goods available in the household show that there is a relationship between child work status and the household's socioeconomic status. Accordingly, children from the lower socioeconomic group tend to work more than do children in the higher socioeconomic group.

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9 EFFECT OF WORK ON CHILD WELFARE OPPORTUNITIES

9.1 CHILD WORK AND SCHOOLING

9.1.1 Child Work and School Attendance Rate

In Luanda, Angola, the “ever” and “past” academic year school attendance rates for children aged 5 to 17 are 87.7 percent and 86.9 percent, respectively.⁸² These 2 measures of school outcome are close, implying a less than 1 percent dropout rate.

Table 9.1: Ever School Attendance Rate by Working Status and Age

Age group	Has the child ever attended school?	Percentage of age group	Percentage working	Sample size
5–8	Yes	58.3%	1.9%	87
	No	41.7%	0.8%	63
	Total	100.0%	1.4%	150
9–13	Yes	93.1%	12.2%	246
	No	6.9%	14.2%	18
	Total	100.0%	12.3%	264
14–17	Yes	95.0%	37.2%	379
	No	5.0%	69.0%	22
	Total	100.0%	38.8%	401
Total	Yes	87.7%	24.3%	712
	No	12.3%	16.9%	103
	Total	100.0%	23.4%	815

Base: n=815 children (aged 5 to 17).

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

The 2007 Macro Household Survey indicates that children who have ever attended school are more likely to be working. This result, however, is heavily influenced by age. Younger children (aged 5 to 8) account for 61.5 percent of the children who have never attended school. This group has a very low rate of work. The lower (5 to 8 years old) and middle (9 to 13 years old) age groups show little differences in the labor participation of children who have never attended school. In stark contrast, however, children aged 14 to 17 are nearly twice as likely to work if they have never attended school—69.0 percent compared with 37.2 percent for those who have ever attended school. School attendance during the past academic year, as presented in Table 9.2, shows a similar outcome.

⁸² The survey was carried out during school break in Luanda. Therefore, in this survey, we used past academic year school attendance rate. For current school attendance rate, the UNICEF MICS data are used.

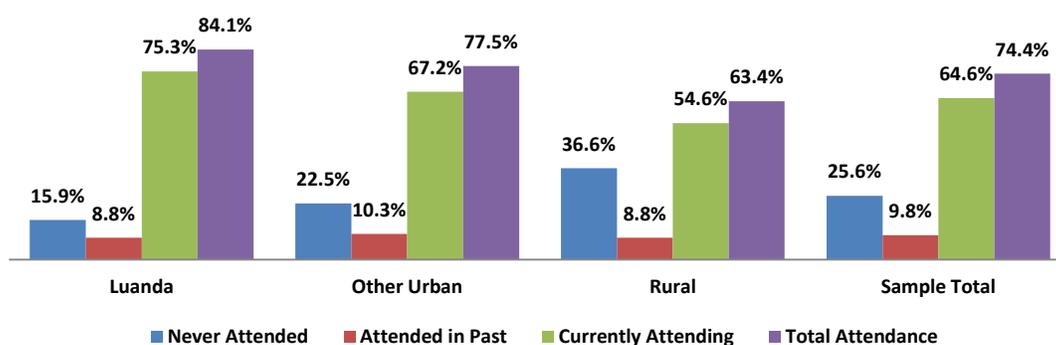
Table 9.2: Past School Attendance Rate by Working Status and Age Group

Age group	Has the child attended school in the past academic year?	Percent of age group	Percentage working	Sample size
5–8	Yes	57.5%	1.9%	86
	No	42.5%	0.8%	65
	Total	100.0%	1.4%	151
9–13	Yes	92.5%	12.3%	244
	No	7.5%	12.8%	20
	Total	100.0%	12.3%	264
14–17	Yes	94.1%	36.9%	373
	No	5.9%	66.7%	27
	Total	100.0%	38.7%	400
Total	Yes	86.9%	24.2%	703
	No	13.1%	17.6%	112
	Total	100.0%	23.3%	815

Base: n=815 children (aged 5 to 17) (626 nonworking and 189 working).
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

The results from 2001 MICS data, summarized in Chart 9.1, show that the sample-wide “ever” school attendance rate for children aged 5 to 17 is 74.4 percent.⁸³ This predicament is different for different regions. The chart reports the school attendance status of children in Angola by place of residence. The rate in Luanda is 84.1 percent, about 10 percentage points higher than the sample average. As expected, the attendance rate in rural areas is lower (63.4 percent), which is about 10 percentage points lower than the sample average.⁸⁴

Chart 9.1: School Attendance of Children in Angola by Setting



Base: 10,878 children (aged 5 to 17) nationally, 1,109 in Luanda, 6,839 in other urban areas (i.e., excluding Luanda), and 2,930 in rural Angola.
Source: 2001 MICS.

⁸³ “Ever” school attendance is the sum of current attendance and attendance in the past.

⁸⁴ The MICS sample average over-represents urban areas and cannot be considered nationally representative.

Table 9.3 further explores attendance rates by incorporating the age group and working status of children using the 2001 MICS data. The results show that children who have never attended school are less likely to work in all settings. This result, however, is due primarily to the relatively young age of this group (median of 6 years old) compared with the children who have attended school (median of 10 years old). In the upper age group (aged 9 to 13), where it is assumed that a formal education should have already commenced, the percentage of children working is higher for children who have never attended school. This cannot be said, however, for children who have dropped out of school. This group of children has virtually identical rates of child labor participation as those who are currently attending school.

Table 9.3: Work Rates by School Attendance Status of Children in Angola by Age

Age group	Attendance	Luanda		Other urban		Rural		Total	
		% working	Sample size	% working	Sample size	% working	Sample size	% working	Sample size
5–8	Never attended	3.3%	126	9.7%	935	20.5%	753	13.3%	1,814
	Attended in past	25.6%	11	14.1%	98	21.9%	31	16.5%	140
	Currently attending	3.9%	194	14.5%	1,215	31.8%	496	17.4%	1,905
	Total	4.4%	331	12.5%	2,248	25.0%	1,280	15.5%	3,859
9–13	Never attended	12.9%	38	37.1%	302	48.7%	254	40.0%	594
	Attended in past	10.8%	24	28.8%	208	40.9%	114	31.0%	346
	Currently attending	9.0%	362	28.6%	1,954	53.1%	867	32.2%	3,183
	Total	9.4%	424	29.7%	2,464	51.1%	1,235	33.2%	4,123
Total	Never attended	5.5%	164	16.4%	1,237	27.6%	1007	19.9%	2,408
	Attended in past	15.5%	35	24.1%	306	36.8%	145	26.7%	486
	Currently attending	7.2%	556	23.2%	3,169	45.3%	1,363	26.7%	5,088
	Total	7.2%	755	21.5%	4,712	37.8%	2,515	24.7%	7,982

Base: n=7,982 children (aged 5 to 13).

Source: 2001 MICS.

9.1.2 Child Work and School Attainment

Other school outcomes collected in the survey for both working and nonworking children in Luanda include attainment, as indicated by the highest school level attended. Table 9.4 presents 4 educational attainment categories: (1) no educational attainment (none), (2) primary incomplete, (3) primary complete, and (4) secondary incomplete and higher.

In children, educational attainment is highly dependent on age. As a result, the results in the table, aggregated across age groups, are of limited value. This is also the case with the lowest age groups, where those who have higher educational attainment are, in general, older and more likely to work. We would expect this to also be the case for the middle age group (9 to 13 years

old), but the data do not reveal this. This is an indication that, in this age group, additional factors counter the age effect.

These factors become much clearer in the oldest age group (14 to 17 years old), where there is a limited age effect since a typical student in this group should be in secondary school. In this age group, there is a clear relationship between educational attainment and work. Three in 10 children who have completed some secondary education are working. In each lower stage of educational attainment, the rate of work is progressively higher (42.4 percent for primary complete, 58.8 percent for primary incomplete, and 72 percent for no formal education).

Table 9.4: Highest School Level Attended in Luanda by Age and Work Status

Age group	Educational attainment	Percentage of age group	Percentage working	Sample size
5–8	None	62.0%	0.8%	63
	Primary incomplete	38.0%	4.2%	39
	Primary complete	0.0%	N/A	0
	Some secondary or higher	0.0%	N/A	0
	Total	100.0%	2.1%	102
9–13	None	6.3%	13.5%	19
	Primary incomplete	66.2%	12.9%	173
	Primary complete	17.0%	10.0%	39
	Some secondary or higher	10.4%	14.5%	28
	Total	100.0%	12.6%	259
14–17	None	5.7%	72.0%	24
	Primary incomplete	15.9%	58.8%	64
	Primary complete	9.7%	42.4%	41
	Some secondary or higher	68.7%	30.0%	258
	Total	100.0%	38.2%	387
Total	None	14.6%	18.6%	106
	Primary incomplete	37.2%	22.3%	276
	Primary complete	10.8%	25.1%	80
	Some secondary or higher	37.4%	28.6%	286
	Total	100.0%	24.6%	748

Base: n=748 children (aged 5 to 17) (567 nonworking and 181 working).
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

The 2001 MICS data show again an age effect in the youngest age category, in which children with higher educational attainment are more likely to work due principally to their age. In the higher age group (9 to 13 years old), there is a clear indication that children who have higher educational attainment are less likely to work, in urban areas. This relationship is not apparent in rural areas and may be slightly reversed.

Table 9.5: Work Status by Highest School Level Attended, Age, Work, and Setting in Angola

Age group	Attendance	Luanda		Other urban		Rural		Total	
		% working	Sample size	% working	Sample size	% working	Sample size	% working	Sample size
5–8	None	3.3%	126	9.7%	935	20.5%	753	13.3%	1,814
	Primary incomplete	5.5%	206	14.5%	1,318	31.2%	528	17.4%	2,052
	Total	4.7%	332	12.6%	2,253	24.9%	1,281	15.5%	3,866
9–13	None	12.9%	38	37.1%	302	48.7%	254	40.0%	594
	Primary incomplete	8.9%	372	28.8%	2,143	51.5%	986	32.3%	3,501
	Primary complete or higher	12.5%	16	11.7%	26	100.0%	1	13.9%	43
	Total	9.4%	426	29.7%	2,471	51.0%	1,241	33.2%	4,138
Total	None	5.5%	164	16.4%	1,237	27.6%	1,007	19.9%	2,408
	Primary incomplete	7.7%	578	23.4%	3,461	44.4%	1,514	26.8%	5,553
	Primary complete or higher	12.5%	16	11.7%	26	100.0%	1	13.9%	43
	Total	7.3%	758	21.5%	4,724	37.7%	2,522	24.7%	8,004

Base: n=8,105 children (5 to 13 years old).
Source: 2001 MICS.

All of the above-mentioned school outcomes indicate that the relationship between working status and educational attainment is negative for older children. Table 9.6 further disaggregates school attainment in Luanda by grade and by level completed, by the oldest age category (14 to 17 years old).⁸⁵ The table shows that, in this age group, the majority of nonworking children have completed higher grade levels than working children have completed.

Table 9.6: Frequency Distribution of Highest Grade Completed by Working Status for Children Aged 14 to 17 in Luanda

Highest grade completed	Nonworking		Working		Total	
	%	Cumulative	%	Cumulative	%	Cumulative
Preschool	1.2%	1.2%	2.9%	2.9%	1.8%	1.8%
Grade 1	0.0%	1.2%	3.3%	6.2%	1.2%	3.0%
Grade 2	0.3%	1.5%	6.4%	12.6%	2.6%	5.6%
Grade 3	1.9%	3.4%	1.7%	14.3%	1.8%	7.4%
Grade 4	3.3%	6.7%	3.8%	18.1%	3.5%	10.9%
Grade 5	4.2%	10.9%	7.9%	26.0%	5.6%	16.5%
Grade 6	9.1%	20.0%	12.7%	38.7%	10.4%	26.9%
Grade 7	18.6%	38.6%	11.2%	49.9%	15.9%	42.8%

⁸⁵ The special emphasis is given to this group because it represents about 50 percent of all children aged 5 to 17 and 82 percent of all working children aged 5 to 17.

Highest grade completed	Nonworking		Working		Total	
	%	Cumulative	%	Cumulative	%	Cumulative
Level 8	26.9%	65.5%	28.8%	78.7%	27.6%	70.4%
Level 9	18.4%	83.9%	12.0%	90.7%	16.0%	86.4%
Level 10	10.8%	94.7%	5.2%	95.9%	8.7%	95.1%
Level 11	2.9%	97.6%	3.1%	99.0%	3.0%	98.1%
Level 12	1.7%	99.3%	0.0%	99.0%	1.1%	99.2%
Sample size	237		140		377	

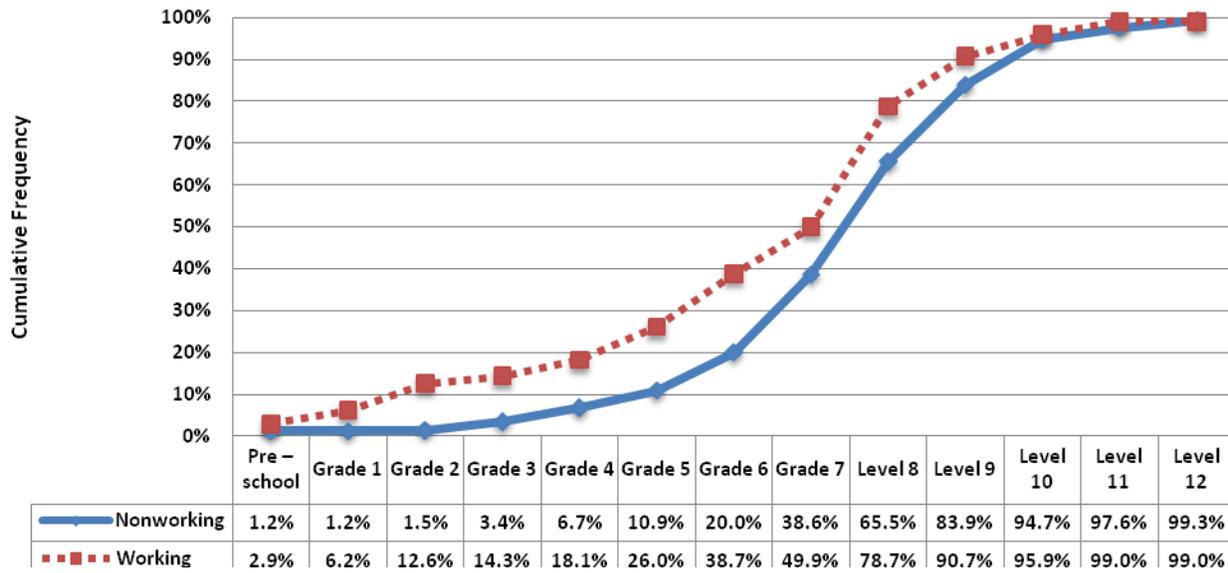
Base: n=377 children (aged 14 to 17) (237 nonworking and 140 working). The difference is due to two responses for which “don’t know” is recorded in the data.

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

The cumulative frequency distribution of highest grade completed by children aged 14 to 17, presented in Chart 9.2, clearly shows that, at any given point on the curve, nonworking children have completed higher grades than have working children. For example, if one compares the lowest 20 percent of both working and nonworking children by highest grade completed, the highest completed level for nonworking children is about grade 6; for working children, it is about grade 4. The largest difference is for the lowest 10 percent of all groups. In this range, the highest grade completed by working children is about grade 2, while the highest grade completed by nonworking children is close to grade 5.

In general, throughout the chart, the line representing working children (dashed line) remains above the line representing nonworking children (solid line), implying that at any point on the graph, working children in this age group have lower educational attainment. The slope of the two curves shows how large the difference is. Accordingly, at lower percentiles (lowest through 40 percent), the difference between working and nonworking children becomes larger at higher percentiles (40 percent through highest).

Chart 9.2: Cumulative Frequency of Highest Grade Completed by Working Status



Note: The totals do not sum up to 100. The difference is due to two responses for which “don’t know” is recorded in the data.

Base: n=377 children (aged 14 to 17) (237 nonworking and 140 working).

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

An important observation from the above schoolchild work analyses is that the relationship between children’s work and educational attainment is different for different age groups. Age affects both schooling and participation in child work. Therefore, when age is taken into account, the relationship between child work and schooling becomes negative, particularly for older children aged 14 to 17. However, there is no adequate analysis provided here to imply any *causation* of this negative relationship between child work and schooling for children aged 14 to 17. Moreover, age is not the only variable that influences both schooling and child work. Other important factors worth considering include gender, location, and parental characteristics. The following sections explore some of these factors.

9.1.3 Child Work and Schooling: Gender Differences

Of children aged 5 to 17, about 49 percent are female and about 51 percent are male. Of working children, the proportion of males is larger. Out of the total number of males, 27.0 percent were working at the time our survey was administered, compared with 19.8 percent for females. In terms of school attendance, the ever attendance rate for girls was not significantly different than that of boys, regardless of work status.

Table 9.7: Ever School Attendance Rate by Working Status and Gender

Gender	Has the child ever attended school?	Work status		Total
		Nonworking	Working	
Male	Yes	85.7%	90.9%	87.1%
	No	14.3%	9.1%	12.9%
	Sample size	301	115	416
Female	Yes	88.1%	91.9%	88.9%
	No	11.9%	8.1%	11.1%
	Sample size	325	74	399

Base: n=815 children (aged 5 to 17) (626 nonworking and 189 working) (416 male and 399 female).
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

Table 9.8 reports current school attendance by gender. About 84.8 percent of boys and 87.15 percent of girls aged 5 to 17 have attended school within the past academic year. These results are nearly identical to Table 9.7 above and show no clear gender differences.

Table 9.8: Past Academic Year School Attendance Rate by Working Status and Gender

Gender	Has the child attended school in the past academic year?	Work status		Total
		Nonworking	Working	
Male	Yes	84.6%	90.3%	86.2%
	No	15.4%	9.7%	13.8%
	Sample size	302	114	416
Female	Yes	87.6%	90.3%	88.2%
	No	12.4%	9.7%	11.8%
	Sample size	325	74	399

Base: n=815 children (aged 5 to 17) (627 nonworking and 188 working) (416 male and 399 female).
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

Table 9.9 compares the school attendance and work status of children in Angola by gender. To eliminate some of the age effect seen in other analyses, these data were limited to children aged 9 to 13. The results show clearly that while urban children in this age group are less likely to have ever attended school if they are working, the difference is substantially greater for boys. If the data below for Luanda and other urban areas are combined, 15.2 percent of working boys have never attended school, compared to 8.6 percent of nonworking boys—a difference of 6.6 percentage points. This same gap is only 2.6 percent for girls (14.8 percent for working girls and 12.2 percent for nonworking girls).

Table 9.9: Attendance Status of Children Aged 9 Through 13 in Angola by Gender and Setting

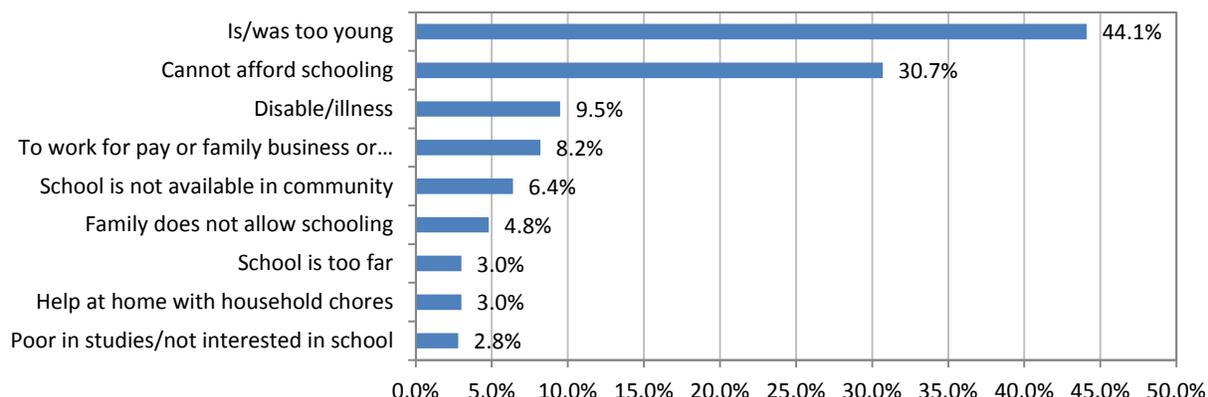
Place of residence	Attendance status	Male		Female	
		Nonworking	Working	Nonworking	Working
Luanda	Never attended	5.9%	11.6%	11.0%	12.1%
	Attended in past	3.6%	7.0%	8.0%	6.1%
	Currently attending	90.5%	81.4%	81.0%	81.8%
	Sample size	201	26	179	18
Other urban areas	Never attended	9.2%	15.4%	12.5%	14.9%
	Attended in past	8.6%	7.3%	8.6%	9.1%
	Currently attending	82.2%	77.3%	78.9%	76.0%
	Sample size	850	359	882	373
Rural	Never attended	18.9%	15.5%	23.6%	23.9%
	Attended in past	9.8%	6.2%	12.0%	8.4%
	Currently attending	71.4%	78.3%	64.4%	67.7%
	Sample size	275	325	330	305
Total	Never attended	10.4%	15.3%	14.6%	18.4%
	Attended in past	8.0%	6.8%	9.2%	8.8%
	Currently attending	81.5%	77.8%	76.2%	72.8%
	Sample size	1,326	710	1,391	696

Base: n=4,123 children (aged 9 to 13).
Source: 2001 MICS.

9.1.4 Child Work and Schooling: Reasons for Not Attending School

Of children aged 5 to 17, approximately 12.3 percent have never attended school. In the 2007 Macro Household Survey, respondents to the household questionnaire were asked to provide reasons why each nonattending child in the household was not attending school. As presented in Chart 9.3, in order of importance, the reasons for not attending school are: (1) age of the child (too young), (2) cannot afford schooling, (3) disability or illness, (4) work, (5) absence of school in the community, (6) family restrictions (family does not allow schooling of children), (7) child helps at home with household chores, (8) school is far, and (9) child is not interested in school or is poor in studies.

Chart 9.3: Reported Reasons for Not Attending School by All Working and Nonworking Children



Base: n=120 nonattending or never attended children (aged 5 to 17).
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

The importance of each reason changes when children are categorized by different criteria. For example, in Table 9.10, the classification by working status reveals that the most important reason (age) is still the most important for nonworking children, although it ranks sixth among working children. For working children not attending school, the most important reason for this is that the family cannot afford schooling. The second most important reason cited by this group of children is the work itself. The family's school-affordability problem is also the second most cited reason for nonworking and nonattending children.

Table 9.10: Reported Reasons for Not Attending School by Working Status

Reason for not attending school (nonworking children)	Percentage from all nonworking children	Reason for not attending school (working children)	Percentage from all working children
Is/was too young	53.9%	Cannot afford schooling	59.2%
Cannot afford schooling	23.7%	Work for pay, or family business or farm	21.2%
Disabled/illness	9.5%	Is/was too young	5.4%
School not available in community	6.2%	Help at home with household chores	12.6%
Family does not allow schooling	5.4%	Disabled/illness	11.2%
Work for pay, or family business or farm	5.6%	School not available in community	8.4%
School is too far	0.9%	School is too far	4.2%
Poor in studies/not interested in school	0.9%	Poor in studies/not interested in school	4.2%
Help at home with household chores	0.9%	Sample size	22
Sample size	91		

Base: n=113 nonattending or never attended children (aged 5 to 17).
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

As indicated in Table 9.11, however, reasons for not attending school are more or less the same for both boys and girls. The child's age (i.e., being too young) and the family's ability to pay for school are, respectively, the first and the second most important reasons deterring both boys and girls from attending school. Though small, helping at home with the household chores is more relevant for girls than boys.

Table 9.11: Reported Reasons for Not Attending School by Gender

Reason for not attending school (male children)	Percentage from all male children	Reason for not attending school (female children)	Percentage from all female children
Is/was too young	50.2%	Is/was too young	37.1%
Cannot afford schooling	32.4%	Cannot afford schooling	28.8%
Work for pay, or family business or farm	9.8%	Disabled/illness	12.8%
School not available in community	8.4%	Work for pay, or family business or farm	6.3%
Disabled/illness	6.6%	Family does not allow schooling	5.8%
Family does not allow schooling	3.8%	School not available in community	4.2%
School is too far	2.8%	School is too far	3.2%
Poor in studies/ not interested in school	2.8%	Help at home with household chores	3.2%
Help at home with household chores	2.8%	Poor in studies/ not interested in school	2.7%
Sample size	65	Sample size	52

Base: n=117 nonattending or never attended children (aged 5 to 17).

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

A further look at the reasons for not attending school by age group provides a different insight. As expected, the most important reason, age (mentioned earlier), is most important for children in the youngest age group. The implication is that children who are not currently attending school or who have never attended school because of their young age will eventually be enrolled.

Table 9.12: Reported Reasons for Not Attending School by Age Group

Reason for not attending school	Age group		
	5–8	9–13	14–17
Is/was too young	72.1%	4.1%	4.2%
Cannot afford schooling	10.8%	59.1%	58.7%
Disabled/illness	10.2%	0.0%	15.3%
Work for pay, or family business or farm	1.6%	13.0%	22.6%
School not available in community	3.3%	8.1%	13.0%
Family does not allow schooling	3.4%	15.0%	0.0%
School is too far	1.3%	8.1%	3.3%

Reason for not attending school	Age group		
	5–8	9–13	14–17
Help at home with household chores	1.6%	0.0%	9.7%
Poor in studies/not interested in school	0.0%	6.9%	6.5%
Sample size	65	23	29

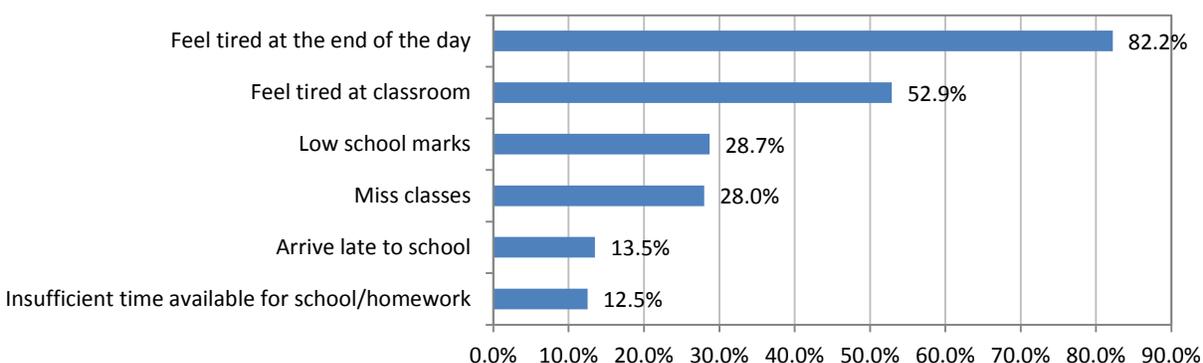
Base: 117 nonattending or never attended children (aged 5 to 17).

Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

9.1.5 Work-School Interference: The Effect of Work on School-Attending Children

Working children who attended school in the past academic year were asked to respond to questions on work-school interference. About 36 percent of these children indicated that their work often interferes with their schooling. As indicated in Chart 9.4, in order of importance, the forms of interference reported by school-going working children include: (1) feeling tired at the end of the day, (2) feeling tired in the classroom, (3) receiving low school marks, (4) missing classes, (5) arriving late to school, and (6) having insufficient time available for school or homework.

Chart 9.4: Forms of Work-School Interference



Note: Due to multiple responses, the percentages do not add up to 100.

Base: n=43 children (aged 5 to 17) who responded to this question.

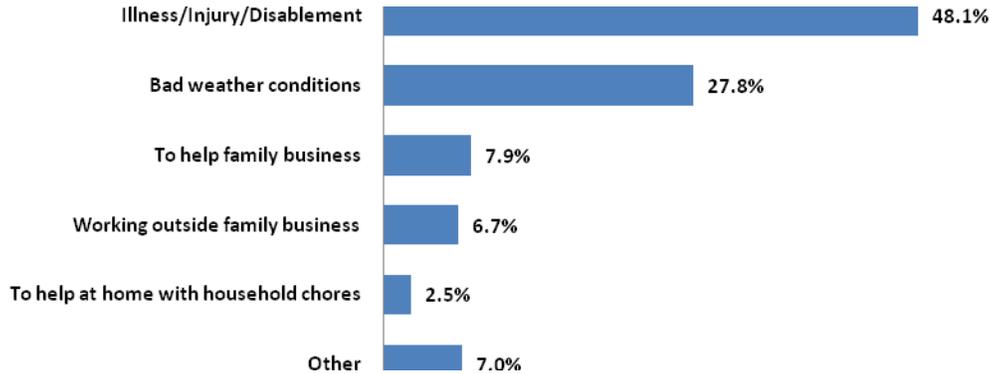
Source: 2007 Macro Working Children Survey.

Working schoolchildren were also asked for their preference, if given the opportunity, to attend school without working. About half of them preferred to go to school and not work.

About 80 percent of working schoolchildren reported that they missed classes during the past academic year. Although it ranked fourth in the above list, with only 28 percent of school-going and working children reporting that their work prompted them to miss classes, missing classes is often recognized as an important outcome of work-school interference.⁸⁶ Therefore, several related questions were included in the working child questionnaire to gather more information on missing classes. The most important reasons for missing classes were illness (48.1 percent) and bad weather conditions (27.8 percent). Work-related reasons were reported by about 17.1 percent of the respondents.

⁸⁶ In this case, however, there are also reasons other than work that forced children to miss classes.

Chart 9.5: Main Reason for Missing Classes for Working Children in the Past Academic Year



Note: 31.8 percent (weighted) indicated the vacation or break period as a main reason for missing classes in the past academic year. This was excluded in the chart because it does not represent the proper definition of missing classes. Accordingly, the base has been reduced from 100 to 67.

Base: n=67 working children (aged 5 to 17).

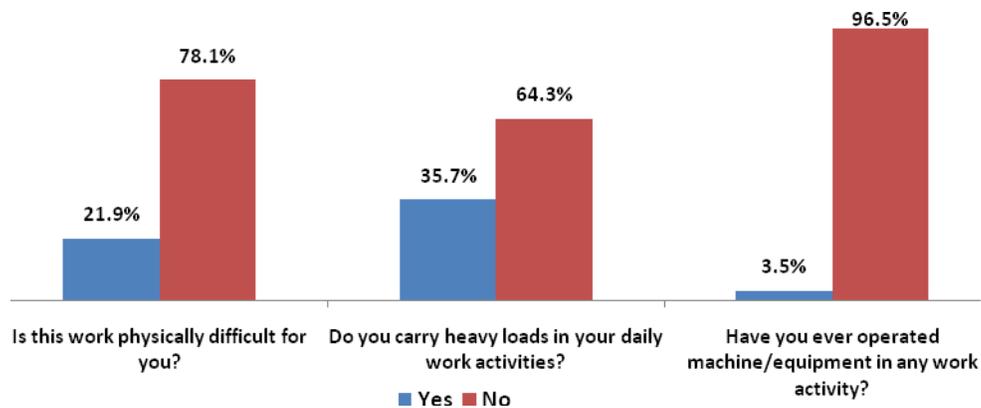
Source: 2007 Macro Working Children Survey.

9.2 CHILD WORK HAZARDS AND HEALTH

9.2.1 Child Work and Exposure to Hazards

Working children in Luanda said that their work in general was not physically difficult. As shown in Chart 9.6, only 21.9 percent of respondents said that their work was physically difficult. Likewise, only 35.7 percent of working children reported that they carry heavy loads as part of their daily work activities. The majority (96.5 percent) also indicated that they were not involved in an activity requiring the operation of machinery or equipment.

Chart 9.6: Work Difficulties



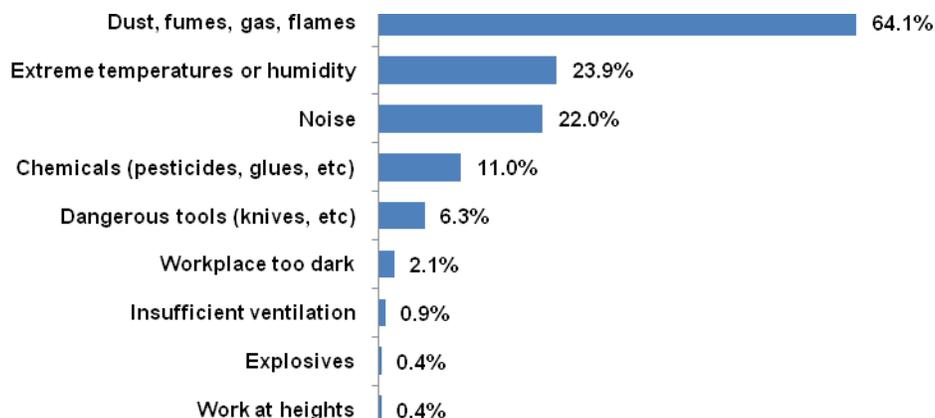
Base: n=188 children (aged 5 to 17).

Source: 2007 Macro Working Children Survey.

When working children were asked about their exposure to specific workplace hazards listed in Chart 9.7, 64.1 percent of the respondents reported exposure to dust, fumes, gas, or flames; 23.9 percent mentioned exposure to extreme humidity or temperature; and 22.0 percent reported

exposure to noise. Other workplace hazards, such as insufficient ventilation, insufficient lighting (or working in the dark), and chemicals were mentioned by 2 to 11 percent of the respondents.

Chart 9.7: Exposure to Hazards

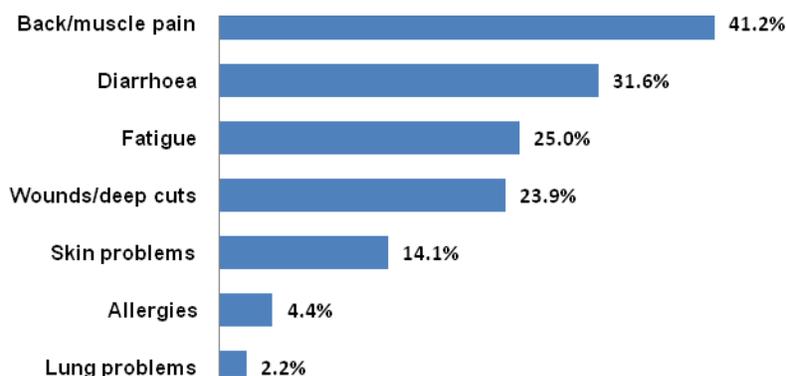


Base: n=188 children (aged 5 to 17).
Source: 2007 Macro Working Children Survey.

9.2.2 Child Work and Health

Adult respondents were asked about health- and injury-related problems encountered in the year preceding the survey by children in the household between ages 5 and 17. The result shows that about 90 percent of children did not encounter any health or injury problems; only 10 percent of children had 1 or more health problems or injuries to report. The results are summarized in Chart 9.8. In order of most cited, these health or injury problems encountered by 10 percent of children are: (1) back or muscle pain, (2) diarrhea, (3) fatigue, (4) wounds or deep cuts, (5) skin problems, (6) allergies, and (7) lung problems.

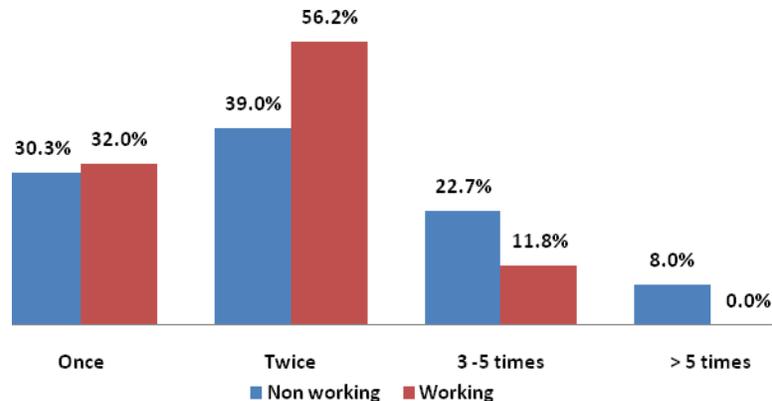
Chart 9.8: Illnesses or Injuries Faced by Children Aged 5 to 17 in Luanda



Base: 80 children (aged 5 to 17) who had at least 1 health problem or injury in the last 12 months.
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

Respondents were also asked how often they experienced illness or injury within the last 12 months. As Chart 9.9 shows, most illnesses or injuries occurred once or twice. When the frequency of the incident is viewed by work status, nonworking children have more frequent incidences than do working children. Much of this could be explained as an age effect measuring the higher frequency of illness in young children. The average age of those with more than 2 incidences of injury or illness is almost a full 2 years younger than the average age of those with fewer incidences (11.0 years compared with 12.8 years).

Chart 9.9: Frequency of Health Problem/Injury Encountered in Past 12 Months by Work Status



Base: n=83 children (aged 5 to 17) who had at least 1 health problem or injury in the last 12 months (50 nonworking and 32 working).
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

Overall, although only 10 percent of children encountered health or injury problems in the past 12 months, there is a pattern of higher incidence of injuries and illnesses among children who worked in the week preceding the survey. This difference is most notable for back or muscle pain and fatigue, where the incidence among working children nearly doubles the incidence among nonworking children.

Table 9.13: Illnesses or Injuries by Work Status

Illness or injury in the last 12 months	Work status	
	Not working	Working
Back/muscle pain	29.4%	56.4%
Wounds/deep cuts	31.6%	13.4%
Skin problems	12.8%	16.3%
Lung problems	1.9%	2.7%
Allergies	7.6%	0.0%
Diarrhea	30.7%	33.7%
Fatigue	10.3%	46.6%
Sample size	47	32

Base: n=79 children (aged 5 to 17) who had at least 1 health problem or injury in the last 12 months.
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

The health and injury problems reported by 10 percent of children exhibit some differences across age. Table 9.14 shows that the incidence of these problems increases with age. It holds particularly true for back or muscle pain, wounds or deep cuts, and fatigue.⁸⁷

Table 9.14: Illnesses or Injuries by Age

Illness or injury in the last 12 months	Age group		
	5–8	9–13	14–17
Back/muscle pain	16.7%	48.6%	49.6%
Wounds/deep cuts	28.0%	29.0%	19.6%
Skin problems	25.4%	17.9%	7.0%
Lung problems	0.0%	4.8%	2.1%
Allergies	4.5%	14.5%	0.0%
Diarrhea	38.8%	27.3%	30.0%
Fatigue	0.0%	12.8%	42.2%
Sample size	19	20	41

Base: n=80 children (aged 5 to 17) who had at least 1 health problem or injury in the last 12 months.

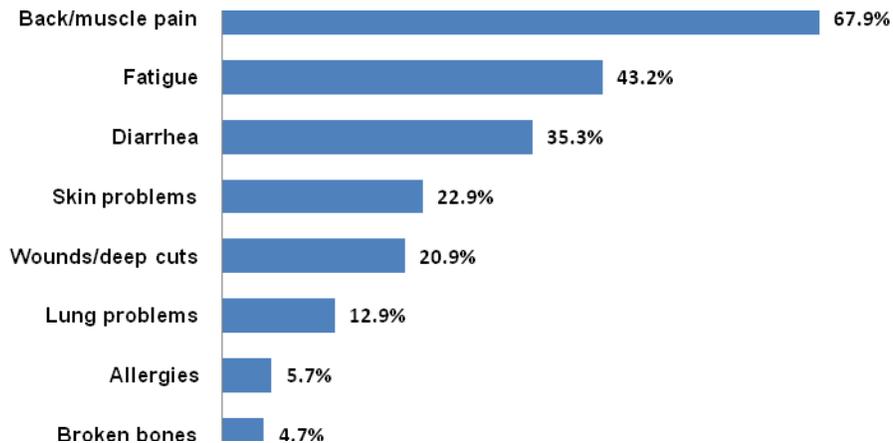
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

Working children were asked separately to report any illness or injury within the last 12 months. The results (provided as a percentage of “yes” responses to total responses) are reported in Chart 9.10. These results are similar to those of adult respondents (on behalf of children) presented in the last table. The percentages are calculated based on the total number of respondents who had at least 1 illness or injury problem within the last 12 months. Back or muscle pain was reported by about 68 percent of working children who had 1 or more health problems.⁸⁸ Since only 30 percent of working children had 1 or more illness or injury, the overall prevalence of back or muscle pain among working children in Luanda is approximately 20 percent. In order of importance, other health or injury problems reported by working children include fatigue, diarrhea, skin problems, wounds or deep cuts, lung problems, allergies, and broken bones.

⁸⁷ There is a tremendous variation in the number of responses for each health or injury problem. Moreover, some responses are too small, making comparison across health or injury problems problematic. Therefore, comparison is limited across ages for each health or injury problem.

⁸⁸ This percentage should not be confused with all working children because the base is working children who had 1 or more illnesses or injuries in the last 12 months.

Chart 9.10: Percentage of Responses on Illness/Injury Faced by Working Children



Base: n=58 working children (aged 5 to 17) who had 1 or more health or injury problems.
Source: 2007 Macro Working Children Survey.

Finally, adults were asked if the illness or injury encountered in the last 12 months was caused by work or by any other circumstances. Table 9.15 summarizes the responses. The majority of the respondents did not know the causes. A few of them mentioned some reasons, ranging from work to poor living conditions to playing. However, the number of responses is too small to allow a meaningful interpretation of the results.

Table 9.15: Main Cause for Most Recent Illness or Injury by Work Status

Illness or injury in the last 12 months	Not working	Working	Total
Due to work	0.0%	14.5%	5.5%
Due to poor living conditions	7.3%	0.0%	4.5%
Playing/sports	2.9%	2.8%	2.8%
Traveling long distance under adverse conditions	1.1%	0.0%	0.7%
None of the above	17.5%	22.2%	19.3%
Don't know	71.3%	60.5%	67.2%
Sample size	51	32	83

Base: n=83 children (aged 5 to 17) (51 not working and 32 working).
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

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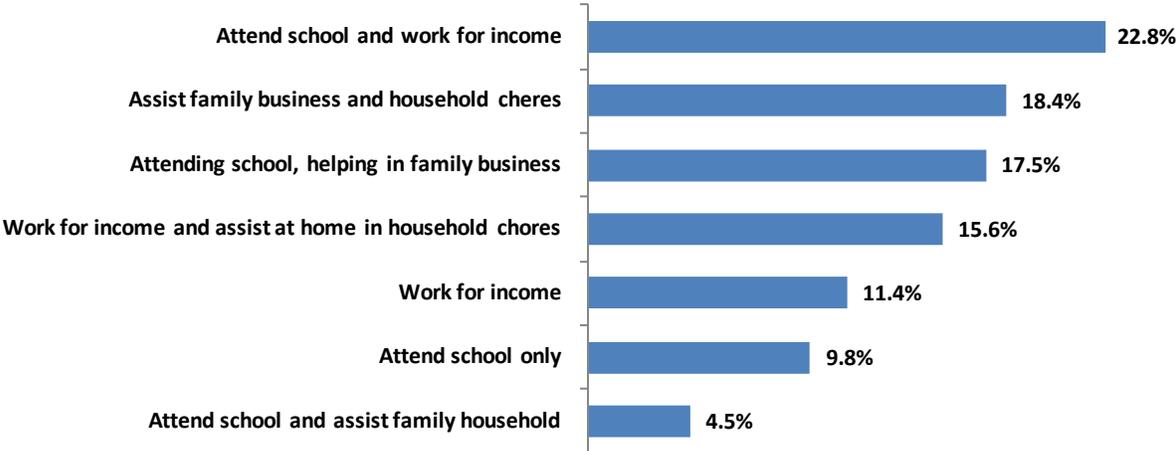
10 ATTITUDES AND PERCEPTIONS TOWARD CHILD WORK

Attitudes and perceptions are important for advocacy work by interest groups aimed at addressing the problem of child labor. The willingness of parents or custodians of working children to participate in policies and solutions designed to address the problem of child labor might be influenced by the attitude held by the primary targets of any program and by policy interventions. Accordingly, both the household and the child surveys included questions related to attitudes and perceptions toward child labor. Section 10.1 summarizes the results of the household survey, based on the responses of the most knowledgeable person in the household. Similarly, section 10.2 presents the results obtained from the working child survey, based on the responses of working children.

10.1 MOST KNOWLEDGEABLE MEMBER OF THE HOUSEHOLD: ATTITUDE TOWARD CHILD WORK

In the 2007 Macro Household Survey, adult respondents were asked what they preferred the working child to be doing at this time. The majority of adult respondents are supportive of the idea of children either working outside the home for income or assisting in the household business and in chores. Approximately 45 percent of adult respondents support school and work either outside the home or in a family business. In Chart 10.1, this group of respondents includes those who responded “attend school and work for income” (22.8 percent), “attending school, helping in family business” (17.5 percent), and “attend school and assist family household” (4.5 percent).

Chart 10.1: Adult Preference(s) for Working Child



Base: n=185 responses for working children in their respective households (189 working children).
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

Similarly, 44.8 percent of adult respondents preferred children to be engaged only in work and household chores. In Chart 10.1, the respondents in this category include those who said “assist family business and household chores” (18.4 percent), “work for income and household chores” (15.6 percent), and “work for income” (11.4 percent).

According to the results from the household survey, four in five adult respondents were not aware of any problem associated with child labor. Approximately 18.4 percent of adult respondents were aware of health problems or possible hazards, injuries, or illnesses connected with working children in their respective households. Table 10.1 presents adult respondents’ preferences regarding the child’s activity by their knowledge of problems associated with child work. The table shows that those who knew that the child’s work was associated with potential health problems or injuries tended to favor schooling for children as compared with those who did not know.

Table 10.1: Adult Responses on Children’s Activity by Knowledge of Potential Problems Associated with Child Work

What do you prefer the working child be doing at this time?	Are you aware of health problems, hazards, or injuries connected with the child who working?			
	Yes	No	Don’t know	Total
Attend school and work for income	35.4%	20.2%	16.1%	22.1%
Assist family business and do household chores	8.9%	21.4%	15.9%	18.5%
Work for income and do household chores	11.6%	17.9%	8.5%	15.7%
Attend school and help in family business	18.0%	16.3%	24.8%	17.6%
Work for income	4.9%	10.8%	25.0%	11.4%
Attend school only	11.4%	9.5%	9.8%	9.9%
Attend school and assist family household	9.8%	3.9%	n/a	4.5%
Sample size	34	125	25	185*

Base: n=185 working children (aged 5 to 17) (4 missing cases).
Source: 2007 Macro Household Survey.

10.2 WORKING CHILDREN’S ATTITUDES TOWARD CHILD WORK

Working children were asked to reflect on their ambitions. The results from the 2007 Macro Working Children Survey are presented in Table 10.2. The most popular choice for children is to study and have a profession, which was mentioned by approximately 68.9 percent of the respondents. The second choice that attracted the attention of approximately 16.8 percent of working children was “to manage one’s own business.” The remaining approximately 13.5 percent of the respondents did not have any idea. Disaggregating the responses by gender has not significantly changed the results. However, the proportion of children who do not have any idea is higher among girls than among boys.

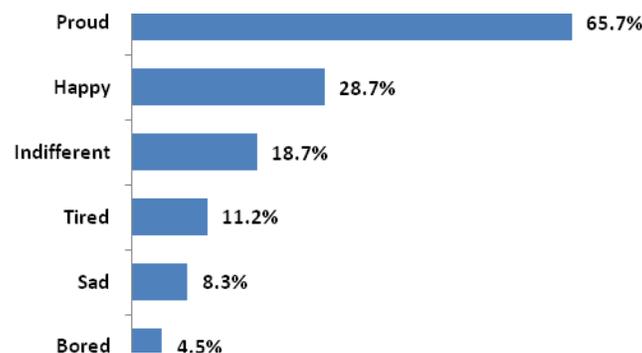
Table 10.2: Working Children’s Ambitions

Working children’s ambitions (what he/she would like to be when he/she grows up)	Male	Female	Total
Study and have a profession	70.7%	66.3%	68.9%
Manage my own business	20.8%	11.1%	16.8%
Work as an employee	0.0%	1.0%	0.4%
Other	0.0%	1.0%	0.4%
Don’t know	8.6%	20.5%	13.5%
Sample size	116	72	188

Base: n=188 working children (aged 5 to 17).
Source: 2007 Macro Working Children Survey.

According to the results of the 2007 Macro Working Children Survey, the majority of working children feel good about their status as a working child (Chart 10.2). Approximately 65.7 percent of the respondents are proud of being a working child, and some 28.7 percent are happy. The results also indicated that 18.7 percent of the respondents were indifferent. Overall, only a small percentage of respondents hold a negative view of their status as a child worker.

Chart 10.2: Children’s Feelings on Being a Working Child

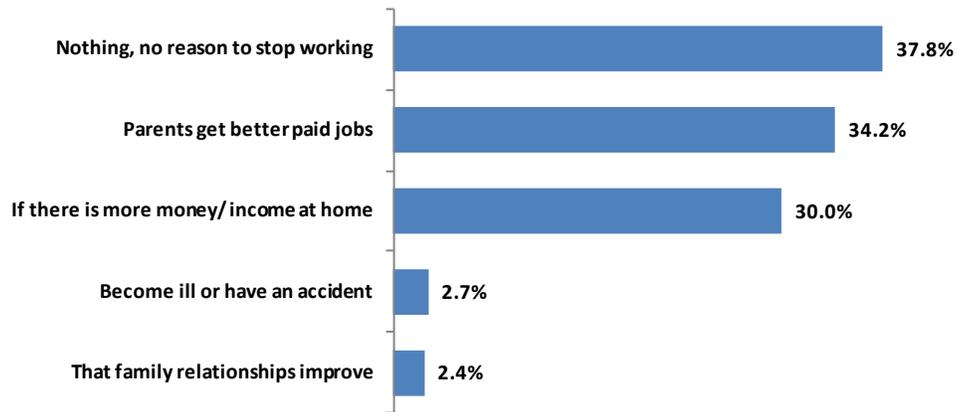


Base: n=188 children (aged 5 to 17).
Source: 2007 Macro Working Children Survey.

The responses of working children on the conditions needed to be able to stop working are generally related to economic factors. Chart 10.3 summarizes the responses. Approximately 64 percent of the respondents explicitly indicated that improvement in parents’ income or of the household would be a condition under which they could stop working.⁸⁹ Many (37.8 percent), however, said that there was “nothing, no reason to stop working.”

⁸⁹ This group of respondents included those who said “parents get better paid jobs” (34.2 percent) and those who said “if there is more money/income at home” (30 percent).

Chart 10.3: Children’s Response on Conditions Needed to Stop Working



Base: n=188 children (aged 5 to 17).
Source: 2007 Macro Working Children Survey.

11 STATUS OF STREET CHILDREN IN LUANDA: AN OBSERVATION REPORT

Many children in Luanda find economic opportunities in the crowded streets and markets, doing activities such as selling merchandise, washing cars, shining shoes, begging, and scavenging. Most of these children have no adult supervision and are identified for the sake of this research as “street children.” This definition of “street children” (children engaged in economic activity on the streets or open markets without adult supervision) is broadly used by the international community and researchers but may cause confusion. Therefore, it is important to note that many of the children included in this research have homes and families that they go to at night, and are, therefore, not homeless or abandoned.

The 2007 Macro Household Survey, discussed in earlier sections, indicated that about 49 percent of working children in Luanda are on the streets at fixed places or move from one place to another. This implies that many children are working under difficult circumstances, including exposure to noise and smoke pollution, violence, street gang crime, midday heat, and the like. Therefore, a further exploration of street activities would provide more insight into the nature and welfare implications of child labor. To this end, the household and the working children surveys presented in earlier sections of this report are complemented by an observation of 200 street children in Luanda.

This section is based on a field observation of 200 working children in 10 different locations of Luanda, Angola. Five trained observers conducted the observations from Wednesday the 12th to Saturday the 15th of December 2007. The 200 observations were equally distributed (20 per location). The 10 different locations listed in Table 11.1, which street children and children working on the streets often frequent, were identified in collaboration with experts from a local NGO, Projeto Renascer. This NGO works with abandoned and working children; therefore, its experts have a good understanding of the circumstances of children in the city. After all the locations had been identified, the team leader visited all of the selected places to make sure there were working children in the locations. The observers were then sent to these locations with observation checklists.

It is important to note that the data presented in this section are not based on a statistical sample that allows the reader to generalize to the greater population of street children in Luanda. Instead, the observers were given specific instructions to choose children who were working in a variety of activities. The purpose of doing this was to gather descriptive data on the broadest range of activities.

The observation checklists included a wide range of variables in eight different categories: (1) personal data (including age and sex of the child), (2) physical appearance (including sufficiency and cleanliness of clothing, shoes, and body and hair), (3) appearance of disability, (4) appearance of injury, (5) emotional appearance, (6) type of activity in which the child was engaged, (7) working environment, and (8) physical risks associated with the child’s work.

Table 11.1: Number of Working Children Observed by Location, Age, and Gender

Location in Luanda	Age group		Gender		Total
	8–13	14–17	Male	Female	
Avenida Brasil	6	14	18	2	20
Cidadela	7	13	17	3	20
Kinaxixi	7	13	17	3	20
Largo da Independencia	7	13	18	2	20
Maculusso Rua Mdicheguenara	6	14	18	2	20
Mutamba Ingomobota	5	15	19	1	20
Radio Nacional	6	14	18	2	20
Roque Santeiro	11	9	14	6	20
São Paulo	9	11	18	2	20
Ze Pirão	1	19	19	1	20
Total	65	135	176	24	200

Base: n=200 children (aged 8 to 17).

Source: 2007 Macro Street Children Observation Survey.

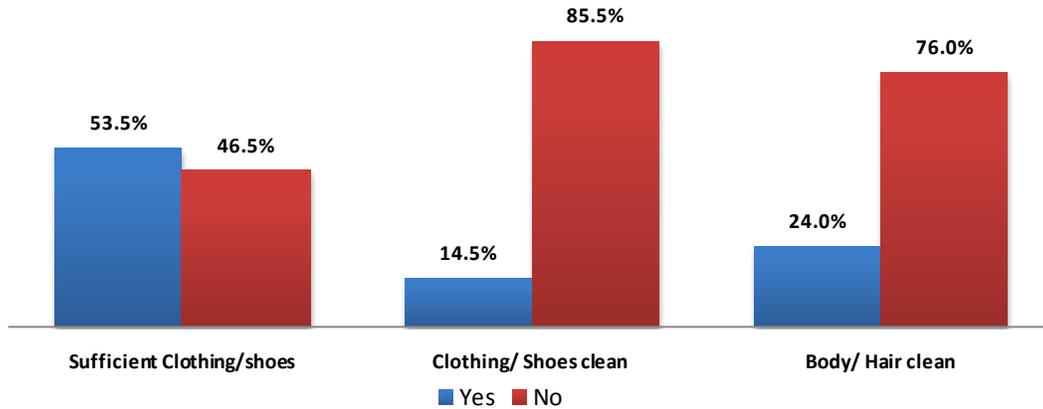
While in the field, observers estimated the ages, documented the physical and emotional conditions, and observed the activities of children and the working environment. According to the observers' estimations, approximately 66 percent of the 200 working children observed in the field were within the country's age limit for work (14 years and above). The observed sample included 176 boys (88 percent) and 24 girls (12 percent). The gender distribution is also typical of street activities that are primarily dominated by boys (Table 11.1).

Field observations allowed for collecting information on all types of children working in the streets, including information on children who are not attached to a household and, thus, cannot be reached using standard surveys. These groups of children are often referred to as "street children." Also, such observations are often conducted without the child's knowledge and without any interruption of their daily routines. However, the collected information is subject to some measurement errors as a result of misinterpretation of activities and characteristics of the child.

11.1 PHYSICAL AND EMOTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Observations on the physical and emotional characteristics of children working in the streets of Luanda included some aspects of personal hygiene, sufficiency of clothing, cleanliness of clothes and shoes, and cleanliness of body and hair. Accordingly, it is observed that only 54 percent of children had sufficient clothing. Furthermore, observers reported that 85 percent of children observed had dirty clothes and shoes, and 76 percent had an unclean body and/or hair.

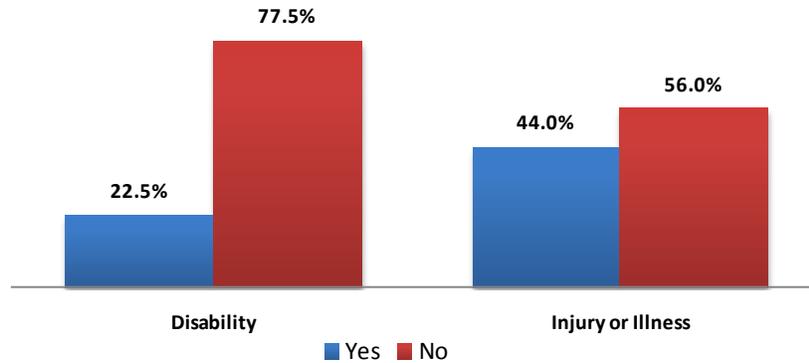
Chart 11.1: Clothing and Personal Hygiene



Base: n=200 children (aged 8 to 17).
Source: 2007 Macro Street Children Observation Survey.

As Chart 11.2 shows, another important observation noted in terms of the physical characteristics of children working in the streets of Luanda is that approximately 23 percent of the observed children had one or more disabilities, and 44 percent had a visible injury or illness.

Chart 11.2: Disability and Injury/Illness



Base: n=200 children (aged 8 to 17).
Source: 2007 Macro Street Children Observation Survey.

The most-noted disability was limping, accounting for more than half of the observed disabilities (Table 11.2). Other forms of disability observed in the field include deformity, missing limb, mental disability, nervous disorder, and use of crutches.

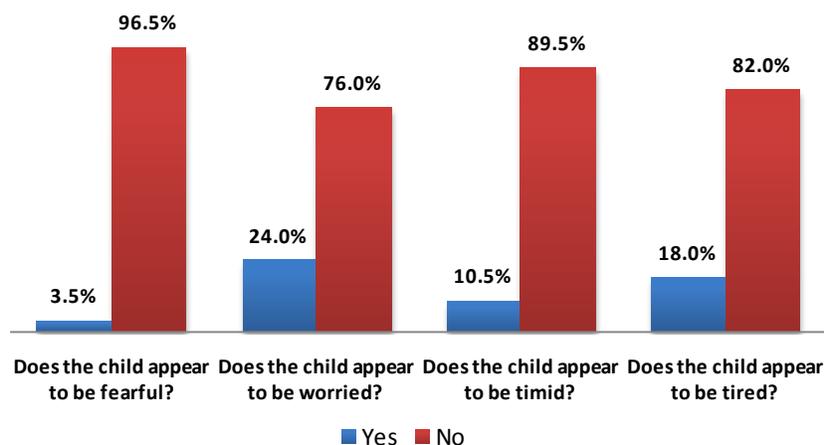
Table 11.2: Types of Disabilities

Type of disability	Number of children with disability	Percentage of total disability
Limp	26	57.8%
Deformity	5	11.1%
Missing limb	4	8.9%
Mental disability	3	6.7%
Nervous disorder	3	6.7%
Use of crutches/braces	1	2.2%

Base: n=45 children (aged 8 to 17) with disability.
Source: 2007 Macro Street Children Observation Survey.

Field observations on the emotional characteristics of children showed that most of the children were in a “normal” state (Chart 11.3). According to the observation results, more than 96 percent of children did not appear fearful. Although street activity involved a lot of walking and running and sometimes carrying heavy bundles, only about 18 percent looked tired. Furthermore, only approximately one quarter looked worried, and only approximately 1 in 10 children appeared timid. Reports on street children in Angola indicated that “psychological trauma and spiritual distress” are among the major concerns.⁹⁰ However, the results of the field observation show a substantially low prevalence of these problems. This might be because not all children working in the streets are homeless street children. In fact, most return to “some form of dwelling during the evening.”⁹¹

Chart 11.3: Emotional Characteristics



Base: n=200 children (aged 8 to 17).
Source: 2007 Macro Street Children Observation Survey.

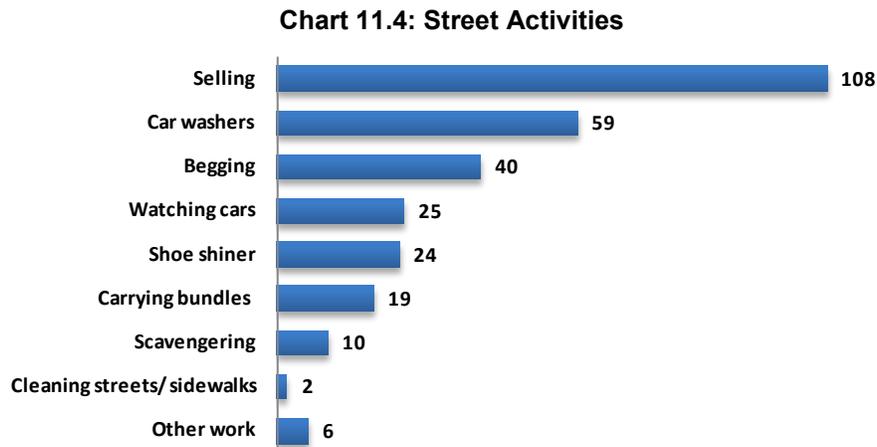
⁹⁰ Watchlist on Children and Armed Conflict. (2002). *Issue 2: Angola*. From <http://www.watchlist.org/reports/pdf/angola.report.pdf>.

⁹¹ U.S. Department of State. (2007). *Angola: Country reports on human rights practices—2006*. Washington, DC: Author. From <http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/2006/78718.htm>.

11.2 ACTIVITIES AND WORK ENVIRONMENT

11.2.1 Activities

Consistent with several other studies conducted in a number of urban areas of developing countries, street children in Luanda are involved primarily in the selling of different items. Out of the 200 children observed in 10 different places in the city, 108 children (54 percent) were observed selling food items, electronics, and new and secondhand clothes and shoes. Other children were observed watching and washing cars, begging, scavenging, carrying bundles, shoe shining, and performing others activities (Chart 11.4). Overall, the activities noted during the observation period are consistent with other reports.⁹²



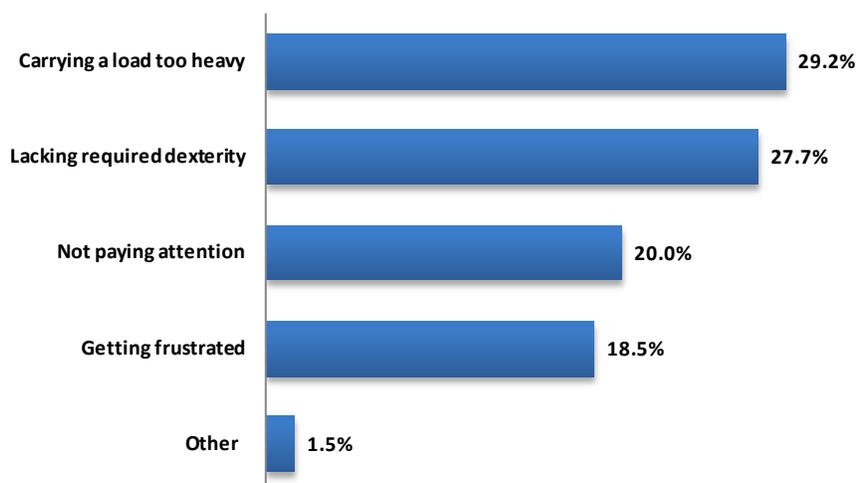
Note: The numbers do not sum up to the base, 200. This is due to the observation of multiple activities by a child (e.g., watching and washing cars).
Base: n=200 children (aged 8 to 17).
Source: 2007 Macro Street Children Observation Survey.

11.2.3 Difficulties at Work

Chart 11.5 reports difficulties encountered at work by children observed in the field. Approximately 29 percent of observed children were carrying a load that seemed too heavy, and about 27.7 percent of children were lacking the required dexterity. It was also observed that about 20 percent of children were not paying attention to their work, and that approximately 19 percent showed frustration.

⁹² The U.S. Department of State's 2006 *Report on Angola*, released in March 2007, notes that "most of these children shined shoes, washed cars, carried water, or engaged in other informal labor, but some resorted to petty crime, begging, and prostitution."

Chart 11.5: Types of Difficulties at Work



Base: n=135 children (aged 8 to 17) who seemed to be having difficulties with their task.
Source: 2007 Macro Street Children Observation Survey.

11.2.4 Exposure to Risks at Work

Previous studies indicated that children working in the streets of Angola’s urban centers are exposed to a number of health hazards and crimes. Clover writes that children “do not have time to play and are easy prey for falling into delinquency and drugs (petrol, glue, and other solvents are sniffed), and are extremely vulnerable to diseases and abuse.”⁹³ Table 11.3 summarizes the results of the field observation. Approximately 92 percent of the observed children were working in the sun or in the midday heat. As a street activity, such exposure to the sun or midday heat by almost all children would be somewhat expected. However, children who are working in the streets of Luanda are also exposed to a number of other health risks. For instance, 88 percent of children observed while working were in areas where the air was contaminated by exhaust, smoke, or dust. Similarly, 82 and 72 percent of the observed children were exposed to heavy automotive traffic and excessive noise, respectively.

Table 11.3: Work Environment—Exposure to Risks

Work environment/exposure to risks	Number of children	%
Work in the sun or in midday heat	183	91.5%
Work in area of poor air quality due to exhaust, smoke, or dust	176	88.0%
Work in heavy automotive traffic	164	82.0%
Work in excessive noise	144	72.0%
Work in unsanitary conditions (standing water, open sewer, garbage, etc.)	142	71.0%
Repetitiveness of tasks	128	64.0%
Exposure to gangs and crime	127	63.5%
Signs of physical abuse (black eyes, bruises, welts)	56	28.0%

⁹³ Clover, J. (2002). Angola’s children: Bearing the greatest cost of war. *African Security Review*, 11 (3). From <http://www.iss.co.za/Pubs/ASR/11No3/Clover.html>.

Work environment/exposure to risks	Number of children	%
Exposure to drugs and alcohol	45	22.5%
Work includes heavy lifting or moving of heavy loads	38	19.0%
Getting run over	27	13.5%
Work in difficult terrain	21	10.5%
Other exposures and risks*	37	18.5%

* This category includes responses on exposures to dangerous tools (6), emotional risks (6), frustration (6), sharp objects (5), chemicals (5), prostitutes (5), violence (3), and open flames (1).

Base: n=200 children (aged 8 to 17).

Source: 2007 Macro Street Children Observation Survey.

As Table 11.3 shows, 71 percent of observed children work under unsanitary conditions. Results of the field observations show that the streets where children are working are contaminated by open sewers, standing water, garbage, and smoke. Repetitiveness of tasks and exposure to gangs and crime are other major aspects of the work environment for children working in the streets of Luanda. All of the remaining kinds of risks listed in the table affect 10 to 22 percent of the observed children.

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12 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

12.1 SUMMARY

This study on working children in Luanda, Angola was conducted by ICF International Inc. in collaboration with its partner organization, Austral COWI, in Angola. The specific objective of this research is to collect, describe, and analyze data on the characteristics, nature, incidence, and welfare implications of child work in Luanda. The study seeks to raise awareness about the issue of child labor in Angola, and to inform the current and future child labor policy and technical assistance efforts of OCFT and other key stakeholders.

The findings of the study are based first and foremost on primary data collected through surveys conducted in 2007 by ICF and its partner in Angola. These surveys include the Household Survey, the Working Children Survey, and the Street Children Observation Survey. In addition, some sections of this report were supplemented by the UNICEF MICS 2001 data. However, the 2001 MICS data are not as nationally representative, as the MICS was conducted only in the then-secured places of Angola. Nevertheless, the survey included the capital, Luanda, and the data contain information on a wide range of variables relevant to our study.

The major findings of the study, indicated in various sections of the report, are summarized as follows.

12.1.1 Frequency and Extent of Child Work in Luanda

The 2007 Macro Household Survey reveals that the work rate for children aged 5 to 17 in Luanda is 23.4 percent. On average, working children spend about 42 hours on work per week. The most important occupation is selling, which is the job of about 50 percent of working children. Other important activities include personal services, such as car washing, and domestic services, and are carried out by about 10 percent of working children.

Work rates and the amount of working hours are different for different groups of children. The study investigated the implications of gender, age group, and several household characteristics on participation in child work and on the amount of hours spent on work per week. The following are some of the major observations:

1. In Luanda, 23.4 percent of children aged 5 to 17 worked in the week preceding the survey. Children under age 14, who are legally not allowed to work, are less likely to work. According to the 2007 Macro Household Survey, only 1.4 percent of children aged 5 to 8 were working. A substantially greater proportion of children aged 9 to 13 works (12.3 percent), and the proportion is even greater for those aged 14 to 17, who could potentially work legally (38.8 percent). While the 2001 MICS did not report work rates for children aged 15 to 17, the figures for children aged 5 to 13 are quite comparable. The MICS indicates that 7.3 percent of children this age work, which is 1 percentage point lower than the same result obtained by the 2007 Macro Household Survey (8.3 percent).

2. Work rates are also higher for boys than for girls. The 2007 Macro Household Survey shows that boys in Luanda have higher child labor participation rates than girls have. Nearly 3 in 10 boys aged 5 to 17 (27.0 percent) in Luanda were working at the time this survey was administered, compared with just under 1 in 5 girls (19.8 percent). According to the 2001 MICS, however, while girls only worked marginally less than boys in Luanda, this was not the case in other urban areas.
3. Children work in a variety of occupations. Half of working children (50.3 percent) included in the study were classified as working in sales. Others worked in trades such as car washing (7.6 percent), mechanics (9.5 percent), domestic work (6.4 percent), fishing (6.5 percent), and fare collection (4.0 percent). Girls were heavily involved in sales (74.7 percent) and domestic work (12.4 percent).
4. Children work in a number of environments. About 3 in 10 (28.9 percent) children work on the streets, and 20.4 percent were identified as being mobile and working in different places. Other work locations included shops or markets (16.3 percent) and the family dwelling (14.2 percent).
5. The survey was conducted during the height of the work season for children. While these figures may not be typical because of the school break during which this survey was conducted, the median child worked 40 hours the week preceding the interview—as many as their adult counterparts. Younger children (aged 5 to 13) worked marginally less (35 hours). On average, children work less than 8 hours per day, with most working a 6-day week. Those who get compensated in cash reported making, on average, \$52 per week.
6. Both household size and the number of children in the household are strong indicators of child labor participation. Children from small households (4 members or less) are almost 3 times as likely to work as children from households of more than 7 members (39.0 percent compared with 13.4 percent). There are a number of factors that may lead to this result. First, larger households require a greater effort to maintain, leading to a higher demand for child participation in chores. Second, there seems to be a wealth effect, in that large families are on average wealthier than smaller families.
7. This study confirms the relationship between educational attainment and literacy of household heads and child labor participation rate, and reveals that this relationship is stronger for younger children (aged 5 to 13). For this age group, those with a household head who has never completed primary education are more than 3 times as likely to be working (18.2 percent compared with 5.6 percent). This also holds true for older children, but the difference is smaller.
8. The household survey does not show a clear relationship between the absence of a child's mother or father and the likelihood that the child will be working. It does, however, show clearly that the absence of both parents is a risk factor for child labor participation. Almost half (46.8 percent) of children whose parents are both absent are working, compared with 17.7 percent of other children. The results of the survey are also inconclusive regarding a relationship between household relocation and child labor participation.

9. Child work in Luanda is driven by economic factors. The most frequent reasons cited by adult respondents and working children include replacing adults who had to work elsewhere, helping the household enterprise, paying an outstanding family debt, and supplementing the family income.

12.1.2 Child Work and Its Implication for Educational Outcome

School attendance and educational outcome are complexly intertwined with child labor participation. This research analyzed a number of educational variables from both the 2007 Macro Household Survey and the 2001 MICS. Results of this analysis revealed the following:

1. In discussing school attendance and outcome, it is essential to disaggregate results by age. Many of the younger children included in this study have yet to begin schooling. In aggregate, this group, with its low child labor participation rates, will diminish the inverse relationship between school attendance and child labor. Likewise, educational attainment is inextricable from age, making aggregated analysis of the relationship between attainment and work all but useless.
2. In Luanda, the “ever” and “past” academic year school attendance rates for all children aged 5 to 17 are 87.7 and 86.9 percent, respectively. When the values are disaggregated by age, a clear relationship between school attendance and work is revealed. Children aged 14 to 17 are nearly twice as likely to work if they did not attend school in the past year (66.7 percent compared with 36.9 percent) or if they never attended school (69.0 percent compared with 37.2 percent).
3. There is a large gap between the educational attainment of children who are working during their teen years (ages 14 to 17), when a child should be attending secondary school. Only 30.0 percent of children who have completed some secondary school were working. At each progressively lower attainment group, this figure becomes higher (42.4 percent for primary complete, 58.8 percent for primary incomplete, and 72 percent for those with no formal education).
4. Of children aged 5 to 17, approximately 12.3 percent have never attended school. Reasons for not attending school are: (1) the age of the child (i.e., too young), (2) cannot afford schooling, (3) disability or illness, (4) work, (5) absence of school in the community, (6) family restrictions (i.e., family does not allow schooling of children), (7) child helps at home with household chores, (8) school is too far, and (9) child is not interested in school or is poor in studies.
5. About 36 percent of working schoolchildren indicated that their work often interfered with their schooling, and the forms of interference reported by school-going working children include: (1) feeling tired at the end of the day, (2) feeling tired in class, (3) receiving low school marks, (4) missing classes, (5) arriving late to school, and (6) insufficient time available for school or homework.

12.1.3 Child Work, Hazards, and Health

Working children in Luanda are exposed to a number of health hazards, such as dust, fumes, gas, flames, extreme humidity, noise, and chemicals. More than one third indicated that their work requires heavy lifting. In spite of such risk exposure, the majority of working children (78.1 percent) do not feel that their work is difficult for them.

Only 10 percent of all children included in the survey indicated that they encountered 1 or more health problems. In order of frequency mentioned, the health or injury problems include: (1) back or muscle pain, (2) diarrhea, (3) fatigue, (4) wounds or deep cuts, (5) skin problems, (6) allergies, and (7) lung problems. However, working children tend to experience more illness or injury cases than nonworking children. Overall, although only 10 percent of children encountered health or injury problems within the past 12 months, there is a higher incidence of injuries and illnesses among children who worked during the week preceding the survey. This difference is most notable for back or muscle pain and fatigue, where the incidence among working children is nearly double the incidence rate among nonworking children.

12.1.4 Working Children's Perceptions About Their Life and Work

The study data revealed that the most popular choice for children is to study and have a profession. This was the case for approximately 68.9 percent of the respondents. The second choice, which attracted the attention of approximately 16.8 percent of working children, was to manage one's own business. The remaining respondents (approximately 13.5 percent) did not have any idea about their ambitions.

The majority of working children feel good about their status as a working child. Approximately 65.7 percent of the respondents are proud of being a working child, and some 28.7 percent are happy. The results also indicated that 18.7 percent of the respondents were indifferent. Overall, only a small percentage of respondents hold a negative view of their status as a child worker.

The responses of working children regarding the conditions under which they could stop working are generally related to economic factors. Approximately 64 percent of the respondents explicitly mentioned improvement in parents' income or of the household as important conditions under which they could stop working. The remaining children (approximately 37.8 percent) said that there was "nothing, no reason to stop working."

12.1.5 The Plight of Street Children in Luanda

Streets in Luanda are the most important work locations for children engaged in activities such as selling, car washing, shoe shining, begging, and scavenging. About half of working children in Luanda work on the streets.

Almost all children working on the streets are exposed to one or more health hazards and accidents as a result of, but not limited to,: (1) working in the sun or in midday heat; (2) working in poor air quality due to exhaust, smoke, or dust; (3) working in heavy automotive traffic; (4) working in excessive noise; (5) working in unsanitary conditions; and (6) working while being exposed to gangs and crime.

The observations of 200 children in 10 different locations revealed that more than half of the children were without sufficient clothing, and that the personal hygiene of about one quarter was lacking. Observers also noted 1 or more disabilities in 22.5 percent of these children and signs of injury or illness in about 44 percent of the cases.

12.2 CONCLUSIONS

According to the 2007 Macro Household Survey, the work rate among children aged 5 to 17 in Luanda, Angola is approximately 23.4 percent. The rates differ for different groups of children, depending on the child's age, gender, and household and parental characteristics. Therefore, considering these characteristics would better guide policies and programs aimed at addressing child labor issues in Luanda. The study has also extensively investigated the relationship between child work and its implications on children's welfare, including education and health. The findings on the impact of child work on education show significance in the child's age. For older children, educational outcomes are lower for working than for nonworking children. However, a more conclusive result would also control for other factors influencing educational outcome. Moreover, educational outcomes considered in this study measured only the *quantity*, not the *quality* of education. The study did not measure the quality of schools attended or the literacy and numeracy skills of children. A health-related problem is reported for about 10 percent of all children between ages 5 and 17. Among this group, working children tend to have more health-related problems than do nonworking children. The study also found that almost all working children are exposed to more health hazards and are more likely to be involved in accidents than nonworking children. However, the results are based on self-reported health status. Thus, it is difficult to attribute participation in child work as a cause for all health problems suffered by working children.

The results of household and working children surveys, as well as of field observations, suggest that streets in Luanda are central to child labor. The livelihoods of about half of working children are based on activities carried out on the streets. Because the streets expose children to a number of health hazards and accidents, interventions designed to improve the conditions of children in Luanda would have a considerable impact if their priorities were on this group of children.

Finally, the findings of this study are based on descriptive analyses. The study provides useful information on the nature and extent of child work in Luanda. It also provides information that would raise awareness on the welfare implications of child work in Luanda. However, some of the findings may need to be supplemented by further work that controls for all other factors.

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