



Beyond Poverty: Structural and Socio-Economic Drivers of Child Labour in Llangas Estate, Uasin-Gishu County, Kenya

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ABSTRACT

Child labour remains a persistent challenge in Kenya, especially in informal urban settlements where structural vulnerabilities and socio-economic pressures converge. This study examined the prevalence, patterns, and drivers of child labour in Llangas Estate, Eldoret, using a mixed-methods design informed by structuralist, political economy, and social reproduction perspectives. Data were drawn from a household survey of 360 families and complemented with interviews and focus group discussions involving children, caregivers, and key informants. The findings show that 41.1% of children aged 5–17 were engaged in labour, with strong links to school exclusion, low household income, and limited caregiver education. Gender differences were evident, with boys more visible in public work and girls concentrated in domestic service. Structural conditions such as insecure housing, reliance on informal employment, and weak enforcement of child protection laws, together with cultural norms that legitimize children's work, reinforced these patterns. The study concludes that child labour in Llangas cannot be reduced through poverty alleviation alone and calls for multi-level interventions that strengthen policy enforcement, expand social protection, and foster community engagement to challenge the normalization of child work in informal urban settings

Keywords: Child labour, Informal settlements, Structural drivers, Gender norms, Kenya, Urban poverty

1. Introduction

Child labour is widely acknowledged as a violation of children's rights and a major obstacle to sustainable development. In Kenya, despite the establishment of the Children Act (2022) and the Employment Act (2007), the problem persists, particularly within informal urban settings. Estimates from the International Labour Organization (ILO) and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) show that child labour remains highly prevalent in Sub-Saharan Africa, where social protection systems are weak and informal economies dominate (ILO & UNICEF, 2023). National assessments further indicate that thousands of Kenyan children continue to be engaged in hazardous or exploitative forms of work (U.S. Department of Labor, 2024).

Globally, child labour affects about 138 million children as of 2024 (ILO & UNICEF, 2025). Although there has been progress since 2000, Sub-Saharan Africa continues to experience the highest levels, with more than 87 million children working under conditions that are often unsafe or hidden, such as domestic service and casual urban work (ILO & UNICEF, 2025). In Kenya, figures from the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) reveal that 8.5 percent of children around 1.3 million are involved in child labour. The situation is even more severe in arid and semi-arid regions, where rates exceed 30 percent (UNICEF Kenya, 2023). Urban informal settlements such as Llangas Estate in Eldoret illustrate this challenge vividly. Here, child labour tends to be normalized and often goes unreported, shaped by factors such as spatial exclusion, weak enforcement mechanisms, and deeply rooted social practices (Chebet, Masinde, & Kareithi, 2018).

Many policy documents explain child labour mainly as a result of household poverty. They emphasize income shortages and often propose cash transfers as a solution (ILO, 2010; UNICEF, 2010). While low income contributes to the problem, this view gives an incomplete picture and overlooks wider forces at play. Research shows that child labour both arises from and reinforces underdevelopment. It limits schooling, locks families into cycles of poverty, and slows economic growth (Van Daalen & Mabillard, 2019). Framing the issue mainly as poverty ignores other important aspects, such as gender roles in the labour market, the historical loss of land during colonial times, and institutional barriers that keep families on the margins. In Kenya, the ILO's Integrated Area-Based Approach (IABA) is a case in point. Despite its wide reach and strong funding, it has continued to rely on household-level data while paying less attention to the larger conditions that allow child labour to persist (ILO-IPEC, 2013).

In places like Llangas Estate, these wider conditions are especially visible. The settlement faces overcrowding, insecure housing, poor schooling opportunities, and close ties to informal markets where children often find work. Being one of the largest and most congested areas in Eldoret, Llangas is marked by children working in petty trade, household service, or heavy casual jobs (Chebet, Masinde, & Kareithi, 2018). These realities show that child labour cannot be explained by poverty alone. It is better understood as the result of combined social and economic pressures that shape everyday life. This study focuses on those factors in order to provide evidence that can guide more practical and lasting responses.

Child labour in Kenya continues despite the presence of laws and policies designed to stop it. Data from the 2023 U.S. Department of Labor report shows that 5.9 percent of children between 5 and 14 years are engaged in work, while 16.4 percent of adolescents between 15 and 17 years are involved in hazardous tasks. The problem is more widespread in rural areas, where 7.7 percent of younger children and 20 percent of adolescents work. In urban areas, though lower, the rates remain notable at 1 percent for younger children and 4 percent for adolescents (U.S. Department of Labor, 2023). Nationally, about 8.5 percent of children are estimated to be in child labour, with the figure climbing to around 30 percent in arid and semi-arid regions (Freedom Fund, 2023). The dominance of the informal sector, which makes up roughly 81 percent of non-agricultural jobs, creates low-entry work opportunities that often involve children (Ulandssektariatet, 2024).

Although Kenya increased labour inspections from 8,131 to 13,268 between July 2022 and June 2023, challenges remain in enforcement and coordination across institutions (U.S. Department of Labor, 2023). In Langa Estate, Eldoret, these gaps are more pronounced. Families face barriers such as the high cost of schooling, lack of official documents for some children, unsafe neighbourhoods, insecure housing, and close links to informal markets. Local social norms also tend to accept children's work as part of everyday life. Despite these concerns, little empirical research has been carried out in Langa. This study therefore aims to examine the broader social and economic factors that shape child labour in the settlement and to highlight practical policy measures, in line with Kenya's legal framework, that could strengthen prevention and protection in such informal settings.

2. Methods and Study Design

This study used a mixed-methods design that combined a household survey with a qualitative case study. The survey provided data on the scale of child labour, while the qualitative work offered deeper insights into the social and economic conditions that sustain it. The approach was informed by a sociological perspective that treats child labour as part of wider inequalities rather than only a household problem.

Langa Estate in Eldoret was chosen as the study site. It is one of the largest informal settlements in Uasin Gishu County and is marked by poor housing, insecure livelihoods, and limited access to schooling. These conditions made it a suitable setting for examining how urban marginalization shapes child labour.

The study population included children aged 5 to 17, their caregivers, and key informants such as administrators, teachers, child protection officers, and informal market actors. For the survey, probability-based sampling was applied. A finite population correction was used to calculate a suitable sample size, which resulted in 360 households after adjustments for design effect and non-response. One eligible child was then randomly selected from each household. For the qualitative strand, purposive and snowball sampling were used to reach participants with direct experience or knowledge of child labour. This included 30 in-depth interviews and four focus group discussions organized by age and gender.

Data collection relied on several tools. A structured household questionnaire was given to caregivers to record prevalence, types of work, school attendance, household economic shocks, and perceptions of neighbourhood safety. Semi-structured interviews were held with working children, caregivers, and key informants to explore daily experiences, decision-making, and institutional responses. Focus group discussions were used to capture community norms and gender expectations. Ethnographic field notes documented visible child labour practices, informal market interactions, and spatial patterns within the settlement.

Quantitative data were analysed using descriptive statistics, with results disaggregated by age, sex, schooling status, and type of work. Qualitative data were examined thematically through iterative coding. The coding was guided by the study's conceptual framework, with themes organized around structural drivers, socio-economic conditions, and cultural influences. Triangulation across respondent groups and data sources enhanced both validity and depth of interpretation.

Ethical standards were strictly observed. Caregiver consent and child assent were obtained before participation. All data were anonymized and confidentiality was maintained. Referral pathways were available for children who disclosed distressing experiences. The study received approval from a recognized Institutional Review Board and complied with both national and international guidelines for research involving minors.

Credibility and trustworthiness were reinforced through several measures. A subset of participants reviewed the findings (member checking), academic supervisors and child protection specialists offered feedback (peer debriefing), and the researcher used reflexive journaling to account for positionality. These steps helped ensure that the findings reflected the lived realities of Langa and could support responses that are sensitive to context.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Household and Child Demographics

Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of the 360 surveyed households in Langa Estate. These data provide important context for understanding the socio-economic vulnerabilities that shape child labour in informal settlements. A majority of caregivers were women (68.9 percent), which points to the high number of female-headed households in the settlement. Female-headed households often face compounded economic challenges, including limited access to stable income and greater caregiving responsibilities. The age distribution of caregivers showed that over 60 percent were between 30 and 49 years, an age bracket associated with active parenting and significant economic responsibility.

Educational attainment was generally low. Only 10.6 percent of caregivers had post-secondary education, while 20 percent reported having no formal education at all. Limited education narrows employment options, reduces earning capacity, and may also affect awareness of child protection laws. Household size added further strain: half of the households had between four and six members, and a third had seven or more. Such large family structures increase dependency ratios and pressure households to seek supplementary income.

Income patterns reinforced this picture of vulnerability. More than three-quarters of households earned below KES 10,000 per month, with over one-third earning less than KES 5,000. These figures reflect widespread economic precarity and explain why many families consider children's work as part of their livelihood strategies. The demographic profile presented in Table 1 illustrates the convergence of female caregiving roles, low levels of education, large household sizes, and chronic poverty. These conditions create an environment where child labour is not only common but also normalized as a household survival mechanism.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondent Households (N = 360)

Variable	Category	Frequency	%
Caregiver Gender	Male	112	31.1
	Female	248	68.9
Caregiver Age (years)	18–29	46	12.8
	30–39	121	33.6
	40–49	97	26.9
	50+	96	26.7
Caregiver Education	No formal education	72	20.0
	Primary	148	41.1
	Secondary	102	28.3
	Post-secondary	38	10.6
Household Size	1–3 members	58	16.1
	4–6 members	182	50.6
	7+ members	120	33.3
Monthly Household Income (KES)	< 5,000	134	37.2
	5,001–10,000	141	39.2
	10,001–20,000	61	16.9
	> 20,000	24	6.7

Table 2 presents the demographic profile and labour status of children aged 5 to 17 years across the 360 surveyed households in Langas Estate. The gender distribution was nearly balanced, with boys comprising 50.6 percent and girls with 49.4 percent of the sample. The age structure leaned toward older children, as more than three-quarters (76.6 percent) were between 10 and 17 years. This older cohort also recorded higher involvement in labour, suggesting that the likelihood of engaging in informal work increases as children grow older.

School attendance among children was relatively high at 73.9 percent, yet dropout and non-attendance rates were notable. About 16.7 percent had dropped out of school, while 9.4 percent had never attended at all. These figures point to considerable educational exclusion in Langas, which closely correlates with child labour. The link was clear in the data: more than 80 percent of children not in school were engaged in labour, compared to only 27.1 percent among those who were enrolled.

Generally, 41.1 percent of children were reported to be engaged in labour. The types of work showed both gender and age differences. Domestic service outside the home was the most common form, involving 29.1 percent of working children, with girls disproportionately represented. Market vending and hawking accounted for 25.0 percent, while casual construction work, largely done by boys, represented 18.2 percent. Smaller proportions were involved in agricultural labour and scrap-related activities.

These patterns show that child labour in Langas is both widespread and diverse. It is embedded in multiple sectors of the local economy and often overlaps with school attendance and household responsibilities. The data suggest that as children get older, they are increasingly drawn into work, with gender roles shaping the kinds of tasks they perform.

Table 2: Demographic Profile and Labour Status of Children (N = 360)

Variable	Category	Frequency	%
Child Gender	Male	182	50.6
	Female	178	49.4
Child Age Group (years)	5–9	84	23.3
	10–13	138	38.3
	14–17	138	38.3
School Attendance	Currently enrolled	266	73.9
	Dropped out	60	16.7
	Never attended	34	9.4
Involvement in Labour	Engaged in labour	148	41.1
	Not engaged	212	58.9
Type of Work (among working children)	Domestic work (outside home)	43	29.1
	Market vending/hawking	37	25.0
	Casual construction work	27	18.2
	Agricultural labour	21	14.2
	Other (e.g., scrap picking)	20	13.5

3.2 Prevalence and Patterns of Child Labour

The prevalence of child labour in Langas (41.1%) was significantly higher than national averages. Children worked in varied activities including domestic service outside their homes (29.1%), market vending (25.0%), casual construction (18.2%), agriculture (14.2%), and scrap picking (13.5%). Several of these tasks particularly construction and scrap collection were hazardous. Despite high enrolment rates, many children combined schooling with work. A 13-year-old boy explained: “I go to school in the morning, but after classes I carry loads at the market until evening. If I don’t, we cannot buy supper” (IDI-14). Teachers confirmed that this pattern often led to absenteeism and declining performance.

The types of work varied by gender and age. Girls were predominantly involved in domestic service and caregiving, while boys were concentrated in market vending and manual tasks such as construction and scrap collection. These findings reflect the gendered segmentation of informal labour markets and the normalization of child work within the settlement.

3.3 Socio-Economic Correlates of Child Labour

Table 3 presents cross-tabulations between selected demographic characteristics and child labour involvement among the 360 children surveyed in Langas Estate. The results show significant associations across gender, age group, and schooling status.

Gender differences were clear. Boys were more likely to be engaged in labour than girls ($\chi^2 = 4.02$, $p < .05$). Among working children, 56.8 percent were male compared to 43.2 percent female. This finding supports earlier results that boys are more often drawn into physically demanding or market-based tasks, while girls are concentrated in domestic service.

Age was also a strong predictor of labour participation ($\chi^2 = 18.67$, $p < .001$). Nearly half of children aged 14 to 17 years (46.6 percent) were engaged in work, compared to 41.2 percent of those aged 10 to 13 years. Only 12.2 percent of children aged 5 to 9 years reported work involvement. These figures suggest that older children are more exposed to informal labour opportunities and are also viewed by households as more capable of contributing economically.

Schooling status showed the strongest association with labour involvement ($\chi^2 = 102.51$, $p < .001$). Among children who had dropped out of school, 31.8 percent were engaged in work, and 19.6 percent of those who had never attended school were working. In contrast, 48.6 percent of children who were currently enrolled in school reported involvement in labour. These results underline the protective role of education, while also showing that school attendance alone does not eliminate child labour, as many children combine school with work.

Taken together, the findings from Table 3 demonstrate that child labour in Langas is shaped by gender norms, age-related expectations, and access to schooling. These dynamics highlight the interplay of household decisions and broader socio-economic pressures, pointing to the need for interventions that strengthen educational access and address gendered work roles.

Table 3: Cross-tabulation of Demographic Variables and Child Labour Involvement (N = 360)

Variable	Category	Engaged in Labour (n = 148)	Not Engaged (n = 212)	Total (n = 360)	χ^2 (df)	p-value
Child Gender	Male	84 (56.8%)	98 (46.2%)	182 (50.6%)	4.02 (1)	< .05
	Female	64 (43.2%)	114 (53.8%)	178 (49.4%)		
Child Age Group (years)	5–9	18 (12.2%)	66 (31.1%)	84 (23.3%)	18.67 (2)	< .001
	10–13	61 (41.2%)	77 (36.3%)	138 (38.3%)		
	14–17	69 (46.6%)	69 (32.5%)	138 (38.3%)		
School Attendance	Enrolled	72 (48.6%)	194 (91.5%)	266 (73.9%)	102.51 (2)	< .001
	Dropped out	47 (31.8%)	13 (6.1%)	60 (16.7%)		
	Never attended	29 (19.6%)	5 (2.4%)	34 (9.4%)		

Table 4 presents the relationship between household-level socio-economic characteristics and child labour involvement among the 360 surveyed children. The results show significant associations across caregiver education, household income, and household size, highlighting the structural pressures that shape decisions around child work.

Caregiver education was a strong predictor of child labour ($\chi^2 = 22.41$, $p < .001$). Among children from households where caregivers had no formal education, 73.9 percent were engaged in labour. This contrasts sharply with a 37.0 percent labour rate among children whose caregivers had attained secondary or post-secondary education. These findings suggest that caregiver literacy and awareness may influence both household economic choices and perceptions of child work.

Household income was also strongly associated with child labour prevalence ($\chi^2 = 18.63$, $p < .001$). Children from households earning less than KES 5,000 per month were almost three times more likely to be engaged in work (73.2 percent) compared to those from households earning more than KES 10,000 (27.5 percent). This pattern reflects the influence of poverty and income insecurity in pushing children into the labour force as a survival strategy.

Household size further showed a significant correlation with child labour ($\chi^2 = 16.28$, $p < .001$). In households with seven or more members, 71.2 percent of children were engaged in labour, compared to just 29.4 percent in smaller households of one to three members. Larger household sizes often translate into higher dependency ratios, which may compel caregivers to mobilize children's labour to meet basic needs.

Taken together, the data in Table 4 underscore how child labour in Langas Estate is rooted in household-level socio-economic realities. Low caregiver education, limited household income, and overcrowding interact to create conditions where child work becomes normalized and, for many families, a necessary coping strategy.

Table 4: Household Socio-Economic Characteristics and Child Labour Involvement (N = 360)

Variable	Category	n (%)	Involved in Child Labour n (%)	$\chi^2(df)$	p-value
Caregiver education	No formal education	92 (25.6)	68 (73.9)	22.41 (2)	< .001
	Primary	176 (48.9)	94 (53.4)		
	Secondary+	92 (25.6)	34 (37.0)		
Household monthly income	< 5,000 KES	142 (39.4)	104 (73.2)	18.63 (2)	< .001
	5,001–10,000 KES	138 (38.3)	70 (50.7)		
	> 10,000 KES	80 (22.2)	22 (27.5)		
Household size	1–3 members	68 (18.9)	20 (29.4)	16.28 (2)	< .001
	4–6 members	174 (48.3)	90 (51.7)		
	7+ members	118 (32.8)	84 (71.2)		

Table 5 presents the relationship between housing conditions, caregiver employment status, and child labour involvement among the surveyed households. The results reveal statistically significant associations, showing how structural vulnerabilities within Langas Estate contribute to the persistence of child labour.

Housing condition emerged as a strong predictor of child labour engagement ($\chi^2 = 12.94$, $p < .001$). Children living in semi-permanent structures were significantly more likely to be involved in labour (64.5 percent) compared to those in permanent housing (38.6 percent). These findings suggest that insecure and substandard housing environments; often linked to tenure insecurity and limited access to services, heighten household vulnerability and increase reliance on children's labour.

Caregiver employment status was also significantly associated with child labour ($\chi^2 = 15.22$, $p < .001$). Children from households where caregivers were engaged in informal work reported the highest labour involvement (65.3 percent), followed by those from households with unemployed caregivers (47.4 percent). In contrast, children from households with formally employed caregivers showed the lowest labour rates (34.1 percent). These results reflect the precarious nature of informal employment and unemployment, where income instability and lack of social protection compel families to mobilize children's work as a survival mechanism.

Data in Table 5 highlight how structural exclusion, manifested through inadequate housing and unstable labour markets intersects with household-level economic stress to sustain child labour in Langas Estate. The findings reinforce the need for policy interventions that address not only poverty but also the wider institutional and spatial conditions that shape children's vulnerability.

Table 5: Housing and Caregiver Employment Characteristics and Child Labour Involvement (N = 360)

Variable	Category	n (%)	Involved in Child Labour n (%)	$\chi^2(df)$	p-value
Housing condition	Semi-permanent	220 (61.1)	142 (64.5)	12.94 (1)	< .001
	Permanent	140 (38.9)	54 (38.6)		
Caregiver employment	Informal work	202 (56.1)	132 (65.3)	15.22 (2)	< .001
	Formal work	82 (22.8)	28 (34.1)		
	Unemployed	76 (21.1)	36 (47.4)		

Caregivers described the economic pressures vividly. "Even if the government says school is free, you must buy uniforms and books. When we fail, the child stays at home and starts working" (IDI-6). Another mother explained: "When my husband lost his job, our two older children began selling vegetables and sweets to keep us going" (FGD-2).

3.4 Structural and Institutional Drivers

Beyond household poverty, broader structural forces sustained child labour. Many families lived in precarious housing with insecure tenure. One caregiver noted: "If the landlord threatens eviction, even children must find small jobs to help pay rent" (IDI-2). The informal economy absorbed children with little resistance. Local leaders acknowledged this: "In these markets, no one asks for age. Children sell vegetables, carry loads, or hawk items, and it becomes normal" (KII-3). Weak enforcement worsened the problem. A child protection officer admitted: "We are too few to monitor settlements like Langas. Many cases go unreported" (KII-5).

3.5 Cultural Norms and Gendered Expectations

Cultural expectations also shaped patterns of child labour. Girls were often confined to domestic work, both within and outside the home, while boys were steered toward public market work. An adolescent girl explained: “As the eldest daughter, I cook, wash, and sometimes go to clean in other people’s houses. If I refuse, they say I am lazy” (FGD-1). Boys, on the other hand, faced pressure to demonstrate masculinity through labour. “They tell me I am a man now, so I should help by pushing wheelbarrows at the market” (FGD-3). Teachers confirmed these gendered patterns: “Girls disappear into domestic service, while boys go to the market. Both groups lose focus on school” (KII-7).

3.6 Synthesis of Key Findings

The findings reveal that child labour in Llangas Estate is shaped by the interaction of household poverty, large family sizes, limited caregiver education, and unstable livelihoods. These household-level constraints are compounded by structural challenges, including insecure housing, weak institutional enforcement, and the ready absorption of children into informal markets. Cultural norms also play a role, with gender expectations influencing the types of work undertaken by boys and girls.

These results demonstrate that interventions targeting poverty alone are insufficient. Effective strategies must also address the wider structural environment, challenge harmful cultural practices, and strengthen institutional mechanisms for protection. The evidence suggests that child labour in Llangas is not simply a symptom of poverty but an outcome of interlinked social, economic, and structural inequalities that normalize and sustain children’s involvement in work.

4. Discussion

The combined quantitative and qualitative findings confirm that child labour in Llangas is shaped by intersecting structural and socio-economic forces. The prevalence rate of 41.1 percent is well above national averages, underscoring the heightened vulnerabilities of informal settlements. Children’s testimonies exposed the hidden weight of school-related expenses, cultural expectations, and the normalization of work within their communities. These results resonate with regional studies showing how informal markets absorb children because they offer low-barrier entry opportunities (ILO & UNICEF, 2025). They also expose the gap between policy and practice, as the promise of free primary education is undercut by indirect costs that exclude the poorest households. The gendered patterns observed further align with wider literature, which shows that girls’ labour is often invisible within households, while boys’ labour is more visible in public domains (Chebet, Masinde, & Kareithi, 2018). Taken together, the evidence demonstrates that reducing child labour requires integrated strategies that not only alleviate economic vulnerability and structural marginalization but also challenge entrenched cultural norms that sustain children’s involvement in work.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusion

This study examined the prevalence, patterns, and drivers of child labour in Llangas Estate, Eldoret, through a mixed-methods approach grounded in structuralist, political economy, and social reproduction perspectives. The findings show that child labour is not simply a result of household poverty, but rather a manifestation of intersecting structural, socio-economic, and cultural forces. High rates were observed among children aged 10–17, with clear gender segmentation in the types of work performed and strong associations with school exclusion, income insecurity, and caregiver education levels.

Structural vulnerabilities including insecure housing, informal employment, and weak enforcement of child protection laws were found to intensify household risks. Cultural norms further legitimized child work, especially among girls, reinforcing intergenerational expectations and survival strategies. These dynamics demonstrate that child labour in informal urban settlements like Llangas is deeply embedded in systemic marginalization and cannot be addressed through poverty reduction alone.

The study contributes to the growing body of literature calling for multi-level interventions that respond to both immediate household needs and broader institutional and normative barriers. It also underscores the importance of localized evidence and context-sensitive strategies to guide effective policy and programming in urban informal contexts.

5.2 Recommendations

The study established that child labour in Llangas Estate is shaped by interconnected household poverty, structural vulnerabilities, and cultural norms. Addressing these drivers requires multi-level strategies that combine legal enforcement, social protection, and community engagement. The following recommendations are proposed to guide policy, programmatic action, and future research.

Policy-Level Interventions

- Strengthen the enforcement of the *Children Act (2022)* and *Employment Act (2007)* by increasing labour inspections, establishing community-based reporting mechanisms, and enhancing the capacity of child protection officers.

- Expand social protection programs to cover households in informal settlements, with targeted subsidies for school-related expenses and emergency support for families experiencing economic shocks.
- Integrate child labour prevention into county-level development plans, ensuring dedicated budget allocations and cross-sectoral coordination.

Programmatic and Community-Level Actions

- Establish community child protection committees in Langas and similar settlements to monitor child labour, facilitate reporting, and support the withdrawal and reintegration of affected children.
- Launch awareness campaigns to challenge cultural norms that normalize child labour, with emphasis on the long-term benefits of education and child rights.
- Partner with local schools and NGOs to provide flexible learning pathways for working children, including evening classes, catch-up programs, and vocational bridging initiatives.

Research and Monitoring

- Conduct longitudinal studies to assess the impact of interventions and track the long-term trajectories of children engaged in labour.
- Develop disaggregated data systems at county level to monitor child labour trends in informal settlements.
- Promote participatory research involving children and caregivers to ensure interventions remain responsive to lived realities.

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