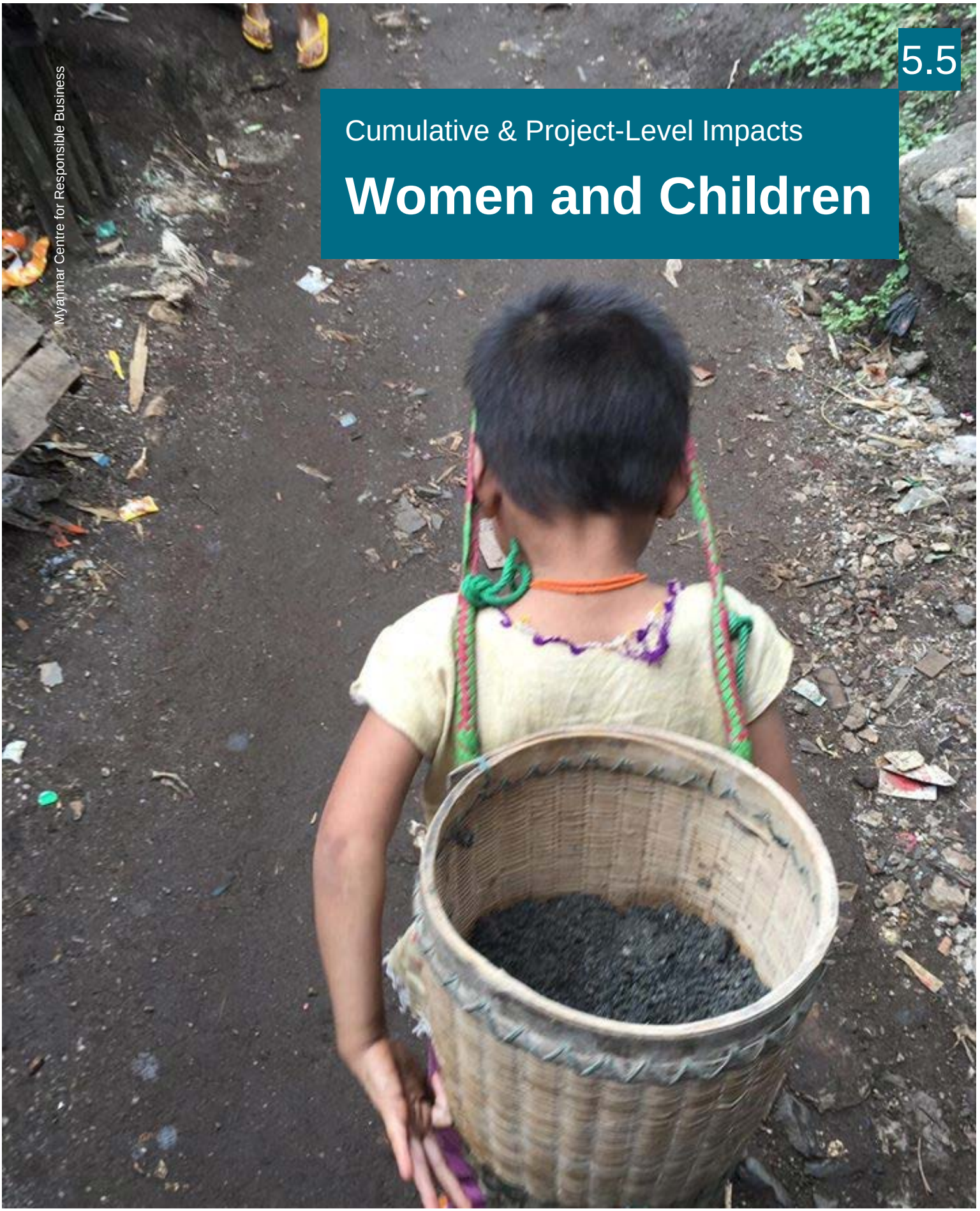

5.5

Cumulative & Project-Level Impacts

Women and Children

Myanmar Centre for Responsible Business

Part 5.5

Women and Children

In this section:

A. National Context

Women

The impacts of mining operations are not gender neutral. Women can experience the direct and indirect consequences of mining operations in different, and often more pronounced, ways than men (Box 20).

Myanmar acceded to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) in 1997. However, a legal definition of discrimination against women has not been adopted in the 2008 Constitution or other legislation, which ultimately hinders the formulation, interpretation, and dissemination of laws and policies impacting women's rights.[401] For example, Article 350 of the 2008 Constitution guarantees that women shall be entitled to equal pay for equal work. This is contradicted in other provisions within the Constitution that clearly constitute discrimination against women. Article 352, for example, states that although there may be no discrimination on the basis of sex "in appointing or assigning duties to civil service personnel […] nothing in this section shall prevent appointment of men to the positions that are suitable for men only." Myanmar has not ratified the ILO Conventions on discrimination, equal remuneration or maternity protection. However, the 2013 Minimum Wage Act provides that a worker has the right to enjoy the minimum wage without discrimination between women and men, prior to which civil service salaries were levelled.[402]

Inequality is also illustrated within political processes and representation. The proportion of women Members of Parliament has increased since the 2015 general elections. From 2010-2015, only 5.9% of Union Parliament were represented by women, a number that has increased to 14.5% since the recent elections. Regardless of such progress, however,

[401] Gender Equality Network & Global Justice Center, Shadow Report on Myanmar for the 64th Session of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women, July 2016, p. 2
[402] 2013 Minimum Wage Law, Article 14(h)

women remain vastly underrepresented in politics. Out of the 29 Ethnic Affairs Ministers elected, for example, only five were women.[403]

CSOs have pointed to a general lack of political will to implement the National Strategic Plan for the Advancement of Women. This ten year Plan unveiled by the Government in October 2013 embodies a commitment to promoting and protecting the human rights of women in Myanmar.[404] There are some legal provisions, however, that are designed to protect the personal security of women. For example, the Penal Code contains provision for crimes against women including rape, abuse, and seduction and sex with under-age women. Trafficking or trading women for prostitution, or enticing for sexual purpose is a crime punishable by imprisonment.

Many domestic laws and policies incorporate restrictive gender stereotypes and are thus inconsistent with CEDAW which aims to promote and protect gender equality. For example, Rule 168 of the 2018 Mines Rules maintains the provision in the 1996 Rules that women shall not be employed to work underground except for health and social services functions. In local culture, it is believed that if a woman were to enter a quarry or a mine, the said quarry will stop producing minerals or collapse.[405] Such a superstition exists in other cultures but some have managed to overcome it.[406]

It has been documented that women face discrimination and barriers in accessing or owning land, and participating in consultation and decision-making processes regarding land.[407] At the same time, research indicates that security over land can help to stabilise society and create security for women and their families, as well as contributing to their economic and political independence. Studies also demonstrate that women who own land are less vulnerable to domestic violence.[408]

Box 20: The Gendered Impacts of Mining

Globally, the gendered impacts of mining are well documented. Some of the common ways in which mining may affect women and men differently are outlined below.[409]

- **Socio-economic aspects:** While mining can provide positive benefits and create economic opportunities for family units, evidence suggests that mining can also increase the level and extent of economic inequality through redistribution of financial resources. For example, the sudden influx of cash compensation from

[403] Asia Foundation, Myanmar Elections Usher in Unprecedented Number of Women Parliamentarians, 2016
[404] Gender Equality Network & Global Justice Center, Shadow Report on Myanmar for the 64th Session of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women, July 2016, p. 7
[405] Debating with Data: A response to the 'The Myth Myanmar can Afford to Ditch', Shin Saw Aung, Teacircles, August 2017
[406] Women miners blast through barriers in Chile, InterPress Service, 11 April 2013
[407] Transnational Institute, Linking Women and Land in Myanmar; Recognising Gender in the National Land Use Policy, February 2015, p. 7
[408] Ibid p. 4
[409] This box is based on: Oxfam Australia, The Gender Impacts of Mining and the Role of Gender Impact Assessment, 2009; Oxfam Australia, Tunnel Vision-Women, Mining and Communities, 2011; Rio Tinto, Why Gender Matters, 2009

direct or indirect employment (usually of men) can result in significant changes to community life, with women often bearing the negative impacts. Mining may also result in adverse social and health impacts for women, including an increase in alcohol related abuse, domestic violence and general social disruption. The implications of the influx of large male populations on local communities, for instance, can include an increased likelihood of early sexual activity, HIV and other sexually transmitted infections, exploitation, and prostitution.

- **Local employment:** One of the most obvious benefits of the mining industry for local communities is the direct and indirect employment opportunities it can provide. As it is mostly men that gain such employment, areas of domestic life can be significantly altered for women through the presence of mining activities. When women are employed in mining, they are often expected to maintain their traditional domestic role as well as their new role as an income earner. Within the workplace itself, women may face issues of sexual harassment and abuse, salary inequity, and other types of discrimination.
- **Environmental impacts:** Women are often in charge of household tasks like food production and preparation. Environmental problems, such as reduced access to water or loss of agricultural land, can have a direct and negative effect on a family's access to food. When a community suddenly becomes a centre for mining, the cost of living usually goes up and food becomes more expensive, creating more stress for the women who are responsible for feeding a family. Women and girls may also bear the responsibility of collecting water, of which the quality and availability becomes compromised after a mining project is underway.
- **Resettlement and relocation:** Resettlement and relocation for the purposes of mining often disproportionately affect women, resulting in negative physical, social, cultural, and economic displacement. For instance, in many subsistence societies, women do not have recognised land rights and are therefore excluded from most land-based compensation schemes. In Myanmar it has been noted that rural communities are especially dependent upon women for tasks ranging from raising families to tending to crops and animals. The important contribution of women to generational and societal reproduction can only be realised through securing their access to land. The critical role that women play needs to be supported by ensuring their access to resources, such as land, in order to create a healthy society.[410]
- **Negotiations and engagement:** The disproportionate manner in which women are treated often starts at the initial negotiation and engagement stages of mining developments, as women are often excluded from such processes. Women may be excluded due to cultural or work related factors, including domestic responsibilities. Failure to adequately engage women means that their knowledge is not accessed and considered in project planning, an exclusion that can exacerbate resentment and conflict.

[410] Transnational Institute, Linking Women and Land in Myanmar; Recognising Gender in the National Land Use Policy, February 2015, p. 4

Children

Children involved in or affected by mining activities are often unseen and uncounted as they lack a public voice to speak up for themselves in their communities and with local governments. While child labour in mining is a critical issue, the impacts of mining on children extend well beyond the issue of labour. Issues such as land acquisition and resettlement, health and safety, educational opportunities and working conditions also impact directly on children (Box 21).

The Government ratified the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) in 1991, and acceded to the CRC Optional Protocol on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution, and Child Pornography in January 2012. The 2008 Constitution reaffirms the State's responsibility to provide free basic education and healthcare for children. While most children attend primary school the net completion rate is only 54%, and only 58.3% of children of secondary school age attend secondary school. [411] Due to widespread poverty, many children drop out of school and work to help earn money for their families. A 2015 report issued by ILO, for which parents and children were interviewed throughout various regions in Myanmar, found that poverty is considered to be the main driving factor behind child labour.[412]

Currently, Myanmar lacks a specific child labour law, although existing related laws, including the 1993 Child Law, are under review to comply with international labour standards. Myanmar law diverges from the CRC in some significant areas. With the amendment of the Factories Act in May 2016, and the Shops and Establishments Act in January 2015, the minimum age for the employment of children in Myanmar is set at 14 years which is in line with international standards for light work, but not in line with the international standard of 15 years for regular work.[413] The 1993 Child Law defines a child as a person under 16 years of age, and classifies children between the age of 14 and 17 as youths. It allows them to engage in 'light duties', although, 'light duties' is not defined.[414] MCRB's May 2017 Briefing Paper on Children's Rights and Business in Myanmar provides further background.[415]

The ILO Convention No.182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour was ratified by the Government in December 2013. Nevertheless, child labour is widespread and visible throughout Myanmar in various sectors, including in mining. In a recent study on child labour in the Mon areas, civil society members and child protection officers described child labour in Myanmar as vastly under-researched, and said that accurate data from the country's peripheral areas is almost non-existent.[416] The Government is working with the ILO and UNICEF to reform laws and end the worst forms of child labour.[417] One initiative launched by the ILO has been a training programme for workers, employers, and CSOs to learn about child labour and identify potential interventions to be carried out by their own

[411] UNICEF, Situation Analysis of Children in Myanmar, July 2012, p. 116
[412] ILO, Knowledge, Attitudes and Practices (KAP) Study on Child Labour in Yangon, Ayeyarwady Region and Mon State, January 2016, p. 11
[413] Freedom House, The Global State of Workers Rights, 31 August 2010, pp. 14-15
[414] US Department of State, Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights and Labor, 2015 Country reports on Human Rights practices: Burma, 2015
[415] Briefing paper on Children's Rights and Business, Myanmar Centre for Responsible Business, May 2017
[416] The Woman and Child Rights Project, Children for Hire, November 2013, p. 8
[417] US Department of State, Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights and Labor, 2013 Country reports on Human Rights practices: Burma, 2015

organisations.[418] However, it appears that no dedicated initiatives, research studies or interventions related to the prevalence of child labour in the mining sector in Myanmar have been undertaken.

Rule 146 of the 2018 Mines Rules (replacing Rule 94 of the 1996 Rules) states that no person shall be employed to work in a mine unless he is in possession of a certificate issued by the relevant Health Department certifying his fitness and that he is at least 18.

Box 21: Impacts of Mining on Children's Rights[419]

- **Socio-economic aspects:** In-migration associated with mining activities often increases the exposure of children to the risk of sexual exploitation and violence and the rate of child pregnancy. Such sexual exploitation can continue throughout the lifespan of the mining project and may expose children to risks of contracting sexually transmitted infections, including HIV.
- **Child labour:** Because large-scale mining operations do not directly hire children, the greatest risk of child labour in the sector is within the supply chain, particularly during construction, or in the informal mining sector where children might work in subsistence mining with their parents, siblings and communities.
- **Decent work:** Children are also negatively affected when mining companies or their contractors do not provide their employees with a living wage, potentially leading to parents not having enough income to sustain a family; or where housing provided for employees and their families does not meet adequate standards.
- **Environmental impacts:** Localised environmental impacts of mining can include dust, erosion, adverse effects on ecology and biodiversity, and the contamination of soil, ground and surface water by chemicals from the mining process, including cyanide, arsenic, sulphuric acid, mercury and heavy metals. Children are more vulnerable to the localised environmental impacts of mining activities than adults, particularly water, air and soil pollution, due to their progressive and incomplete physical development, among other factors.
- **Resettlement and relocation:** Land acquisition and/or access are vital for mining, often creating significant socio-economic impacts to which children may be most vulnerable. Land acquisition and use can affect community members whose homes are located either within the mine site or adjacent to it. Not only can this lead to the loss of a child's home, but displacement and relocation can cause fundamental changes in family structures and social dynamics.
- **Safety and security of children:** As traffic increases on roads due to mining activities, there is an increased likelihood that children will be injured or killed in accidents. Additionally, children could be adversely impacted through their interaction with private or public security personnel of mining companies.
- **Artisanal and small-scale mining:** ASM activities involve the use of basic methods and processes to extract minerals. Worldwide, one million children aged 5–17 are estimated to be engaged in ASM and quarrying activities, working in

[418] ILO, Project Updates: Myanmar Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour, Volume 4, 2016
[419] This box is based on: Stop Child Labor, The Child Labor Coalition, Child Mining: 10 Facts; UNICEF, Children's Rights and the Mining Sector: UNICEF Extractive Pilot, 2015

dangerous conditions, with no access to basic necessities, schools or health clinics. ASM poses critical risks to children, including:

- Use of child labour, and loss of education, when children need to contribute to the family income.
- Significant health and safety risks, including increases in communicable disease and the impacts of the use of chemicals such as mercury and cyanide, which affect children differently than adults. Mercury poisoning can affect the brain, heart, kidneys, and lungs and is extremely detrimental to children, affecting their nervous system development, which can lead to long-term developmental disabilities (Minamata disease).
- Increased risk of sexual exploitation and violence towards children, including forced marriage, rape and prostitution.
- Links to armed militant groups, particularly in conflict zones or conflict-affected areas, which increases the risk that children are recruited into militias.

B. Field Assessment Findings

Some of the key impacts and concerns concerning mining projects and activities on women's and children's rights that were noted during the field research are outlined below.

Impacts of mining activities on women

Human Rights Implicated: Right to non-discrimination; women's rights; right to the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health

- **Women and men engage in different types of mining work, and experience differences in average pay:** Overall, the field research found that women were more predominantly engaged in mine processing, whereas men worked predominantly in ore extraction. In some of the tin mining areas, for example, most of the women were working in washing the tin and collecting hard rock, pounding, and working in the open pit areas. While equal pay for equal work was observed to be practiced at some of the mine sites visited, by virtue of being engaged in different parts of mining and processing, notable pay gaps between women and men were identified in practice. For example, at one site where men worked primarily in the formal and underground operations for approximately MMK 7,000-10,000 per day, women were engaged in the informal/illegal open pit activities, earning only around MMK 5,000 per day for these activities. In some subsistence mining areas there were also instances reported of women getting paid less for doing the same work as men. An exception to these differences in types of work and pay was in the area of creek tin mining, which was found to be primarily a family-based activity involving women, men and children all performing similar activities. Almost no women were found to be working at the formal large-scale and small-scale mine sites. Furthermore, for the types of jobs that women did perform at these sites the salary was significantly lower than that for positions held by men.
- **Limited job opportunities for women and discrimination in hiring:** At several sites women reported that they would be interested to work in mining if there were jobs available to match their skills. However, women said that they had little information

about the roles and skills needed and that most jobs filled by local staff would be taken by men. Furthermore, there were also some incidents identified where the actual job descriptions posted by the company specified the required gender and age, to women's disadvantage.

- **Women not working in underground mines:** The field research found that at formal and informal sites, women were not working in underground mines. At one site, according to local beliefs women were not allowed to go underground because they might have accidents; but also because it was believed that women's presence in the underground mines would reduce the quality and abundance of the tin deposits.
- **Maternity leave:** As outlined in Part 5.4: Labour, the larger companies said that they followed the law regarding maternity leave but did not have any specific policy provisions for the protection of pregnant women from hazardous work. In subsistence mining areas it appeared to be usual practice that women stop working when they become pregnant and that there was no financial security during this leave. However, in some subsistence mining areas it was also observed that women were working while pregnant, including using mercury for gold processing.
- **Women often work in the informal sector and as daily workers:** In areas where there were both formal and informal mining activities it was reported that women worked predominantly in the informal sector. For example, at one site it was reported that men tended to work in the small-scale underground operations, whereas the women predominantly practiced illegal subsistence mining in open pit mining areas on existing concessions. Overall, the field research found that most women working in the mining sector were employed in casual labour, cooking, panning and collecting and processing ore. In one subsistence gold mining area, from talking to villagers it was observed that women working in mining were not perceived as miners but as acting in a 'supporting role' to male miners, i.e. performing less heavy mining work, cooking, cleaning, and taking care of childcare responsibilities.
- **Double workload:** In the subsistence gold mining areas the responsibilities of women included the double workload of getting up early to cook, arranging for children to go to school, managing the camp, getting food supplies and collecting firewood, as well as mining work.
- **Exposure to mercury and chemicals:** In addition to the insecurity associated with working in the informal sector or as daily workers, the field research also observed that the types of work that women were engaged in can be associated with a higher exposure to mercury and other processing chemicals. For example, at one site, panning and mercury use was described as 'a woman's job'. Furthermore, from speaking with gold miners in the area, it appeared that women were not aware of the adverse health impacts of mercury.
- **Sex work:** Sex work was found to be more prevalent in the subsistence gold mining areas than in the tin mining areas. While prostitution was observed and reported in these areas it was difficult to obtain precise or conclusive data.
- **Women are underrepresented in community and institutional leadership structures:** Bar a few exceptions, women were found not to be represented in leadership positions and structures, such as the 10 or '100 household heads' or mine management. This means that where engagement or consultation occurred between mining companies and community leaders, women would not have been consulted.

Impacts of mining activities on children

Child health and safety

Human Rights Implicated: Right to non-discrimination; children's right to health and health services; children's right to an adequate standard of living; children's right to play; children's right to protection from the use of harmful drugs; children's right to protection from all forms of sexual exploitation and abuse

- **Safety of children on roads and around mine sites:** Close to one large-scale mine site, the old road used by the community had been closed down and school children therefore had to use a new (dirt) road with a lot of traffic from the quarrying site to the processing factory. Villagers expressed concern about the safety of their children because of this heavy traffic, with rocks potentially falling from trucks and the exposure to a lot of dust. While one company was found to have a regular time for the blasting and to announce it with a megaphone, at other sites blasting hours were unknown to villagers and the township administrator. It was also reported that children play in and around mine sites, including in deep pits that fill up with water during the rainy season, leading to dangerous situations.
- **Accidents in and near mine sites:** Several accidents involving children near mine sites were reported during the field research. At one site, a 13-year old boy employed to bring lunchboxes to mine workers died as a result of rocks falling on him while he was walking on a road close to a limestone mountain. Several drowning accidents were also reported. At one site for instance, it was reported that a child drowned while swimming in the ponds created by topsoil removal. Several accidents related to children or young people searching for gold in abandoned pits in subsistence mining areas were also reported. For example, at one site a 17-year old boy was disabled due to a landslide while panning at a former subsistence mine site. Due to lack of information regarding the ownership of the site, nobody could be held responsible and medical costs to treat the boy were not compensated. At another site, a 12-year old boy died in his home near to a tin and tungsten mine site, when the tailings dam collapsed.
- **Noise and air pollution:** At one site near a processing plant, schoolchildren reported that even though they were getting used to the noise and smell, it interfered with their schooling. In one gold mining area, four villages reported that smells from the mine site kept children awake at night.
- **Adverse health impacts from mining:** It was reported that a number of children in villages close to one mine site suffered from tuberculosis-like symptoms and acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS). While villagers and doctors could not verify what the cause of these diseases is, villagers suspected that there may be a link between the illnesses and the mining activities. At subsistence mine sites, young children bought and used mercury for panning activities (see further, Part 5.4: Labour). In some panning areas mercury and other chemicals were used and disposed of near to the creek, the main water source for the village that is also used for bathing, swimming and catching fish for consumption. Additionally, children lived, played and bathed close to areas where mercury and other chemicals were used for panning. Food was also prepared close by. Children at a small-scale gold mine site were engaged in various activities causing adverse health impacts, including carrying residue of cyanide without the use of protective equipment and often going barefoot, unaware of the harmful impacts of

cyanide. In another mining area women would bring their small children of two or three years old to mine site. Parents mentioned that they were not aware of the potential (long-term) health impacts of the use of mercury and other chemicals on children.

- **In-migration and safety concerns:** Communities in a number of mining areas expressed safety concerns and reported increases in crime and theft due to in-migration of mineworkers from other parts of Myanmar. At one site, for example, youth attending tuition classes in the evening mentioned they felt unsafe and parents had to accompany their children. In a tin mining area, a girl was reportedly raped by a migrant worker. While no other specific incidents were shared, it was mentioned that this was not an isolated case and parents expressed concerns about their children going to school on their own.
- **Increased drug use among youth:** In several subsistence gold mining areas, drug use (ya-ba and heroin) was reportedly widespread. It was observed that children of parents who use drugs left school at the age of 12-14 years to work on mine sites. Local community members interviewed were concerned about children starting to use drugs at an early age. During the season that mine were closed, children reportedly resorted to drugs because they had no other activities to keep themselves occupied.

Access to education

Human Rights Implicated: Right to non-discrimination; children's right to education

- **Impacts of in-migration:** Community members, including villagers and a school master, mentioned that the influx of Burmese speaking migrant workers and their children near a cement plant in an ethnic area has impacted the education of local ethnic school children. Local children encountered language challenges in school because classes were taught in Burmese language, which is the native language of migrant children but not of the local children who had therefore dropped out of school.
- **Landlessness:** The confiscation of farmers' land for gold mining has led to farmers becoming casual labourers (see further, Part 5.3: Land). Interviews with farmers, village leaders and migrant workers demonstrated that children have had to drop out of school after primary school to work in and around the mine sites, for example as panners. In one mining village, only around 10% of the children went further than primary education.
- **Access to schools:** While in some cases large-scale mining companies, as well as informal mine owners, had contributed to building schools and/or accommodation for teachers, some negative effects were reported. In one area, education of children was not prioritised by parents as they predicted that mining would be the only opportunity for their children and thus concluded that the children did not need to go to high school. In another instance, after a landslide near a tin mine site, four schools had to be closed as they were declared hazardous zones and as a result children had to travel further to attend other schools. The nearest high school was too far away and therefore children as young as 10 years old did not attend school and instead joined their parents on the mine site, for example by helping them to carry tin.

Child labour

Human Rights Implicated: Right to non-discrimination; children's right to leisure, play and culture; children's right to freedom from child labour

- **Child labour in formal mining:** Child labour was not widespread at large-scale mine sites, but some cases were reported. The field research found that in spite of rules and regulations being in place prohibiting children under the age of 18 years from working, some children were employed in a cement factory. A number of workers mentioned that they had lied about their age to obtain employment at the factory and started working at the age of 14-15 years. Even though the mining companies the field team spoke with said that they did not employ children below the age of 18 and checked identity cards of all new employees, children with an average age of 13, but as young as 10-11 years old, if physically strong enough, were found to work at small-scale gold mine sites, especially during the summer when schools were closed. In one tin mining area, community members reported that although before 2014, there were several cases of children aged 13-16 working for a tin mining company, since the increased monitoring of labour laws and inspections, children had been dismissed. At one site, children would not be allowed in the tunnels but would be occupied with planting or watering trees, carrying residue of cyanide to a waste place without any protective equipment or supporting the CSR projects of the company, such as building a school or other projects. The children reported that if they were found to be playing instead of working they would be warned by the general manager.
- **Child labour in subsistence mining areas:** The field research found that migrant children as young as six or seven years old worked in subsistence gold mining areas as panners. Some children worked from 5 or 6am until 5pm. Others attended school during the day and worked a few hours in the evening, earning MMK 700-1500 per day. The money earned with panning paid for their school fees. When working as independent panners on a mine owner's site, children had to pay MMK 5000 per day to the owner to obtain the right to pan. Children were also found to be involved in quarrying, collecting hard rocks and pounding and mixing of limestone and soil. Girls earned MMK 3500-4000 per day and boys MMK 4000-5000 per day, the reasoning being that boys performed heavier duties than girls. In another region, pit owners would not allow children younger than 16 years to work on the mine site as they were not considered strong enough to perform the work. However, children of 16-18 years of age would be engaged in mining activities, including hazardous activities such as high-pressure hosing for hydraulic mining and the use of dynamite to blast hard rock. In another area, young workers under the age of 18 were involved in washing ore and cleaning and pounding rocks. However, they were not involved in underground mining activities.

C. International Standards, Guidance & Initiatives

Box 22: International Standards, Guidance & Initiatives on Women and Mining

International Standards:

- ICMM Sustainable Development Framework
- IFC Performance Standards and Guidance Notes
- ILO Conventions:
  - C111 Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958
  - C100 Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951
  - C156 Workers with Family Responsibility Convention,1981
  - C183 Maternity Protection Convention, 2000
- UN Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights
- UN International Bill of Human Rights and Core Human Rights Instruments, in particular UN Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), 1979

Guidance and Initiatives:

- CSRM, Mining and Local-Level Development: Examining the Gender Dimensions of Agreement Making and Benefit Sharing
- IFC, Good Practice Note: Non-Discrimination and Equal Opportunity
- IFC, Women in Mining: A Guide to Integrating Women Into the Workforce
- Oxfam Australia, Tunnel Vision-Women, Mining and Communities
- Oxfam Australia, Women, Communities and Mining: The Gender Impacts of Mining and the Role of Gender Impact Assessment
- Rio Tinto, Why Gender Matters
- UNIFEM and United Nations Global Compact, Women's Empowerment Principles
- UN Women focus on promoting leadership and political participation of women, economic empowerment, and ending violence against women.
- World Bank, Gender Dimensions of Artisanal and Small-scale Mining: A Rapid Assessment Toolkit
- World Bank, Gender Dimensions of the Extractive Industries
- World Bank, Women and Artisanal and Small-scale Mining

Box 23: International Standards, Guidance & Initiatives on Children's Rights and Mining

International Standards:

- IFC Performance Standards and Guidance Notes
- ILO Conventions:
  - C182 Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999
  - C138 Minimum Age for Admission to Employment and Work Convention, 1973
- UN Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights
- UN International Bill of Human Rights and Core Human Rights Instruments, in particular UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989
- UN Committee on the Rights of the Child, General Comment No.16 on State Obligations regarding the impacts of the business sector on children`s rights, 2013.

Guidance and Initiatives:

- UNICEF, Children's Rights and the Mining Sector project and pilot study report
- UNICEF, UN Global Compact & Save the Children, Children's Rights and Business Principles
- UNICEF & Save the Children, Children's Rights in Policies and Codes of Conduct
- UNICEF & DIHR, Children's Rights in Impact Assessment
- UNICEF, Children's Rights in Sustainability Reporting
- UNICEF, Engaging Stakeholders on Children's Rights
- UNICEF, DIHR and ICAR, Children's Rights in National Action Plans on Business and Human Rights
- Save the Children, Children as Stakeholders: The Business Benefits of Investing in Children