

Scoping study on decent work and employment in fisheries and aquaculture: Issues and actions for discussion and programming

#### **KNOWLEDGE MATERIALS**

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## **Preparation of this document**

This scoping study is the result of an exploratory mapping and scoping exercise, based on a desk review of recent literature on labour conditions in fisheries and aquaculture. The review was undertaken to identify and discuss issues and challenges - as well as possible actions and measures by interested fisheries and aquaculture stakeholders - related to the promotion of decent employment in the sector. While the review aims at summarizing existing knowledge, findings are not exhaustive with respect to all labour and work-related issues that may be considered in fisheries and aquaculture, but rather are focused on recurring concerns.

The study is the result of a joint effort between the FAO Fisheries and Aquaculture Policy and Resources Division (FIA) and the FAO Social Policies and Rural Institutions Division (ESP), in particular the Decent Rural Employment Team. The study was undertaken in the context of activities by the FIA/ESP SO3-OO2 team on Decent Rural Employment in Fisheries and Aquaculture. This team pursues activities on decent work promotion in the fisheries and aquaculture sector under the FAO's Strategic Objective 3, "Reduce rural poverty".

We would like to acknowledge the contribution of Paola Termine and Nora Kokanova who authored the first versions of this document. Thanks goes to all colleagues from the Fisheries and Aquaculture Department who contributed to the study and in particular Uwe Barg, Junning Cai, Mariaeleonora D'Andrea, Yvette Diei Ouadi, Peter Deupmann, Nicole Franz, Jennifer Gee and Felix Marttin.

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A preliminary version of this document was made available as a background document for the 8th Session of the COFI Sub-Committee on Aquaculture, Brasilia, Brazil, 5-9 October 2015, and for the Vigo Dialogue on Benefits and Incentives of Decent Work and Employment in Fisheries and Aquaculture held during the First International Fisheries Stakeholders Forum in Vigo, Spain, 9 October 2015.

Readers are invited to send any comments or suggestions they may have on this document to: decent-fish-work@fao.org.

## **Abbreviations and acronyms**

ASC Aquaculture Stewardship Council
ASEAN Association of Southeast Asian Nations

BAP Best Aquaculture Practices

CAMCODE Cambodia Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries

CAOPAC African Confederation of Artisanal Fisheries Professional Organization

CEB Chief Executive Board COC Code of Conduct

COFI FAO Committee on Fisheries

CCRF FAO Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries

CFS Committee on World Food Security

DRE Decent Rural Employment
ECOSOC Economic and Social Council

ESMG FAO Environmental and Social Management Guidelines
ESP FAO Social Policies and Rural Institutions Division

EUROPECHE Association of National Organizations of Fishing Enterprises of the EU

FTT FAO-Thiaroye Technique
GLP Good Labour Practices

GSCP Global Social Compliance Programme

HLPE High-Level Panel of Experts on Food Security and Nutrition

ICFA International Coalition of Fisheries Association
ICSE International Classification of Status of Employment
ICSF International Collective in Support of Fishworkers
IFAD International Fund for Agricultural Development

ILO International Labour Organization
ILS International Labour Standards

INTERPOL International Criminal Police Organizations

IPEC International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour IPOA-IUU International Plan of Action to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate Illegal,

Unreported and Unregulated Fishing

IMO International Maritime Organization

ITF International Transport Workers' Federation

IUF International Union of of Food, Agricultural, Hotel, Catering, Tobacco and

Allied Workers' Association

IUU Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated fishing
 JFFLS Junior Farmer Field and Life Schools
 OSH Occupational Safety and Health
 MLC Maritime Labour Convention
 NPA National Plan of Action

RFMOs Regional Fisheries Management Organizations

PHA Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons
PPE Personal Protective Equipment

PSMA FAO Agreement on Port State Measures to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate

Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing

SCR Saving-Cum-Relief

SOLAS International Convention for the Safety of Life at Sea

SSF Small Scale Fisheries

STCW-F International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification and

Watchkeeping for Fishing Vessel Personnel

TAC Total Allowable Catch

TRIANGLE Tripartite Action to Protect Migrant Workers from Labour Exploitation

UNFSA United Nations Fish Stock Agreement

UNCLOS United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea

UNEP United Nations Environment Programme
UNODC United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime

WWF World Wide Fund for Nature

WFF World Forum of Fish Harvesters and Fishworkers

WFFP World Forum of Fisher Peoples

VGGT Voluntary Guidelines for the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land,

Fisheries and Forests in the Context of National Food Security

## **Executive summary**

The Blue Growth Initiative of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) recognizes that decent work in fisheries and aquaculture will help secure sustainable marine and freshwater resource management, while also contributing to global economic and social development. Improved working conditions in fishing and aquaculture will furthermore enhance responses to market demands and improve business through export and market access.

Estimating global employment in fisheries and aquaculture is complex, due to the extensive number of pre-harvest, harvest and post-harvest activities associated with fish value chains. Jobs range from the production and sale of inputs (vessels, fishing gear, bait, etc.) to the farming, harvesting, processing, marketing and distribution of fish. The most recent FAO estimates indicate that around 198 million people are employed along the value chain from harvesting to distribution, of which 56.6 million are directly employed in fisheries and aquaculture. The livelihoods of some 880 million people depend on the sector.

It is important to recognize that where poverty exists in communities that depend on fishing and aquaculture, it is of a multidimensional nature - caused not only by decent work deficits but also by other factors that impede the full enjoyment of human rights, including civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights. However, fisheries and aquaculture present many labour-related challenges specifically linked to the characteristics of the sector, including prevailing informality, seasonality, remoteness, and hazardous nature of work, as well as value chain complexity. The productive capacity of small-scale fishworkers in developing countries is hampered by the interplay of factors including inadequate knowledge and skills; a lack of markets and roads; inequitable tenure rights; inappropriate management; overfishing pressure; climate change; unsupportive or conflicting policies; and weak political representation. As a result, many small-scale fishers and aquaculture producers are poor and often depend on unpaid family labour, including that of women and children. Whether employed in small-scale or larger operations, fishworkers are particularly prone to occupational hazards. Protection of labour rights is weak and even when regulation exists, enforcement is poor. Limited organization of fishworkers in unions, associations and cooperatives also hinders their influence over decisions concerning access and use of fishery resources. Finally, practices such as illegal, unreported and unregulated (IUU) fishing are closely linked with labour abuse, including exploitation of migrant workers.

Giving a complete picture of decent work issues along the fisheries and aquaculture value chain is not within the scope of this paper. To identify labour issues in a specific fish value chain, fisheries operation and geographical context, or those faced by an explicit group of fishworkers, further targeted decent work assessments should be conducted. Instead, the present scoping study proposes wide-ranging decent work concerns for which critical improvement is necessary, based on a review and discussion of issues identified and possible responses to address them. The findings will help guide FAO programming and partnerships with governments, civil society, the private sector, and other UN agencies aimed at improving working and labour conditions along the whole fish value chain – from catch on-farm to markets. The findings and conclusions will also inform key dialogue and decision-making bodies, such as the Committee on World Food Security and the FAO Committee on Fisheries (COFI) sub-committees on aquaculture and on trade. Although the recommendations should not be seen as a policy priority, they could however lead to future formulation of related recommendations.



## 1: Introduction

Fisheries and aquaculture provide nutritious food to billions of people. The sector is an important source of employment and income, supporting the livelihoods of 10-12 percent of the world's population (FAO, 2014a). Just under 60 million people are employed in the primary sector alone, with a further 140 million employed along the value chain, from harvesting to distribution. While it is recognized that many fishing and aquaculture operations provide acceptable (and often good) conditions for fishworkers, employment in fisheries and aquaculture typically does not provide sufficient income, and commonly exploits fishworkers under hazardous conditions.

To provide wider ecosystem stewardship and improved governance of the sector, FAO is advancing the Blue Growth Initiative as a coherent framework for the sustainable socio-economic management of aquatic resources. Anchored in the principles set out in FAO's Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries, Blue Growth focuses on capture fisheries, aquaculture, ecosystem services, trade, and social protection. In line with FAO's Reviewed Strategic Framework<sup>1</sup>, the initiative focuses on promoting the sustainable use and conservation of aquatic renewable resources in an economically, socially and environmentally responsible manner. It aims at reconciling and balancing priorities between growth and conservation, and between industrial and artisanal fisheries and aquaculture, ensuring equitable benefits for communities (FAO, 2014a).

Currently, protection of the labour rights of fishers, aquaculture workers and fishworkers is limited, and even when regulation exists, enforcement is poor.<sup>2</sup> There is limited organization and voice for the majority of stakeholders in the sector, such as small-scale fishers, fish farmers and workers in fish value chains, which hinders their capacity to influence policy and legislation and to access better employment opportunities. Additionally, practices such as illegal, unreported and unregulated (IUU) fishing in capture fisheries can be closely linked to labour abuse, including exploitation of poor migrant workers.<sup>3</sup>

Promoting decent work in fisheries and aquaculture is an important strategy that can lead to more effective fisheries management and responsible aquaculture, while also improving livelihoods and food security.<sup>4</sup> Improved working conditions in fishing and aquaculture can furthermore enhance responses to market demands and hence improve business through export and market access. The FAO Blue Growth Initiative recognizes that Blue Growth jobs must also be decent jobs in order for them to secure the sustainable contribution of the marine and freshwater aquatic environment towards global economic and social development. For fisheries and aquaculture development to alleviate poverty, a human rights based approach is required which doesn't just focus on rights to fishing resources, but also promotes and protects other rights, such as the right to decent work (FAO, 2014b).

- 1 See http://www.fao.org/docrep/meeting/027/mg015e.pdf.
- 2 R. Subasinghe, International Transport Workers' Federation (ITF), Presentation, Rome 2014.
- 3 J. Lund, INTERPOL, Presentation, COFI side event 2014.
- 4 S. Mathew, International Collective in Support of Fishworkers (ICSF), Presentation, COFI side event 2014.

In this first paragraph, a brief introduction on the issue of decent work in fisheries and aquaculture was given. The first chapter continues with a brief explanation of the methodology used, the objective of the study, and the terminology employed throughout. The terminology section was developed especially to provide the reader with a quick reference to understand the concepts and terms related to fisheries and aquaculture and employment used throughout the study.

The second chapter delineates and frames the problematic of decent work in fisheries and aquaculture, presenting the main legal instruments concerned (including voluntary guidelines and technical standards). In the third chapter the magnitude, trends and geographical distribution of employment in fisheries and aquaculture is presented. The fourth chapter organizes the main issues that emerged from the literature analysis around the four pillars of the ILO Decent Work Agenda, coupled with practical actions to tackle the identified issues. Finally, in the fifth chapter some conclusions are presented, along with a subsection articulating the role that FAO could play in addressing the decent work deficit in fisheries and aquaculture.

## 1.1 Global commitments to promote decent work in fisheries and aquaculture

In recent years the necessity and opportunities concerning the promotion of employment and decent working conditions have been increasingly discussed in global policy fora. Besides being recognized as a basic human right, employment has also been recognized for its importance in eradicating poverty and contributing to human social development. The World Summit of the United Nations General Assembly (2005), the high-level segment of the UN's Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) (2006), and the Chief Executives Board for Coordination (CEB) of the UN system (2007) have all agreed to mainstream the goals of full and productive employment and decent work in their policies, programmes and activities as a means of achieving the internationally agreed development goals.<sup>5</sup> More specifically, at its April 2007 session the CEB fully endorsed the Toolkit for Mainstreaming Employment and Decent Work, prepared by the ILO in collaboration with FAO and others (ILO, 2008b).

In 2012, the ECOSOC reaffirmed these objectives through a Ministerial Declaration, expressing deep concern at the ongoing adverse impacts of the world financial and economic crisis.<sup>6</sup>

Furthermore, the sustainable development goals, which will shape the post-2015 development agenda, include a dedicated goal (SDG 8) to "Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all." SDG 8 articulates different targets, which include eliminating the worst forms of child labour, eradicating forced labour, and ending modern slavery and human trafficking (8.7). Special attention is also put on the promotion of full and productive employment for all, including women, youth, and migrant workers, and on the protection of labour rights and safe and secure working conditions.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>5</sup> See ECOSOC Ministerial Declaration 2006, ECOSOC Resolution 2007/2, ECOSOC Resolution 2008/18, and ECOSOC Ministerial Declaration 2012.

<sup>6</sup> ECOSOC. 2012. Promoting productive capacity, employment and decent work to eradicate poverty in the context of inclusive, sustainable and equitable economic growth at all levels for achieving the Millennium Development Goals. Draft ministerial declaration of the 2012 high-level segment, submitted by the President. E/2012/L.10. Previous relevant declarations and recommendations on this topic are the ECOSOC Ministerial Declaration 2006 and the corresponding ECOSOC resolutions 2007/2 and 2008/18.

<sup>7</sup> See more at https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/?menu=1300.

The recognition of the importance of employment for food security and poverty eradication has led FAO to increasingly integrate decent work in its programming. Decent rural employment is featured in FAO's Reviewed Strategic Framework 2010-2019 as an organizational outcome under Strategic objective 3, "Reduce rural poverty".<sup>8</sup>

Decent work is explicitly included, together with the right to food, under the human rights based approach (HRBA) criteria for sustainability in FAO's revised Project Cycle Guide.<sup>9</sup>

The promotion of decent work<sup>10</sup> is also included as a specific standard (ESS7) in the FAO Environmental and Social Management Guidelines (ESMG).<sup>11</sup> The guidelines are used by FAO headquarters and decentralized offices for the management of environmental and social risks in their strategies, policies and field projects. Consequently all FAO projects are assessed on if and how they promote decent work.

The 28th Session (2014) of the High-level Committee on Programmes of the CEB highlighted the youth employment crisis as a global challenge and priority that many organizations of the UN system should address.

International labour and human rights standards must not be lowered in the process of addressing the employment problem or other youth issues, and it is crucial to uphold the existing normative frameworks.<sup>12</sup>

Table 1 delineates how decent work was incorporated in the discussion on fisheries and aquaculture, highlighting the discussion and the declarations of the FAO Committee on Fisheries and the Committee on World Food Security (CFS).

<sup>8</sup> FAO supports countries in formulating and implementing policies, strategies and programmes that generate greater opportunities for the rural poor to access decent employment. It also strives to extend International Labour Standards to rural areas. Furthermore, FAO works towards generating better information and knowledge on the employment dimensions of agriculture and rural development.

<sup>9</sup> See more at: http://www.fao.org/docrep/016/ap105e/ap105e.pdf

<sup>10</sup> In the ESMG, decent work is considered (as defined by the ILO) to be "productive work for women and men in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity."

<sup>11</sup> See more at: http://www.fao.org/3/a-i4413e.pdf.

<sup>12</sup> See more at http://www.unsceb.org/CEBPublicFiles/CEB-2014-6-HLCP%2028-FINAL%200DS.pdf.

Table 1. Decent employment in fisheries and aquaculture.

Conference	Recommendation on decent employment			
	"Improve social protection and labour rights:			
The 41 <sup>st</sup> Session (2014) of the Committee on World Food Security (CFS)	-Strive to improve the working conditions of the fisheries and aquaculture sector, including safety at sea, promoting decent work, eliminating forced and child labour and developing social protection systems.			
	-Explore ways to integrate the enforcement of fishing and labour regulations."			
The 27 st Session (2007) of the FAO Committee on Fisheries (COFI)	"The promotion of human rights is critical for the social development of fishing communities. These rights include legally mandated rights to decent working conditions"			
The 28 <sup>st</sup> Session (2009) of COFI	"FAO and the ILO should give priority to ensure decent working and living conditions in small-scale fisheries and seek that the relevant ILO conventions are applied, especially the Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No. 188). It was also suggested that the working conditions in each country be analysed and minimum goals be established that can be subject to regular monitoring and reporting."			

The importance of promoting decent work and safety at sea in fishing has likewise been acknowledged by the Joint FAO/IMO Ad Hoc Working Group on Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing and Related Matters since 2000, when the ILO stressed the link between IUU fishing, forced labour and safety-at-sea issues in the fisheries sector (FAO, 2000). Moreover, the UN General Assembly in its Resolution A/RES/62/177, 2008, stated that IUU fishing may give rise to safety and security concerns for individuals on vessels engaged in such activities, and welcomed the adoption of the Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No. 188).

Adopting and implementing labour standards for better working and living conditions in fishing, and improving safety at sea in small-scale fisheries, are consistent with the human rights based approach under the recently COFI-endorsed Voluntary Guidelines for Securing Sustainable Small-Scale Fisheries (FAO, 2014c).

The International Expert Meeting on Labour Exploitation in the Fishing sector generated important recommendation and good practices to end and prevent labour exploitation at sea (ILO/FFA, 2016; ILO, 2016)

#### 1.2 Objectives of the scoping study

This scoping study is expected to help inform and guide FAO strategic planning on decent work in fisheries and aquaculture, especially at key stages of programming such as biannual work planning, new country programme framework development, or mid-term review. The study will also help inform key dialogue and decision-making bodies, such as the Committee on World Food Security and the FAO Committee on Fisheries and its Sub-Committee on Aquaculture. Although its findings, conclusions and suggestions should not be perceived as a policy statement, they could however lead to future formulation of relevant recommendations.

While the scoping study provides an initial overview of pertinent decent work deficits in fisheries and aquaculture value chains, and possible actions to address these, more indepth and targeted research is needed to fully understand the complexity of fisheries and aquaculture employment and engagement. The paper spells out wide-ranging decent work concerns for which critical improvement is necessary to create conditions and opportunities - especially in social, economic, political and institutional domains - to avert overexploitation of fish stocks, optimize aquaculture production, and simultaneously prevent adverse environmental damage while maximizing poverty reduction effects. Country-specific programming will have to be based on nationally owned development priorities that have been identified in a participatory and inclusive manner.

This study recognizes the different characteristics of marine and inland capture fisheries, aquaculture, and post-harvest operations, as well as their implications for employment. However, there are areas where separation between the activities will not be possible or relevant, as there are a number of similar livelihood features with comparable poverty consequences.

Collectively, the objectives of this scoping study are to:

- identify key issues and pertinent decent work deficits in fisheries and aquaculture;
- recommend possible actions to promote decent work in fisheries and aquaculture, including some existing good practices.

#### 1.3 Methodology

This study is an exploratory mapping based on a desk review of recent literature on decent work in fisheries and aquaculture. While the review aims at systematically summarizing existing knowledge, findings are not exhaustive with respect to all labour and work-related issues that may be considered in fisheries and aquaculture, but rather focus on recurring concerns.

The study has also been informed by a number of consultative events, including:

- "Working for Blue Growth Why decent employment in fisheries and aquaculture matters" (held in conjunction with the Committee on Fisheries on 12 June 2014);
- the Vigo Dialogue on Decent Work in Fisheries and Aquaculture (held in conjunction with the Global Shrimp Congress on 6 October 2014);

<sup>13</sup> In particular, activities in Strategic Objective 3, "Reduce rural poverty", Organizational Outcome 2.2, "Increased access by the rural poor to decent farm and non-farm employment".

- the "Seminar on Labour Issues in the Fisheries Sector a presentation by the International Transport Workers' Federation" (on 30 October 2014);
- the EU Sectoral Social Dialogue on Sea Fisheries (on 26 November 2014);
- the "Vigo Dialogue on Benefits of Decent Employment in Fisheries and Aquaculture (held in conjuction with the First International Fisheries Stakeholders Forum/ 20 th Anniversary of the Code of Conduct);
- the IUF "International Meeting of Fishing Industry and Aquaculture Workers' Union" (on 23-24 November 2015);
- the ILO "International experts meetings on labour exploitation in the fishing sector" (on 25-26 November 2015);

#### 1.4 Terminology

For reference and ease of understanding, a number of terms on fisheries and aquaculture as well as on employment issues are described and explained, with examples and definitions that are presented but not prescribed. Definitions vary depending on context and purpose, and some are also being changed by their originators: for example, the ongoing review of international classification of status of employment (Hunter, 2015). Definitions are not sorted in any order of precedence.

#### 1.4.1 Fisheries and aquaculture

Fishing is any activity, other than scientific research conducted by a scientific research vessel, which involves the catching, taking, or harvesting of fish; or any attempt to do so; or any activity that can reasonably be expected to result in the catching, taking, or harvesting of fish, and any operations at sea in support of it.

Capture fishery refers to the sum (or range) of all activities involved in harvesting a given fish resource. It may refer to the location (e.g. Morocco, Georges Bank), the target resource (e.g. hake), the technology used (e.g. trawl or beach seine), the social characteristics (e.g. artisanal, industrial), and the purpose (e.g. commercial, subsistence, or recreational), as well as the season (e.g. winter). Fisheries resources can be captured in wetlands, in lakes and rivers (inland fisheries), and in oceanic environments (marine fisheries).

Aquaculture refers to farming of aquatic organisms in inland and coastal areas, involving intervention in the rearing process to enhance production and the individual or corporate ownership of the stock being cultivated.<sup>14</sup>

Fish processing is the receiving and preparation of fish, including but not limited to cleaning, cooking, canning, smoking, salting, drying or freezing.

Commercial fisheries and aquaculture are operations undertaken for profit and with the objective to sell the harvest on the market through auction halls, direct contracts, or other forms of trade. <sup>15</sup> Commercial fishing includes both industrial and small-scale fisheries. There is no universal definition of small-scale fisheries, but the Voluntary Guidelines

<sup>14</sup> Includes employment in hatcheries, nurseries, and grow-out production facilities.

<sup>15</sup> See FAO Fisheries and Aquaculture website.

for Securing Sustainable Small-Scale Fisheries present a number of criteria that policy-makers can apply when defining small-scale fisheries in a particular context.<sup>16</sup>

A subsistence fishery is a fishery where the fish harvested are shared and consumed directly by the families and kin of the fishers, rather than being bought by intermediaries and sold at the next market.

Fisheries management is the integrated process of information gathering, analysis, planning, decision-making, allocation of resources, and formulation and enforcement of fishery regulations by which the fisheries management authority controls the present and future behaviours of the interested fishery parties, in order to ensure the continued productivity of the living resources.

Fisher is a gender-neutral name for a person (male or female) participating in a fishing activity - one who takes part in fishing conducted from a fishing vessel, a floating or fixed platform, or from shore. The term does not include fish processors or traders.

Fish farmer or aquaculturalist refers to a person engaged in aquaculture.

Fish processors are persons involved in fish processing.

Fishworker refers to a person engaged in any fish-related activity along the fisheries and/ or aquaculture chain who does not own any fishing craft, gear, engine (in fishing), or any part of a fish farm.

A port State authority is any official organization authorized by the government of a port State to administer guidelines and enforce standards and regulations relevant to the implementation of national and international shipping control measures.<sup>17</sup>

#### 1.4.2 Employment

Child labour is work that harms children's well-being and hinders their education, development and future livelihoods. A child is defined as any person under 18. Child labour concerns work for which the child is either too young – work done below the required national minimum age – or work which, because of its detrimental nature or conditions, is considered altogether unsuitable for children, and is therefore prohibited. Not all activities carried out by children constitute child labour that needs to be abolished. Some activities may stimulate children's development, as they allow children to acquire precious skills and contribute to their survival and food security. These activities can be beneficial as long as they are not hazardous, not undertaken for long hours, and do not interfere with school and learning and children's right to leisure. <sup>18</sup>

Contributing family workers are defined as "those workers who hold a self-employment job in a market-oriented establishment operated by a related person living in the same household".

Decent work has been defined by the ILO and endorsed by the international community<sup>19</sup> as "productive work for women and men in conditions of freedom, equity, security

<sup>16</sup> See Articles 2.3-2.5 of the Voluntary Guidelines for Securing Sustainable Small-Scale Fisheries.

<sup>17</sup> See FAO Fisheries Glossary and FAO Aquaculture Glossary.

<sup>18</sup> FAO/ILO. 2013. Guidance on addressing child labour in fisheries and aquaculture provides a discussion of definitions of child labour and minimum age provisions in international and national instruments; FAO. (2016). Incorporating decent rural employment in the strategic planning for agricultural development

<sup>19</sup> ECOSOC Ministerial Declaration 2006 and the corresponding ECOSOC resolutions 2007/2 and 2008/18, and ECOSOC Ministerial Declaration 2012.

and human dignity".<sup>20</sup> It is productive work that delivers a fair income, security in the workplace, and social protection for families; better prospects for personal development and social integration; freedom for people to express their concerns, and to organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives; and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men.<sup>21</sup> Decent work is a universal and indivisible objective, based on fundamental values and principles.

Social protection is a broad term indicating a variety of interventions (programmes, measures, instruments, schemes) adopted by states and private sector actors to reduce beneficiaries' (and their families') vulnerability to different sets of risks and shocks (natural, human, social, economic), reduce and prevent poverty, and tackle social exclusion. Social protection can take the form of social assistance (support to the most vulnerable in the form of in-kind or cash transfers) and social insurance (contributory systems such as unemployment insurance, contributory pensions, and maternity leave). As one of the pillars of the Decent Work Agenda, social protection comprises social security and labour protection. Social security encompass "all those measures that provide income security to people in case of loss of the breadwinner, as well as access to essential social services", 22 including health care, education, and occupational training and retraining. Labour protection refers to occupational safety and health, decent working conditions, and the integration of vulnerable groups of beneficiaries (such as women or people living with HIV/AIDS).

The Decent Work Agenda is a balanced and integrated programmatic approach, developed by the ILO and endorsed by the international community, to pursuing the objectives of full and productive employment and decent work for all at the global, regional, national, sectoral and local levels. It comprises four pillars: (Pillar 1) Employment creation and enterprise development; (Pillar 2) Social protection; (Pillar 3) Standards and rights at work; (Pillar 4) Governance and social dialogue. By integrating a dedicated organizational outcome on decent work in its Strategic Framework, FAO endorses and contributes to the Decent Work Agenda, with a focus on rural areas.

A decent work deficit refers to the absence of sufficient employment opportunities, the denial of rights at work, inadequate social protection, and/or shortcomings in social dialogue.<sup>23</sup>

Decent rural employment (DRE) in its applied definition by FAO emphasizes six priority dimensions that are crucial to achieving decent work in rural areas, irrespective of rural workers being covered in labour legislation at the national level or relevant ILO conventions being ratified by the country. In particular, FAO makes explicit that any activity, occupation, work, business or service performed by women and men, adults and youth in rural areas can be considered decent, provided it at least:

(i) respects the core labour standards as defined in ILO Conventions, and therefore: (a) is not child labour; (b) is not forced labour; (c) guarantees freedom of association and the right to collective bargaining, and promotes the organization of rural workers; (d) does not entail discrimination at work on the basis of race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction, social origin or other;

<sup>20</sup> See the ILC87 - Report of the Director-General: Decent work.

<sup>21</sup> See Decent Work FAQ: Making decent work a global goal.

<sup>22</sup> ILO. 2008. Toolkit for Mainstreaming Employment and Decent Work.

<sup>23</sup> Adapted from "Reducing the Decent Work Deficit: A Global Challenge", Report of the Director-General, 89th Session International Labour Conference, Geneva, 2001.

- (ii) provides an adequate living income;
- (iii) entails an adequate degree of employment security and stability;
- (iv) adopts minimum occupational safety and health (OSH) measures, which are adapted to address sector-specific risks and hazards;
- (v) avoids excessive working hours and allows sufficient time for rest;
- (vi) promotes access to adapted technical and vocational training.<sup>24</sup>

Employees are defined as "all those workers who hold the type of job defined as paid employment jobs."<sup>25</sup>

Employment refers to people above a certain age who worked or held a job during a specified reference period (as defined in the resolution concerning statistics of the economically active population, employment, unemployment and underemployment, adopted by the 13th International Conference of Labour Statisticians, October 1982). Included are persons who worked for pay or profit (or pay in kind); persons who were temporarily absent from a job for reasons such as illness, maternity or parental leave, holiday, training, or industrial dispute; and unpaid family workers who worked for at least one hour. The measure is intended to capture persons working in both the formal and informal sectors (ILO, 2009).

Work refers to the physical or mental activity performed to obtain a certain result. Unlike employment, it doesn't entail pay or profit in exchange.

Forced labour refers to all work or service that is exacted from any person under the menace of any penalty, and for which said person has not offered him- or herself voluntarily.<sup>26</sup>

Informal employment refers to jobs that are outside the framework of regulations either because (i) the enterprises in which the jobs are located are too small and/or not registered, or (ii) labour legislation does not specifically cover or is not applied to atypical jobs (such as casual, part-time, temporary or home-based jobs) or to subcontracting arrangements in production chains (such as industrial outwork), so that the jobs (and therefore their incumbents) are left out of the scope of labour legislation implementation.<sup>27</sup>

International labour migration is defined as the movement of people from one country to another for the purpose of employment.<sup>28</sup>

A migrant worker is a person who is to be engaged, is engaged, or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a state of which he or she is not a national.

Occupational safety and health (OSH) is generally defined as the science of the anticipation, recognition, evaluation and control of hazards arising in or from the workplace that could impair the health and well-being of workers, taking into account the possible impact on the surrounding communities and the general environment.<sup>29</sup>

- 24 See FAO applied definition of decent rural employment.
- 25 See https://stats.oecd.org/glossary/detail.asp?ID=766.
- 26 Adapted from the Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29).
- 27 Hussmanns. 2004. Defining and measuring informal employment.
- 28 See the International Organization for Migration website.
- 29 Alli. 2008. Fundamental principles of occupational health and safety.

Own-account workers (self-employed) are defined as those workers who, working on their own account or with one or more partners, hold the type of job defined as a "self-employment job", and have not engaged on a continuous basis any employees to work for them during the reference period.

Paid employment jobs are defined as "those jobs where the incumbents hold explicit (written or oral) or implicit employment contracts which give them a basic remuneration which is not directly dependent upon the revenue of the unit for which they work". Persons in paid employment jobs are typically remunerated by wages and salaries, but may also be paid by sales commissions, piece rates, bonuses, or in-kind payments such as food, housing or training.

The poverty line is the minimum level of income deemed necessary to achieve an adequate standard of living in a given country.<sup>30</sup>

Precarious employment can refer to either: (i) workers whose contract of employment leads to them being classified as "casual workers", "short-term workers", or "seasonal workers"; or (ii) workers whose contract of employment allows the employing enterprise or person to terminate the contract on short notice and/or at will, with the specific circumstances to be determined by national legislation and custom.<sup>31</sup>

A rural worker is defined, by Article 2 of the Rural Workers' Organisations Convention, 1975 (No. 141), as "any person engaged in agriculture, handicrafts or a related occupation in a rural area, whether as a wage earner or as a self-employed person such as a tenant, sharecropper or small owner–occupier." The FAO Guidance Document<sup>32</sup> adopts this definition and therefore uses the term "rural workers" to cover two main categories of workers: (i) rural wage earners, including full-time but also seasonal and casual wage workers, as well as workers receiving some form of in-kind payment; and (ii) self-employed rural workers, including both employers (with employees) and own-account workers (without employees), and therefore also owner-occupier farmers, tenant farmers, sharecroppers and nomads. Fishers and fish farmers are included. Contributing family workers, which are more often women and youth, are included in the self-employment category, as per ICSE-93 group definitions.<sup>33</sup>

Self-employment jobs are defined as "those jobs where the remuneration is directly dependent upon the profits (or the potential for profits) derived from the goods and services produced (where own consumption is considered to be part of profits). The incumbents make the operational decisions affecting the enterprise, or delegate such decisions while retaining responsibility for the welfare of the enterprise."<sup>34</sup>

Vulnerable employment refers to persons who are employed under relatively precarious circumstances as indicated by the status in employment. Because contributing family workers and own-account workers are less likely to have formal work arrangements, access to benefits, or social protection programmes - and are more vulnerable to the effects of economic cycles - these statuses are categorized as "vulnerable".<sup>35</sup>

- 30 ILO. 2009. Guide to the new Millennium Development Goals Employment Indicators: including the full set of Decent Work Indicators.
- 31 ILO. 2013. Revision of the International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE-93).
- 32 FAO. 2016a. Incorporating decent rural employment in the strategic planning for agricultural development.
- 33 See the International Classification by Status in Employment (ICSE).
- 34 See http://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/isco/docs/intro2.htm#ancre2.
- 35 ILO. 2009. Guide to the new Millennium Development Goals Employment Indicators: including the full set of Decent Work Indicators.

The working poor are those individuals who are (a) employed and (b) living in households whose income or consumption levels fall below a poverty threshold. The ILO distinguishes between: (i) the extreme working poor (percapita consumption expenditure below US\$1.25 a day); (ii) the moderate working poor (per capita consumption expenditure between US\$1.25 and US\$2); (iii) the near poor (per capita consumption expenditure between US\$2 and US\$4); (iv) developing middle-class workers (those workers living in households with daily per capita consumption between US\$4 and US\$13); and (v) developed world middle-class and above (those workers living in households with per capita consumption greater than US\$13 per person per day).<sup>36</sup>

Youth can be broadly described as the stage during which a person moves out of dependence (childhood) and into independence (adulthood). The UN, for statistical consistency across regions, defines "youth" as those persons between the ages of 15 and 24 years, without prejudice to other definitions by UN Member States. All UN statistics on youth are based on this definition; however, national and regional definitions may differ. In the African Youth Charter, "youth" is defined as "every person between the ages of 15 and 35 years".<sup>37</sup>

<sup>36</sup> See Key Indicators of Labour Market (KILM) 17. Poverty, income distribution, employment by economic class and working poverty.

<sup>37</sup> FAO. 2016a. Incorporating decent rural employment in the strategic planning for agricultural development.



## 2: International legal framework

Fisheries and aquaculture are regulated by a set of legally binding and non-legally binding international, regional and national instruments, including rules, codes and guidelines as well as technical documents concerning the interpretation and application of legal instruments. This study very briefly sets the international normative context by introducing the key normative instruments, particularly focusing on elements relevant for decent work promotion. While primary focus is laid on international labour conventions and recommendations<sup>38</sup> and other instruments with particular relevance to the fisheries sector, the study also makes general reference to applicable international human rights treaties.

The first part of the chapter includes binding legal instruments (including those not entered yet into force), whereas the second part presents non-legally binding or voluntary instruments that mainly apply to the fisheries sector.<sup>39</sup>

Some of the instruments presented below do not explicitly address decent work, but include mechanisms that have been identified as potential entry points to improve labour conditions in fisheries and/or aquaculture.

#### 2.1 Binding legal frameworks

The International Convention for the Safety of Life at Sea, 1974 (SOLAS) is the most important treaty concerning the safety of merchant and passenger vessels; however, fishing vessels are almost entirely exempt from its provisions.

The United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea, 1982 (UNCLOS) governs state jurisdiction over vessels and activities at sea. The basic regime set up by UNCLOS divides the world's oceans into maritime zones in which coastal States' jurisdiction over vessels and activities in nearby coastal regions are gradually abandoned to the state in which a vessel is registered, known as the "flag State". According to the Convention, in fact is upon each state to "fix the conditions for the grant of its nationality to ships, for the registration of ships in its territory, and for the right to fly its flag. Ships have the nationality of the State whose flag they are entitled to fly."

This means that the flag State bears primary responsibility for regulating vessel activities and enforcing its laws, including social matters on board fishing vessels at sea. In addition, a coastal State may regulate and control fishing vessels and their activities when the vessel is in its territorial sea or, in relation to fishing activities, in its exclusive economic zone (ILO, 2013).

<sup>38</sup> A full list of International Labour Standards and Recommendations can be found here.

<sup>39</sup> The categorization of the instruments into binding and non-binding doesn't necessarily imply the extent to which the instruments are applied in practice.

<sup>40</sup> Article 91(1) of the UNCLOS Convention (available at http://www.un.org/depts/los/convention\_agreements/texts/unclos/unclos\_e.pdf).

The International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping for Fishing Vessel Personnel, 1995 (STCW-F) is the first international mandatory instrument to establish basic requirements on training, certification and watchkeeping for personnel on fishing vessels of 24 metres in length and above. This Convention contributes to addressing the poor safety record of capture fisheries by improving the standard of education and training for fishers.

The Safety and Health in Agriculture Convention, 2001 (No. 184) entered into force in 2003 and has the objective of asking governments to set and monitor the application of a policy on safety and health in agriculture, including for workers in fish farming. The Convention also spells out the rights and obligations of workers towards a safe and healthy working environment. It is supplemented by Recommendation No. 192 and by the Code of practice, safety and health in agriculture.

The Maritime Labour Convention, 2006 (MLC) establishes decent working and living conditions for all seafarers worldwide on ships engaged in commercial activities - except for ships engaged in fishing, which are regulated by the Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No. 188). The MLC does however apply to vessels transporting and processing fish.

The Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No. 188), supplemented by the Work in Fishing Recommendation, 2007 (No. 199), aims to ensure that fishers engaged in commercial inland and marine capture fisheries have decent conditions of work on board fishing vessels that meet minimum requirements with regards to work on board; conditions of service; accommodation and food; occupational safety and health protection; medical care; and social security. It also includes specific provisions concerning compliance and enforcement by flag States and port States. The Convention provides for a certain flexibility, allowing member countries to exclude inland fishing and certain categories of fishers and fishing vessels as well as to progressively implement certain parts of the provisions. The Work in Fishing Convention will come into effect when it is ratified by a minimum of ten ILO member states (including eight coastal nations). As of 15 June 2016, eight countries had ratified the Convention.<sup>41</sup> The instrument is therefore not yet in force.

The Agreement on Port State Measures to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing, 2009 (PSMA) focuses on the complementary responsibilities of flag States, coastal States and port States in combating illegal and non-sustainable fishing practices, especially in situations where flag tates are unable to monitor vessels flying their flag. It entered into force on 5 June 2016.

The Torremolinos International Convention for the Safety of Fishing Vessels, 1977, replaced by the Torremolinos Protocol, 1993, contains safety requirements for the construction and equipment of new, decked, seagoing fishing vessels of 24 metres in length and over, including those vessels also processing their catch. Neither the Torremolinos Convention nor its Protocol has yet entered into force. To accelerate the entry into force of the Protocol, a new legally binding instrument was adopted in 2012 that amends and updates a number its provisions. Called the Cape Town Agreement of 2012 on the Implementation of the Provisions of the Torremolinos Protocol of 1993 relating to the Torremolinos International Convention for the Safety of Fishing Vessels, 1977, the instrument has not yet entered into force.

<sup>41</sup> Argentina, Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Congo, Estonia, France, Morocco, Norway and South Africa.

#### 2.2 Non legally binding instruments and technical standards

The FAO Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries, 1995 (CCRF) emphasizes the importance of fishworkers' rights. Specific reference is made to effective participation in decision-making and safe, healthy and fair working and living conditions in relation to relevant international agreements on conditions of work and service. While the code is voluntary, many parts are based on relevant or binding international law, such as the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS) and the United Nations Fish Stocks Agreement (UNFSA).

The ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, 1998 is an instrument according which all Members, even if they have not ratified the conventions in question (see table 2), have an obligation to promote and to realize in good faith the principles concerning the following fundamental rights which are the subject of those conventions: (i) freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining; (ii) the elimination of all forms of forced or compulsory labour; (iii) the effective abolition of child labour; and (iv) the elimination of discrimination in respect to employment and occupation.

Table 2. Fundamental principles and relevant Conventions 43

Principle	ILO relevant convention
Freedom of association and effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining	<ul> <li>Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87)</li> <li>Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98)</li> </ul>
Elimination of all forms of forced and compulsory labour	<ul> <li>Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29)</li> <li>Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105)</li> </ul>
Effective abolition of child labour	<ul> <li>Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138)</li> <li>Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182)</li> </ul>
Elimination of discrimination in respect to employment and occupation	<ul> <li>Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100)</li> <li>Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111)</li> </ul>

<sup>42</sup> See provisions 6.13, 6.17, 6.18, 8.1.5, 8.2.9 and 8.3.2.

<sup>43</sup> The table refers to legally binding conventions. It was included in this section for easy reference and in connection with the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and rights at work.

#### Box 1. Labour standards and human rights

Labour standards are further enshrined in international human rights instruments, including the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966, arts 6-7), the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966, art 22), the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (1979, art 11), the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989, art 32), the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (1990) and the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006). These treaties provide for the rights of everyone to an opportunity to work, to just and favorable conditions of work, to form and join trade unions, to the elimination of discrimination in employment and occupations, to protection against child labour and forced labour, and to access social security. The human rights treaties have the comparative advantages of being widely ratified and in terms of their applicability to all persons. They are not subject to the exclusionary and flexibility clauses that divest those under non-conventional employments of legal protection, including those engaged in artisanal and small-scale operations in sectors such as fisheries and aquaculture.

The International Plan of Action to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing, 2001 (IPOA-IUU) calls for an integrated approach to fisheries policy through state action plans that address all the economic, social and environmental impacts of IUU fishing. Although the IPOA-IUU does not specifically address fishers' working conditions, it does request that flag States ensure that vessels on their register hold a valid authorization to fish in waters beyond their jurisdiction, and that such authorization is contingent on compliance with applicable international conventions and national laws and regulations pertaining, among other areas, to maritime safety.

The Document for Guidance on Training and Certification of Fishing Vessel Personnel, 2001 concerns the training and certification of both small-scale and industrial maritime fishers. It addresses the use of skills-based training and assessment arrangements, either as an alternative to or in conjunction with established systems of determining the competence of fishing vessel personnel.

The Code of Safety for Fishermen and Fishing Vessels, 2005 is a two-part guidebook recommending "safety and health practices for skippers and crew (part A)" and "safety and health requirements for the construction and equipment of fishing vessels (part B)". Part B only applies to fishing vessels 24 metres and over. The purpose of part A is to provide information with a view to promoting the safety and health of crew members on board fishing vessels. The purpose of part B is to provide information on the design, construction and equipment of fishing vessels, with a view to promoting the safety of fishing vessels as well as the safety and health of the crew. The Code is not a substitute for national laws and regulations nor is it a substitute for the provision of international instruments in relation to safety of fishing vessels and crew, although it may serve as a guide to those concerned with framing such national laws and regulations.

The Voluntary Guidelines for the Design, Construction and Equipment of Small Fishing Vessels, 2005 provide information on the design, construction, and equipment of small

fishing vessels with a view to promoting the safety of the vessel and the safety and health of the crew.

The Guidelines for port State control officers carrying out inspections under the Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No. 188) have been developed to assist port State administrations to effectively implement their responsibilities under the Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No. 188), and to promote harmonization in the implementation of the provisions of the Convention concerning port State responsibilities.

The Guidelines on flag State inspection of working and living conditions on board fishing vessels were discussed and adopted by an expert meeting in September 2015 and were authorized for publication by the ILO Governing body in March 2016. Using practical recommendations, the Guidelines aim to support states in exercising their jurisdiction over vessels flying their flag. The guidelines aim at establishing a system for ebsuring compliance with national laws, regulations and other measures through which the Convention No.188 is implemented.

The Technical Guidelines on Aquaculture Certification, 2011 provide guidance for the development, organization and implementation of credible aquaculture certification schemes. The guidelines establish that aquaculture should be conducted in a socially responsible manner within national rules and regulations, bearing in mind the ILO convention on labour rights and not jeopardizing the livelihood of aquaculture workers and local communities.

The Safety Recommendations for Decked Fishing Vessels of Less than 12 metres in Length and Undecked Fishing Vessels, 2012 provide information on the design, construction, equipment, training and protection of the crews of small fishing vessels, with a view to promoting the safety of the vessel and the safety and health of the crew. The safety recommendations may also serve as a guide for those concerned with the safety of vessels used in support of aquaculture activities.

The Guidance on addressing child labour in fisheries and aquaculture, 2013 provides an overview of the concepts and the current situation of child labour practices in the subsectors, with subsequent recommendations on how to tackle child labour issues.

The guidance addresses governments, development partners but also organizations of fishers and private sector to understand and classify child labour in fisheries and aquaculture and to mainstream in relevant policy and programmatic documents.

The Voluntary Guidelines for Flag State Performance, 2014 spell out a range of actions that countries can take to ensure that vessels registered under their flags do not conduct IUU fishing. These actions include monitoring, control and surveillance (MCS) activities that aim to prevent, deter and eliminate IUU fishing through the effective implementation of flag State responsibilities.

The Implementation Guidelines on Part B of the Code, the Voluntary Guidelines and the Safety Recommendations, 2014 are intended to assist maritime, labour and fisheries ministries (and any other relevant government ministry) in the implementation of the three FAO/ILO/IMO (International Maritime Organization) instruments on the design, construction and equipment of fishing vessels of all types and sizes. These instruments are Part B of the Code of Safety for Fishermen and Fishing Vessels; the Voluntary Guidelines

for the Design, Construction and Equipment of Small Fishing Vessels; and the Safety Recommendations for Decked Fishing Vessels of Less than 12 metres in Length and Undecked Fishing Vessels. Although the main purpose of the implementation guidelines is to assist competent authorities in the implementation of voluntary instruments, they could also be useful when implementing the provisions of the Cape Town Agreement of 2012 on the Implementation of the Provisions of the Torremolinos Protocol of 1993 relating to the Torremolinos International Convention for the Safety of Fishing Vessels, 1977.

The Voluntary Guidelines for the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries and Forests in the Context of National Food Security (VGGT) contain strong components relevant for fisheries and aquaculture, and provide guidance on approaching tenure issues concerning fisheries and aquaculture resources (FAO, 2012c;<sup>44</sup> FAO, 2013b<sup>45</sup>). The guidelines recognize the importance of security of tenure for the realization of human rights, including the right to food. The VGGT explain that, in the context of governance of tenure, states have obligations under applicable international human rights instruments. Governance of tenure in fisheries should be governed by the general principles underpinning good governance: Human dignity; Non discrimination; Equity and justice; Gender equality; Holistic and sustainable approaches; Consultation and participation; Rule of law; Transparency; Accountability; and Continuous improvement. Application of the tenure guidelines as well as the promotion of decent work are therefore driven by the same fundamental approaches. Decent work conditions can be promoted and established in the context of implementation efforts of the VGGT. Facilitating fair and equitable access to resources, and providing for capacity development for the effective and sustainable use of these resources, will assist in generating better conditions for decent work in fisheries and aquaculture.

The Voluntary Guidelines for Securing Sustainable Small-Scale Fisheries in the Context of Food Security and Poverty Eradication, 2014 (SSF Guidelines) complement the Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries (CCRF) with the understanding that even though the CCRF covers small-scale fisheries, there is a need to address the subsector more comprehensively. The SSF Guidelines apply a human rights based approach and refer to social and economic development alongside resource management, with a section dedicated to employment and decent work. All workers - in particular the most vulnerable, such as women and migrants - along the SSF value chain (including pre- and post-harvest) in full-time, part-time, occasional and/or subsistence activities, both in the formal and informal sectors, should be recognized by states. The guidelines call for all states to ensure that ILO Conventions regarding occupational health and unfair working conditions of fishers, as well as FAO, IMO and ILO instruments and guidelines on safety at sea, be transferred into national legislation. The guidelines highlight the vulnerability of migrant workers, and specifically identify the need to prevent child labour and empower post-harvest fishworkers, of which the majority are women.

Labour standards are also stipulated as requirements that should be met within efforts to realize the right to adequate food and as criteria of responsible investment in agriculture, food systems and related natural resources – in the VGGT and the following instruments: Voluntary Guidelines to Support the Progressive Realization of the Right to Adequate Food in the Context of National Food Security (FAO Council, 2004), Guideline 8A; Principles

<sup>44</sup> Available at http://www.fao.org/docrep/016/i2801e/i2801e.pdf.

 $<sup>45 \</sup>quad \text{Available at http://www.fao.org/docrep/018/i3420e/i3420e.pdf.} \\$ 

for Responsible Investment in Agriculture and Food Systems (CFS, 2014), principle 2 and article 37. The international labour standards (ILS) that are enshrined in the instruments listed above can provide essential guidance to national labour standards and practices, and also contribute to bridging labour protection gaps at the domestic level. States that have ratified international human rights and labour treaties, and also those who adopt voluntary instruments undertake to implement the provisions within their respective jurisdictions. ILS are better implemented when they are enshrined in domestic legal frameworks that portray the long-term commitment of states, define the rules governing employment relations and conditions of work in the specific country and sectorial contexts and assign institutional and resource-related responsibilities. The transposition of ILS into domestic law may happen prior to, as a result of, or separately from, the formal ratification or acceptance of international instruments. The standards may be incorporated into national constitutions, national human rights instruments, conventional labour laws and in sector-specific legislation. The international instruments may further serve as important reference texts for those working with voluntary initiatives, codes of conduct and social labelling schemes, for example, on child labour or occupational safety and health, which are applied relatively effectively in some circumstances.

For further general reference, an assessment of international labour standards that apply to rural employment has been conducted with a view to providing an overview for the work of FAO relating to labour protection in agriculture, forestry and fisheries.



# 3: Employment trends in fisheries and aquaculture

Fish has an important function as a "cash crop" providing employment and income to millions of people. However, estimating global employment in fisheries and aquaculture is complex due to the varied number of pre-harvest, harvest and post-harvest activities - and the high degree of informality - in the fish value chain. Sector profiles seldom exist that differentiate between marine and inland fisheries, harvest and post-harvest employment, and their respective economic contributions (World Bank, 2012).

Jobs in fisheries and aquaculture and associated fish value chains range from the production and sale of inputs (including fishing gear; boat construction and maintenance; bait; and aquaculture seeds and feed) and the actual catching, farming and harvesting of fish, to fish processing, marketing and distribution. Production takes place in and around inland and marine waters, while fish marketing and distribution can take fishworkers far from the original fish harvesting point (FAO/ILO, 2013).

In capture fisheries a wide variety of fishing techniques are used, ranging from simple hand-held gear to sophisticated trawls or purse seines operated by industrial fishing vessels (FAO/ILO, 2013).

Aquaculture production varies from very simple facilities (e.g. family ponds for domestic consumption in tropical countries) to high technology systems (e.g. intensive closed systems for export production). Fish farming comprises a very large range of operations. These can be classified according to cultured species (shrimp; fish including salmon, tilapia, catfish, groupers, carps, etc.; molluscs including mussels, oysters, etc.; seaweed), cultured environments (freshwater, brackish water, marine culture), culture technologies (extensive, semi-intensive and intensive aquaculture), scale of operation (small-, medium- and large-scale), 46 value (low or high), and destination markets (domestic or export). Aquaculture can be carried out: for subsistence (as part of diversified livelihoods strategies, and sometimes integrated with crops or livestock); in more specialized commercial enterprises operated by small households; or in larger integrated multinational companies serving mainly international markets and processed seafood. The implications vary for employment generation, the type of jobs created, and for livelihoods, depending on the scale, technology and specific characteristics of culture practices.

Fish and other seafood processing involves a wide spectrum of techniques and final products. Large-scale processing can take place on-board factory vessels or at shore-based plants. Freezing is globally the most common method of processing fish, followed by canning. Fish may be degutted and filleted, which at times is done in the market by fish sellers. In the small-scale or artisanal sector, fish processing often takes place close to the landing site or homestead. Salting and fermenting are common in Asia, and smoking is mainly used in Africa. Throughout the tropics, drying is widely practised (FAO/ILO, 2013).

Marketing fish, both in processed or unprocessed forms, can be carried out directly by fishers or fish farmers and processors, including through associations or cooperatives.

But more often it is carried out by intermediaries who set the price, arrange transport, and have preferential channels to access markets. Retail (including restaurant and catering) varies greatly in scale and infrastructure, ranging from street-side informal shops to large supermarkets that control integrated value chains. Jobs in retail can therefore be formal or informal, and entail different levels of technology, hazards and skills. Direct employment in export includes those jobs created in fish export companies, certification, and transport (NORAD/FAO, 2012).

#### 3.1 Global statistics

In general, fisheries and aquaculture production can contribute to national economies and international trade (FAO, 2016b). In most countries the sector may not be a major national engine of growth, but it can be at the local level. For some small island developing States (SIDS), the sustainable use of coastal and marine resources including inshore and offshore capture fisheries is key to economic development, and the export of these resources provides a great source of foreign currency.

Beyond direct employment, fishing and aquaculture activities support the local economies in coastal, lakeshore and riparian communities, and generate economic multiplier effects in other sectors such as local agricultural markets. Moreover, taxes, export licenses and access agreements contribute to national-level revenue (Allison, 2011).

From 1990 on, employment in aquaculture grew significantly when compared with employment in capture fisheries. The relative proportion of those engaged in capture fisheries decreased overall from 83 percent in 1990 to 67 percent in 2014, while that of those engaged in aquaculture correspondingly increased from 17 to 33 percent (FAO, 2016b). The most recent estimates indicate that around 56.6 million people are directly employed in fisheries and aquaculture, and a further 140 million are employed along the value chain from harvesting to distribution. The livelihoods of some 880 million people depend on the sector.<sup>47</sup> In 2014 37.9 million people were engaged in capture fisheries and 18.7 million were engaged in aquaculture. However, this data does not consider the jobs created in backward and forward linkages of aquaculture nor for fisheries production and through their multiplier effects. Using a value chain approach, the FAO/WorldFish Center "Aquaculture Big Numbers Project" estimated that the actual number of people working in aquaculture value chains could be as high as 56.7 million<sup>48</sup> worldwide (Phillips et al., 2015). The share of fish farmers has grown as shown in Table 3 (FAO, 2016b), with the number of fish farmers increasing globally from 12.6 million in 2000 to almost 18,7 million in 2014. The greater majority are in Asia, where a sharper increase has taken place.

Based on the data available, it is estimated that women accounted for more than 19 percent of all people directly engaged in the fisheries and aquaculture primary sector in 2014 (FAO, 2016b). Engagement by gender varies by region, and this further highlights

<sup>47</sup> For referenced value, see http://www.fao.org/3/a-i3958e.pdf, p. 3.

<sup>48</sup> Figures are based on data covering ten countries, representing 19 percent of global aquaculture production and totalling 11.4 million people employed in aquaculture value chains. Of these, 8.3 million are employed at the farm level and 3.1 million at other stages of aquaculture value chains, including export. Country case studies covered ten countries from Asia (China, Viet Nam, Indonesia, Thailand, Bangladesh), Africa (Egypt, Zambia) and Latin America (Chile, Ecuador, Mexico).

Table 3. World fishers and fish farmers

	2000	2005	2010	2012	2013	2014
Africa	4 175	4 430	5 027	5 885	6 009	5 674
Asia	39 646	43 926	49 345	49 040	47 662	47 730
Europe	779	705	662	647	305	413
Latin America and the Carribean	1 774	1 907	2 185	2 251	2 433	2 444
North America	346	329	324	323	325	325
Oceania	126	122	124	127	47	46
	46 845	51 418	57 667	58 272	56 780	56 632
Of Which, Fish farmers						
Africa	91	140	231	298	279	284
Asia	12 211	14 630	17 915	18 175	18 098	18 032
Europe	103	91	102	103	77	66
Latin America and the Carribean	214	239	248	269	350	356
North America	6	10	9	9	9	9
Oceania	5	5	5	6	5	6
	12 632	15 115	18 512	18 861	18 818	18 753

Notes: Several time series have been recently revised, completed and updated with data from national and alternative sources, such as yearbooks, historical accounts, and project reports. Where figures in the Issue differ from those previously published, the current data represent the most recent version. The above-mentioned changes are more notable for Asia, Africa and the Americas. Some statistics provided to FAO by national offices, in particular those for 2011-2012, are provisional and may be amended in future editions, and in other FAO publications. Estimates for 1995 were partly based on data available for a smaller number of countries and, therefore, may not be fully comparable with those for later years.

Source: FAO, 2016b.

the need for improved and detailed data on the sector. For example, a recent study found that in Africa about 27 percent of people engaged in fisheries and aquaculture are women.<sup>49</sup> Further, the study found that of all the women engaged in fisheries, aquaculture and processing, 58 percent were engaged in processing.

<sup>49</sup> de Graaf and Garibaldi. 2014. The value of African fisheries.

#### Table 4. Employment in fisheries and aquaculture

Marine capture fisheries	Inland water capture fisheries	Aquaculture	Total
18.4 million	21 million	18.9 million	58.3 million
(32%)	(36%)	(32%)	(100%)

Source: FAO, 2014a.

In 2012, of the people engaged in capture fisheries, 18.4 million were engaged in marine capture fisheries and 21 million were capture fishers operating in inland waters (FAO, 2014a).

Note that world production from inland capture fisheries in 2012 was only 12 million tonnes, far less than the 81 million tonnes from marine capture fisheries; whereas, as indicated in Table 4, the number of workers in inland fisheries was nevertheless more than that in marine fisheries. From this, a conclusion could be drawn that labour productivity in inland fisheries is much less than in marine fisheries; but this would be faulty, as the number of employed persons is not an accurate measure of labour input. For instance, one full-time worker may be equivalent to two part-time workers in terms of labour input. Therefore, more accurate measures, such as full-time equivalent employment, are needed to capture not only the number but also the quality of jobs created by fisheries and aquaculture.

While fishing and fish farming are important sources of employment, the bulk of employment is in the post-harvest subsector, in areas such as fish processing and marketing. For each person employed in capture fisheries and aquaculture primary production, about three to four related jobs are produced in secondary activities (e.g. fish processing, trade and marketing). Assuming that on average each job-holder provides for three dependents or family members, it is estimated that overall, fisheries and aquaculture contributes to the livelihoods of 10–12 percent of the world's population (FAO, 2012a).

Fisheries and aquaculture also generates pre-harvest jobs such as boatbuilding and maintenance; engine and gear manufacturing; and provision of support services in harbours, at landing sites, and in dry docks and repair and maintenance workshops. This employment does not account for as many jobs as in post-harvest, but it still constitutes a considerable workforce.<sup>50</sup>

### 3.2 Geographical distribution

Depending on the region, employment in fisheries and aquaculture is characterized by great variation. The vast majority of people working in fisheries and aquaculture, including in pre-harvest and post-harvest activities, live in rural, often remote areas in developing countries. In 2014, 84 percent of all people employed in the sector were in Asia, followed by almost 10 percent in Africa and 4 percent in Latin America and the Caribbean (FAO, 2016b).

<sup>50</sup> For example, case study information from Ghana and Senegal indicate that employment in these cases adds another 5 to 10 percent to the total number of full-time and part-time people employed in fisheries (World Bank, 2012).

Of the 21 million people engaged in inland capture fisheries, more than 84 percent were in Asia, followed by Africa with about 13 percent (FAO, 2014a).

Of the 18.7 million people engaged in aquaculture, more than 94 percent were primarily in Asia, followed by Latin America and the Caribbean (1.9 percent) and Africa (1.4) (FAO, 2016b).

Europe and North America, with very low population growth and decreasing economically active populations in the agriculture sector, have experienced the largest decrease in the number of people engaged in capture fishing, and little increase (or even a decrease) in those engaged in fish farming. These trends relate to the trends in production from capture fishing and aquaculture (FAO, 2016b).

Africa and Asia, with higher population growth and growing economically active populations in the agriculture sector, have shown sustained increases in the number of people engaged in capture fishing, and even higher rates of increase in those engaged in fish farming. These trends in employment are also related to increases in production from capture fisheries and even more so from aquaculture (FAO, 2016b).

Latin America and the Caribbean stands somewhere in between the tendencies already described, with a slowing population growth, a decreasing economically active population in the agriculture sector in the last decade, moderately growing employment in the fisheries sector, decreasing capture production, and rather high sustained aquaculture production. However, its vigorously growing aquaculture production may not result in an equally vigorously growing number of employed fish farmers, as the production systems are less reliant on labour inputs and more focused on foreign competitive markets. Here, as in production systems in Europe and North America, efficiency, quality and lower costs are more a factor of technological developments than human labour (FAO, 2014a).

## 3.3 Age-and gender-disaggregated data

Women provide labour before, during and after fishing, for example by making and mending nets, baskets and pots, and also by baiting hooks. Women are rarely engaged in commercial offshore and deep-sea waters, but are more commonly involved in fishing from small boats and canoes in coastal or inland waters , where they collect seaweed and set nets or traps. Women also play an important role in aquaculture, where they attend to fish ponds, feed and harvest fish, and collect prawn larvae and fish fingerlings. However, their most important role in both small-scale and industrial fisheries is at the processing and marketing stages<sup>51</sup>.

Reported statistics still lack sufficient details to allow full analysis by gender. However, based on the data available, it is estimated that overall, women accounted for more than 19 percent of all people directly engaged in the fisheries and aquaculture primary sector in 2014. The proportion of women exceeded 20 percent in inland water fishing and up to 90 percent in secondary activities, such as processing (FAO, 2014a).

Almost half of the capture fisheries value chain workforce is female, the majority working in small-scale post-harvest operations in developing countries. The level of engagement shows high geographical variation, for example over 70 percent in Nigeria and India, but 5 percent or less in Bangladesh and Mozambique (World Bank, 2012).

 $<sup>51\ \</sup> See \ http://www.greenfacts.org/en/fisheries/I-2/02-fishers-farmers-fleet.htm.$ 

Overall, less sex-disaggregated data is available on aquaculture compared with capture fisheries. But the FAO National Aquaculture Sector Overview Fact Sheets show that women's participation varies by country and by type and scale of enterprise. For example, women are typically more active in small-scale operations, hatcheries and post-harvest processing (HLPE, 2014).

## 3.4 Nature of employment

Fisheries and aquaculture can be carried out: for subsistence, as part of diversified livelihoods strategies; in more specialized commercial enterprises operated by small households; or in larger integrated multinational companies serving mainly export markets and processed fish. While operational scale is considered contextual (a small-scale operation in one country may be considered a medium-scale operation in another), some common features are possible to establish. Small-scale fisheries and aquaculture are generally characterized by "low capital input" activities, low capital investments and equipment, and labour-intensive operations (HLPE, 2014).

Official employment statistics for different operational scales are not always consistent, and of particular concern is the under-reporting of small-scale activities. As a result, there is a lack of comparable and disaggregated global employment data clearly showing the proportion of fishworkers in fisheries and aquaculture value chains, especially in small-scale operations (World Bank, 2012; HLPE, 2014).

### Box 2. Example of gender-based division of labour

Fishing is most commonly portrayed as men going out on boats to catch fish while women work as fish sellers and processors on land. This generalization of the professional roles of men and women is largely correct, but a closer examination of gender in fisheries reveals a more complex situation depending on the cultural context. In some countries, such as Benin, Cambodia, the Congo, Mali, Nepal and Thailand, women actively fish or collect fish. In other countries, such as Uganda, it is taboo for women to be on board a fishing vessel, but they can own boats and hire men as crew. As fish buyers, it is not unusual for women to provide the working capital for fishing trips against a guaranteed supply of fish when the catch is landed. In Bangladesh, fishing is traditionally a low-caste Hindu occupation, and only the men in fishing communities are engaged in catching fish. While still relatively few women work in fisheries today – an estimated 3 percent of the total female workforce is involved in the fisheries sector – shrimp fry is caught in coastal areas by significant numbers of poor women, irrespective of their religion, age or marital status. In Lake Liangzihu (China), some of the small-scale fishing vessels are operated by women.

Source: FAO. 2010b.

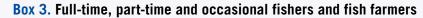
Current estimates show that about 90 percent of the world's capture fishers are engaged in small-scale fisheries, with over half working in inland waters (World Bank, 2012). Small-scale fisheries<sup>52</sup> perform an important role as a "safety valve" or "labour buffer"

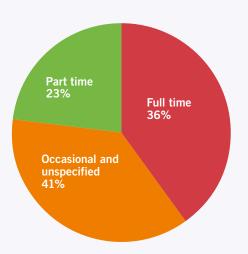
<sup>52</sup> When considering catches destined for direct human consumption, the share contributed by the small-scale fisheries increases to two-thirds. Inland fisheries are particularly important in this respect, where the majority of the catches from small-scale fisheries are directed towards human consumption (see the SSF Guidelines).

to absorb rural surplus labour from local communities and migrants, thanks to the fact that many small-scale operations have low capital intensity (requiring limited investment in assets), and when necessary the labour can be freed relatively easily (Béné, Hersoug and Allison, 2010). But there are a growing number of small-scale fishers who make comparatively large investments in fishing charts, engines and gears. Between 70 and 80 percent of aquaculture ventures are considered small-scale, often family-based activities, which are integrated at the farm level with crop and livestock farming, and where part of the production may be retained for household consumption (De Silva and Davy, 2010; HLPE, 2014). Small-scale aquaculture value chains concentrate employment more at the farm level, while in medium and large-scale value chains, post-harvest stages (including marketing and export) create more jobs than similar stages in small-scale value chains.

The number of full-time fishers and fish farmers is difficult to assess, and again, due to inconsistent and incomplete or unreliable data, the estimates are rough. However, it is clear that a significant number of the workforce is occasional part-time, peaking in the months of the year when riverine, coastal and offshore resources are more abundant or available (Newman, 2014). This is especially true in fisheries for migratory species and those subject to seasonal weather variations. In the past three decades, the number of full-time fishers has declined while the number of part-time fishers has grown quite rapidly. This trend has been particularly marked in Asia.<sup>53</sup>

As shown in Box 3, of the 56.6 million people engaged in the primary sector of capture fisheries and aquaculture, 36 percent were estimated to be engaged full time, 23 percent part time, and the remaining 41 percent were either occasional fishers or of unspecified status (FAO, 2016b).





**Full-time:** individuals receiving at least 90 percent of their livelihood from fishing/farming or spending at least 90 percent of their working time fishing/farming

Part-time: individuals receiving at least 30 percent, but less than 90 percent, of their livelihood from fishing/farming or spending at least 30 percent, but less than 90 percent, of their working time in that occupation

Occasional: individuals receiving less than 30 percent of their income from fishing/farming or spending less than 30 percent of their working time fishing/farming

(FAO employment database definition)

Source: FAO, 2016b; FAO employment database definition.

The majority of fishworkers, especially in small-scale operations, are in informal employment: they are self-employed either in informal sector enterprises or as subsistence producers and contributing family workers, or they are unregistered workers

 $<sup>53\ \</sup> See\ http://www.greenfacts.org/en/fisheries/I-2/02-fishers-farmers-fleet.htm.$ 

with no written contracts and often casual, seasonal, short-term workers. This in turn is closely linked to a high incidence of vulnerable employment (own-account workers and contributing/unpaid family workers).

Employment relationships between employers (often fishing vessel owners) and fishers are varied, and are based predominantly on oral agreements in small-scale fishing operations. Large-scale industrial fishing operations normally use formal working agreements. Payment of fishers is done according to two systems: the flat wage and the share system. As the ILO defines them, "A flat wage is a fixed salary per pay period. Under a share system contract, fishers earn a percentage of the gross revenue or profit of the particular fishing trip. Under this system, proceeds from the catch are used first to cover expenses for the operation of the vessel and then the net proceeds are shared among the fishing vessel owner and the fishers based on a prearranged, often hierarchical, formula. Sometimes fishers may be paid a low minimum wage, the rest of their pay being based on a share of the catch or on bonuses (for example, for sighting fish), in what is a combination of the two systems. In many countries, these arrangements place fishers in the category of 'self-employed'" (ILO, 2013d).





## 4: Issues and actions

In this chapter, a range of decent work issues in fisheries and aquaculture are presented. These are only examples of major issues, and there could well be more in given circumstances. In addition, examples of possible actions are discussed to address such issues, clearly recognizing that there could well be significantly more measures undertaken to help tackle the issues.

#### The Four Pillars of Decent Work

# Pillar 1 Employment & enterprise dev.

Availability of an adequate number of productive, **quality** jobs, wich provide income to cover at least basic needs

## Pillar 2 Social Protection

Protection from work-related injury and from lack of income due to unemployment, illness or age

# Pillar 3 Standards & rights at work

Fundamental rights: freedom of choice & equality of treatment, freedom of association & opportunity at work

# Pillar 4 Governance & social dialogue

Participation to decision making about work conditions and representation of interests in negotiations

The issues and actions are organized along the pillars of the globally agreed-upon Decent Work Agenda, with gender equality as a cross-cutting issue: (Pillar 1) Employment creation and enterprise development; (Pillar 2) Social protection; (Pillar 3) Standards and rights at work; and (Pillar 4) Governance and social dialogue.<sup>54</sup> The four pillars are inevitably linked and indivisible, and synergies should be built among them.<sup>55</sup> Decent work involves opportunities that deliver a fair income, a secure workplace and social protection for families; good prospects for personal development and social integration; freedom for people to express their concerns and to participate in the decisions that affect their lives; and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men.<sup>56</sup>

<sup>54</sup> ILO. 2008. Toolkit for Mainstreaming Employment and Decent Work.

<sup>55</sup> To guide its programming, FAO has developed an applied definition of decent rural employment (FAO, 2014a) which simplifies the decent work concept by focusing on the aspects of employment generation, conditions of employment, and respect for core labour standards. (See FAO applied definition of decent rural employment.) However, this scoping study will use decent work as an overall reference framework, while keeping in mind that FAO accords priority to decent rural employment.

<sup>56</sup> See ILO decent work page.

Giving a complete picture of decent work issues along the fisheries and aquaculture value chain is not within the scope of this paper, as specific analysis is required according to the type of commodity, nature of production, geographical context, scale of operation, and so forth. Instead, the paper prioritizes wide-ranging decent work concerns for which critical improvement is necessary to address rural poverty.

The actions are not listed in any order of precedence, leaving decision-making on priorities to relevant stakeholders within a determined context. Each action has to be agreed upon within a specific situation, and due consideration must be taken of the different levels of development and capacity.

It is important to recognize that where poverty exists in communities dependent on fishing and aquaculture, it is of a multidimensional nature. It is caused not only by decent work deficits, but also by other factors that impede the full enjoyment of human rights, including civil, political, social and cultural rights. Fishworker communities are commonly located in areas with limited or disadvantaged access to health, education and other social services (FAO, 2014c).

Box 4 presents the four pillars of the Decent Work Agenda. For each pillar, the main decent work deficits identified through the literature review are presented on the right-hand side. The following paragraphs articulate, one by one, the working deficits for each pillar.

Box 4. Main decent work deficits in fisheries and aquaculture by Decent Work Agenda pillar

Decent work pillar	Issue (decent work deficit)	
Pillar 1: Employment creation and enterprise development	<ul> <li>Low earnings and labour productivity</li> <li>Data and policy gaps</li> <li>Threats to sustainable livelihoods</li> </ul>	
Pillar 2: Social protection	<ul><li>Lack of social protection</li><li>Hazardous employment</li></ul>	
Pillar 3: Standards and rights at work	<ul> <li>Ineffective labour regulation</li> <li>Flags of convenience and IUU fishing</li> <li>Prevalence of child labour</li> <li>Vulnerable migrant labour</li> </ul>	
Pillar 4: Governance and social dialogue	Low level of organization and participation	

Source: FAO, 2014a; FAO employment database definition.

## 4.1 Pillar 1: Employment creation and enterprise development

Productive employment is one of the key mechanisms for ensuring effective distribution of economic development, as a major portion of family income and the livelihood of individuals essentially stems from earnings generated in the labour market <sup>57</sup>. Moreover, sustainable enterprise development is a key driver of employment creation.<sup>58</sup>

## 4.1.1 Low earnings and labour productivity

While small-scale fisheries and aquaculture are major sources of work, available jobs are often not productive and gainful, with a high prevalence of informal employment, underemployment, and seasonal and casual employment. Many fishers or fish farmers/processing and/or trading people live in developing countries, earn low income, and tend to belong to the group of working poor. For example, estimates say that about 5.8 million capture fishers in the world earn less than US\$1 per day.<sup>59</sup> Of particular concern are landless fishers who depend on daily wage labour as the only viable income activity available besides fish capture, as they don't have land for agricultural activities.<sup>60</sup> Furthermore, subsistence fisheries and aquaculture are an essential livelihood component for many rural communities (World Bank, 2012; Phillips et al., 2015).

Although most available studies point to a strong association between high fisheries employment and above-average rural poverty levels, others show that some fishers, living in isolated or remote areas and in harsh conditions, can also be relatively well-off incomewise, thanks to the cash they derive from their fishing activities.<sup>61</sup>

Fisheries and aquaculture in many countries includes the coexistence of high-value, export-oriented operations and low-productivity artisanal types of operations, with formal and informal working arrangements (notwithstanding some exceptions). This dualism has an impact on decent work: trade policy, regulations and investments tend to prioritize the higher end of the sector – it being an important source of revenue and wealth - to the disadvantage of smaller-scale activities, even though these are much more important in terms of number of people employed, production of animal protein, and effect on national/local food security.

While the reasons for the low earnings and productivity are various and diverse, common challenges faced by fishworker communities include limited access to training, technology, services and markets. Poor infrastructure often makes it difficult to justify the costs of transportation to markets, and high post-harvest losses of already low volumes of production are common due to the lack of suitable shore-based fish handling, collection, processing, marketing, and storage and distribution facilities<sup>62</sup>. Micro- and small enterprises face challenges to be competitive and sustainable, due to lack of inputs and resources to ensure quality and safety of products, access to credit, investment in new technology, profitable levels of production, and difficulty in obtaining market information <sup>63</sup>.

- 57 See http://rconline.undg.org/wp-content/uploads/2011/11/RC\_brochure\_Final\_WEB\_Feb111.pdf.
- 58 See ILO page on employment promotion.
- $\,$  59 World Bank. 2012. Hidden harvest: the global contribution of capture fisheries.
- 60 See Understanding livelihoods dependent on inland fisheries in Bangladesh and Southeast Asia: PRA report.
- 61 See for example: Panayotou, 1985; Neiland, Madakan and Béné, 2005; Béné et al., 2009a; cited in HLPE, 2014 (available at http://www.fao.org/3/a-i3844e.pdf).
- 62 See more at http://www.fao.org/americas/recursos/baf/2014-1/bp-acuicultura/en/.
- 63 Ibid.

Research shows that wage labour in aquaculture hatchery and grow-out operations can be beneficial for fishworkers, when it pays a decent salary<sup>64</sup>.

Aquaculture can also provide non-seasonal jobs that can complement other agricultural activities. However, there are indications that aquaculture operations trade fisher-gatherer poverty for agricultural wage-labourer poverty in coastal areas (e.g. mangroves) as well as more skilled labourers or farm owners benefitting from aquaculture development<sup>65</sup>. Moreover, large-scale commercial fish farming companies sometimes enjoy monopsony power over the labour force as the sole or dominant employer in a certain location; this limits workers' ability to demand higher wages. Some of the unskilled jobs in aquaculture are outsourced to contractors and intermediaries, in which contract workers are often subjected to inferior labour status, casual employment, lack of job security, and poor wages<sup>66</sup>.

Due to the limited access to productive resources combined with the often high uninsured risk of losing fish stocks and investments, it is usually not the poorest farmers who are able to integrate aquaculture into their agricultural activities - even though in some places, integrated fish-agriculture systems have offered significant benefits to the very poor <sup>67</sup>.

The growing globalization of seafood value chains controlled by transnationals and large retailers is linking more and more developing country producers and workers to global markets. However, as global corporations increasingly move investments and jobs around the world, developing country workers in export fish-processing companies, especially the women who predominate in low-skilled, low-status jobs, are often disadvantaged by low pay and casual informal contracts. Even where women are in the majority, such as in processing factories, few rise to supervisor and management levels (De Silva and Yamao, 2006). Many developing countries are also out of consideration for outsourcing operations, as they are not able to meet strict sanitary and hygiene standards<sup>68</sup>.

<sup>64</sup> Hishamunda et al. 2014. Improving governance of aquaculture employment: A global assessment.

<sup>65</sup> Allison. 2011. Aquaculture, fisheries, poverty and food security. Working Paper 2011-65. Penang, Malaysia, WorldFish Center.

<sup>66</sup> Hishamunda et al. 2014. Improving governance of aquaculture employment: A global assessment.

<sup>67</sup> Allison, 2011. Aquaculture, fisheries, poverty and food security. Working Paper 2011-65. Penang, Malaysia, WorldFish Center. In Africa, small-scale aquaculture has not successfully addressed poverty and food security because of limited access to land, infrastructure and inputs, and consequently small yields. In Asia on the other hand, while some scholars argue that medium-scale aquaculture operations are more effective at addressing poverty reduction, the fact remains that 70–80 percent of aquaculture production has come so far from small-scale farming (HLPE, 2014).

 $<sup>68 \ \</sup> See \ http://www.fao.org/docrep/019/i3553e/i3553e.pdf.$ 

#### Actions

- Recognize the crucial importance of small-scale operators for local employment and introduce
  policies and investments to develop productive and profitable businesses that enhance economic
  productivity of small-scale activities. These include recognition of access rights; introduction of
  innovative technology; improved extension services; sustainable management practices; and
  access to inputs and financial services, improved infrastructure facilities, and market space. Ensure
  that trade policies do not discriminate against small-scale producers' products.
- Develop an institutional environment that enables sustainable small-scale, low-input forms of aquaculture, including innovations in aquaculture for the landless, that are locally owned and that help in creating and sustaining rural livelihoods (when economically feasible).
- Apply systematically an age- and gender-sensitive value chain approach in fisheries and aquaculture planning processes to support the participation of women and youth in modern value chains.
- Introduce realistic livelihood diversification strategies by facilitating multisectoral flexibility and geographical mobility in, for example, sector-wide agriculture programmes and strategies.

## 4.1.2 Data and policy gaps

Due to the fragmented, seasonal <sup>69</sup> and informal nature of fisheries and aquaculture, in addition to the limited institutional capacity in many developing countries, fisheries and aquaculture statistics do not sufficiently capture the extent or importance of small-scale fisheries and aquaculture, nor their contribution to harvest and post-harvest employment. Millions of rural men and women engage in subsistence fishing on a seasonal or occasional basis, but are not recorded as "fishers" in official statistics. Rural poor who are dependent on inland capture fisheries are particularly invisible.

Fisheries and aquaculture statistics largely fail to capture the youth and children who are employed in the sector, and the limited data available are rarely sex-disaggregated. Furthermore, as fish processing work is often done within the household, censustakers and researchers fail to capture girls' labour contribution in fisheries.<sup>70</sup> Age and gender analyses of programmes and projects are mostly focused on the lower end of the market spectrum, in small-scale operations catering to local and domestic markets or subsistence activities <sup>71</sup>.

This incomplete data can lead to misinformed policy choices and fisheries governance which does not sufficiently address the vulnerabilities that arise from large inequities in power relations: between producers and buyers; between fishers and processing factory owners and exporters; or between men, women and youth in fishing and farming communities.<sup>72</sup>

<sup>69</sup> Expenditure surveys may not capture the importance of fisheries and aquaculture if conducted in a non-fishing season (Hidden harvest).

<sup>70</sup> Dey de Pryck. 2013. Good practice policies to eliminate gender inequalities in fish value chains.

<sup>71</sup> FAO. 2013. Mainstreaming gender in fisheries and aquaculture. A Stock-taking and Planning Exercise.

<sup>72</sup> Allison, 2011. Aquaculture, fisheries, poverty and food security. Working Paper 2011-65. Penang, Malaysia, WorldFish Center.

Fisheries and aquaculture policies and management plans have not yet widely adopted employment-related objectives, and the livelihood improvement potential in fisheries and aquaculture for poverty reduction is not adequately (or at all) reflected in national Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers and government budget allocations.<sup>73</sup> As a result, policy, regulations and investments tend to prioritize the higher end of the fisheries and aquaculture sector as important sources of revenue and wealth, to the disadvantage of small-scale activities - thus neglecting the importance they have for local employment and food security.

#### Actions

- Improve the availability and quality of disaggregated data on the employment contribution of fisheries and aquaculture, including addressing biases in fishery statistical systems (e.g. underrepresentation of small-scale and inland capture fisheries). One example of such an effort is the Guidelines to Enhance Fisheries and Aquaculture Statistics through a Census Framework.<sup>74</sup>
- The Guidelines, developed by FAO, provide a better tool on how to capture the contribution of small-scale fisheries at country, community and household levels. Furthermore, the methodology integrates a specific set of questions on how to collect and analyse data on fisheries and aquaculture, including post-harvest activities that can be integrated in national censuses (population, agriculture, and sector-specific).
- Undertake adequate ex ante and ex post impact analyses to determine what functions (revenue, jobs, food) and forms (cage/pond/etc. aquaculture, or pole-and-line/trap/gillnet/etc. fisheries) of fisheries and aquaculture provide optimal and sustainable social, economic and environmental development impacts, thus identifying potential trade-offs of different policy directions and investments.
- Make better use of information about the impact of small-scale fisheries and small and mediumscale aquaculture enterprises on employment, as well as their contribution to broader local and regional economies, in order to better target policy priorities for economic development.
- Promote collection and reporting by countries as well as analysis and dissemination of age- and sexdisaggregated data to allow for gender- and age-sensitive policy formulation. Ensure that fisheries and aquaculture policies and interventions do not create negative impacts on women and youth.
- Make employment creation and entrepreneurship development objectives explicit in fisheries and aquaculture sector policies, and foster policy coherence between sectoral (fisheries and aquaculture) and cross-sectoral (employment, social protection, poverty reduction programmes, trade, environment) policies and programmes.
- Involve labour stakeholders in fishery planning and specify the labour-related causes of fisheries and aquaculture problems.

<sup>73</sup> Ibid. See more at http://strp.ramsar.org/strp-publications/strp-meeting-reports/doc.-strp18-16-draft-report-on-inland-wetlands-capture-fisheries-and-aquaculture.

<sup>74</sup> Gee. 2015. Guidelines to Enhance Fisheries and Aquaculture Statistics through a Census Framework.

#### 4.1.3 Threats to sustainable livelihoods

Today, fish is one of the most widely traded food commodities, generating a trade value of US\$ 130 billion in 2012 and still increasing. About 54 percent of fish trade originates in developing countries, where it is a source of trade income that is more important than other agricultural commodities combined (FAO, 2014a). Fish value chains are therefore very important now for employment generation, and will increasingly be in the future as well. The growth of fisheries and aquaculture, however, also means that the sector continues to be under stress from overexploitation and other competing uses, despite the efforts made to promote sustainable fishing worldwide. Recent assessments of marine fish stocks show that 29 percent are fished at unsustainable biological levels (and therefore are overfished), while 61 percent are fully fished and a smaller proportion (10 percent) are underfished (FAO, 2014e).

Pollution, environmental degradation, climate change, diseases, and natural and human-induced disasters add to the threats affecting fishworkers' livelihoods. Shrinking catches, declining fish stocks and related efforts to address overfishing, combined with growing populations, are particularly affecting small-scale capture fishing communities in developing countries, where social protection is lacking and there are few employment opportunities. In recent years, inland fisheries have been seen to decline as environmental degradation, increasing fishing, and population growth place pressure on these resources. Many small-scale systems are being undermined by competition for land, ponds, coastal areas and inland waterways. While men as the main fishers are the first to be affected, the declining catches have repercussions throughout the value chain, also affecting women (and men) employed in downstream processing and marketing.

The dependence of aquaculture on water, energy and chemicals as well as on wild fish for feed and seed, coupled with concerns about diseases, are all constraints on the sustainability and growth of the industry. Even though there is an increasing global demand for aquaculture products, this has also brought stricter criteria for food safety, traceability and other non-tariff requirements, which limits smaller producers' ability to participate in international value chains. Pequirements from retailers, public concerns for certification of the safety and quality of aquaculture products, and the social and environmental impacts of aquaculture production add further hurdles to market access, with small farmers expected to face particular difficulties.

Although there is limited age-disaggregated employment data in fisheries and aquaculture, regional data on the prevalence of youth unemployment indicate that many future jobs for youth are needed in areas where fisheries and aquaculture are important economic sectors. Just as in other agricultural subsectors, unskilled youth starting to work in fisheries and aquaculture are likely to engage in low-paying, vulnerable jobs with little possibility to acquire knowledge and develop professionally. <sup>81</sup> Difficult working conditions, safety concerns and insecure future prospects, combined with the relatively low wages in capture fisheries (compared with jobs ashore), make employment in capture fisheries

 $<sup>75 \</sup>quad See \ http://www.ssfsymposium.org/Documents/FullVersion/BPIV\_Part1.pdf.$ 

<sup>76</sup> See http://www.fao.org/docrep/019/i3553e/i3553e.pdf.

<sup>77</sup> Ibid.

<sup>78</sup> See Yumiko et al., 2004.

<sup>79</sup> See http://www.fao.org/docrep/012/al363e/al363e17.pdf.

<sup>80</sup> Ibid

<sup>81</sup> Nabafu. 2013. How to fully engage youth in enhancing Fisheries and Aquaculture in Sub Saharan Africa.

less attractive to youth. 82 This exacerbates the existing trend of ageing agricultural labour observed in many developing countries, which may ultimately undermine the sector's long-term economic sustainability if left unaddressed. Inland and marine aquaculture has the potential to create better employment; however, youth have less access to the investment resources and skills necessary to operate viable aquaculture operations. 83

#### Actions

- Undertake gender-sensitive research on the vulnerability of fishery-dependent households to understand coping mechanisms, improve adaptation to climate risks, contribute to mitigation, reduce fishing pressure, and build capacity to respond with complementary income-generating activities.
- Promote sustainable and user-friendly technology and support services especially suitable for smallscale operations to enhance resilience to shocks, ensuring access and adoption of technology by both women and men, including youth.
- Provide training to small-scale operators in environmental and product quality regulations and trade requirements (for example, the use of antibiotics in aquaculture); in aquatic animal health; and in efficient use of resources, including water, sites, seed stock, and other inputs.
- Enable access to schools and education facilities that meet the needs of fishery-dependent communities. Facilitate gainful and decent youth employment, respecting their career choices and providing equal opportunities for all boys and girls and young men and women.
- Undertake risk assessments, identifying hazardous activities in specific fish value chains that pose
  risks to young people, with a view to introducing measures to translate child labour into decent
  youth employment.

## 4.2 Pillar 2: Social protection

Ensuring that women and men enjoy working conditions that are safe, allow adequate free time and rest, provide for adequate compensation in case of lost or reduced income, and permit access to adequate health care, is instrumental in promoting human welfare.

## 4.2.1 Lack of social protection

Many of the developing countries where fisheries and aquaculture are important occupations for the poor do not offer universal, non-contributory social protection.<sup>84</sup> Even when these exist, the high level of informal, small-scale and vulnerable employment in fisheries and aquaculture means that social security systems are out of reach for the

<sup>82</sup> Exceptions to this also exist (i.e. canoe fishing in India and pirogue fishing in Senegal).

<sup>83</sup> Nabafu, 2013. How to fully engage youth in enhancing Fisheries and Aquaculture in Sub Saharan Africa. For example, land and capital to invest in juveniles for stocking, feed in fed-systems, and/or fertilizers (see http://strp.ramsar.org/strp-publications/strp-meeting-reports/doc.-strp18-16-draft-report-on-inland-wetlands-capture-fisheries-and-aquaculture).

<sup>84</sup> HLPE. 2012. Social protection for food security.

majority of fishworkers. This leaves them vulnerable to risks of sudden impoverishment, as they are also often incapable of generating sufficient savings for themselves and their families to offset times of low economic demand or exogenous shocks.<sup>85</sup>

Limited access to social protection affects fishworkers not only directly, for example when they are ill or injured, but also indirectly, as individuals, families and communities may need to devote time to caring for the aged or sick, to spending money on medical or funeral expenses, or to surviving the death of the main family provider. Households that depend on capture fisheries, and poor fishers in small-scale fisheries in particular, are prone to very high levels of vulnerability closely related to the insecure and hazardous nature of their economic activity and the livelihoods associated with it. Above all, there is the high occupational risk: few land-based occupations confront their participants with the risk of losing all of their productive capital, as well as their lives, every time they go to work. In many developing countries these consequences can be devastating. Widows often have low social standing, and where there is no social protection to support families and no alternative source of income, widows and their children may face destitution.

In medium- and large-scale aquaculture, conditions of wage employment are generally considered to be better. In addition to wages, fish farms more often provide workers with additional social protection benefits such as medical and pension coverage, and in some cases bonuses.<sup>86</sup>

#### Actions

- Extend social protection floors to informal sector workers including fishworkers, for example through non-contributory welfare benefits (pension, sickness, maternity, disability, and work-related accident benefits).
- Provide income support (direct cash transfers, unemployment coverage, insurance or wages
  from public work) to poor fishworkers (or while the fishing season is closed) to help overcome
  liquidity constraints, improve resilience to shocks, manage risks, and promote multiplier effects in
  the local economy. By protecting fishworkers from exogenous shocks, social protection schemes
  can incentivize them to invest their surplus income in their own productive activities and in the
  accumulation of human capital within their families (i.e. keeping their children in school).

## 4.2.3 Hazardous employment

Occupational safety and health (OSH) concerns vary depending on the fisheries and aquaculture activity and the circumstances. Risks can be exacerbated by additional factors, such as migration, HIV/AIDS prevalence, gender-based violence and drug use. As men and women tend to have different socioprofessional roles, exposure to hazards is gender-differentiated. <sup>87</sup> Men and boys prevail in some of the most hazardous occupations in fisheries and aquaculture, and therefore specific attention needs to be given to their high exposure to workplace hazards.

<sup>85</sup> ILO. 2009. Guide to the new Millennium Development Goals Employment Indicators: including the full set of Decent Work Indicators.

<sup>86</sup> Hishamunda et al. 2014. Improving governance of aquaculture employment: A global assessment.

<sup>87</sup> FAO/ILO. 2013. Guidance on addressing child labour in fisheries and aquaculture.

## Box 5. Social security benefits: the case of Brazil

In Brazil's Pará State, where 11 percent of the artisanal fishers are women, most fishers qualify for the "special insured" category where they are entitled to non-contributory welfare benefits (pension, sickness, maternity, disability, and work-related accident benefits). They are also entitled to social unemployment insurance while the fishing season is closed. Since 1991, women fishworkers have been entitled to these benefits as spouses or as fishers in their own right, but often their worker status is not recognized because they lack documentation, or because their documentation gives their occupation as "housewife" (despite their work in fisheries). Fisher organizations are increasingly raising awareness of these rights among both men and women members by helping them acquire the necessary papers, deal with the bureaucracy, and fight discrimination against fishworkers, especially female fishers (often considered low-status workers). As membership in a professional fisheries association is a criterion of eligibility for social security benefits, and the leaders of the municipal colônias can decide whether to accept women as members or only as their husbands' dependents, it is vital that women obtain these papers and register as colônia members.

The safety of fishing vessels and fishers involves several interrelated components, such as the design, construction and equipment of vessels. However, social and economic pressures as well as overcapacity and overfishing of coastal resources are probably the major factors that have negated efforts to improve safety at sea. Overcapacity and overfishing leads fishers to take bigger risks, work longer shifts, ignore fatigue, reduce crew sizes and disregard safety standards. Most accidents occur as a result of poor judgment exercised during fishing operations, brought about by the pressure to increase profits or simply to remain financially viable. 99

Capture fishing is considered to be the world's most dangerous occupation, with more than 24 000 casualties per year. It is typically labour-intensive, with high rates of occupational diseases and injuries. It is typically labour-intensive, with high rates of occupational diseases and injuries. Intensive periods of hard work take place when fishing grounds are reached, often in adverse weather conditions. Fishers might not rest for days, accommodations can be poor, and there is not a clear separation between working time and personal time, or between working and living spaces. Sleep deficiency, disease due to limited medical care, and malnourishment because of scarce food and fresh water can make fishers accident-prone. Lack of protective clothing can lead to injuries from seawater and the sun. On small vessels, crews have to work on deck in all types of weather, frequently with hatches open, in order to locate, gather and process their catch. The typical features of small-scale fisheries such as lack of safety equipment, poor search and rescue services, inadequate port and landing facilities, and inadequate medical care exacerbate OSH concerns as well as their consequences.

<sup>88</sup> Ibid.

<sup>89</sup> Common types of accidents are stepping on, striking against or being struck by an object; falling; and overexertion.

<sup>90</sup> Skin and respiratory diseases, hypertension, coronary heart disease, and cancer (lung, bronchial, stomach), as well as saltwater boils, allergic reactions to cuttlefish and weeds, fish erysipeloid, acute tenosynovitis of the wrist, conjunctivitis, and poisoning from fish stings are common among fishers. In tropical waters, fishers are exposed to water-borne diseases (such as bilharzias) or threatened by wild animals (such as hippopotamuses and crocodiles) in lakes and estuaries (FAO/ILO, 2013).

<sup>91</sup> ILO. 2013. Caught at sea. Forced labour and trafficking in fisheries.

<sup>92</sup> FAO/ILO. 2013. Guidance on addressing child labour in fisheries and aquaculture.

There are hazards in aquaculture in hatcheries, grow-out facilities and feed mills, and these differ depending on specific equipment, chemicals, biological agents, the scale of operation, and the physical environment. OSH issues are related to heavy lifting, long hours of repetitive hand feeding, slips or falls on wet and slippery surfaces, diving or being submerged in fish ponds, cuts from using knives, direct contact with chemicals, and wounds from other equipment or machinery.<sup>93</sup>

OSH concerns in fish handling and processing involve the unsafe use of chemicals, leading to skin rashes, allergic reactions and asthmatic symptoms among processing workers. 

Other hazards include cuts, bites and puncture injuries from sharp teeth, spines or bones, and also injuries from sharp tools and dense smoke. Heat and smokedriven health hazards are a significant concern in fish smoking operations, which are important activities for women in many countries.

Risks related to fish marketing include activities such as carrying heavy loads and manually handling fish. Transporting fish to distant markets may pose risks related to personal security and road safety, especially in countries with little infrastructure or with ongoing conflicts. The phenomenon called "fish-for-sex" is an arrangement where women make part of the payment for fish with sexual favours, leading to serious gender-related concerns and high levels of HIV/AIDS in fishing communities.<sup>95</sup>

#### **Actions**

- Conduct gender- and age-sensitive workplace risk assessments to identify work-related hazards, evaluate the nature and level of risk for each hazard, and identify measures to address the hazards in order to prevent or reduce risk<sup>96</sup>.
- Document OSH conditions in small-scale operations, identify problems and good practices in addressing these issues, and assess the roles of fisheries associations in meeting safety standards.
- Review national definitions of OSH in fisheries and aquaculture, develop hazardous work lists, and ensure that OSH measures are an integral part of management practices.
- Develop and implement national and regional safety-at-sea strategies with active participation of fishers themselves, including maintenance of national accident reporting, provision of sea safety awareness programmes, and introduction of appropriate legislation for sea safety in small-scale fisheries.<sup>97</sup>

<sup>93</sup> Injuries and diseases include musculoskeletal injury, parasitic infestation and pathogenic infections, burns, skin irritation or allergies, and respiratory problems (FAO/ILO, 2013).

<sup>94</sup> See Lopata et al., 2005.

<sup>95</sup> See FAO/ILO. 2013. Guidance on addressing child labour in fisheries and aquaculture; Allison and Seeley, 2004; Béné and Merten, 2008.

<sup>96</sup> In accordance with the Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No. 188), government authorities should establish the necessary framework to ensure that "fishing vessel owners, skippers, fishers and other relevant people be provided with sufficient and suitable guidance, training material, or other appropriate information on how to evaluate and manage risks to safety and health on board fishing vessels" (Article 32). For risk assessments on fishing vessels, guidance is available in binding and voluntary instruments prepared by the ILO, IMO (International Maritime Organization) and FAO.

<sup>97</sup> See the Voluntary Guidelines for Securin Sustainable Small-Scale Fisheries in the Context of Food Security and Poverty Eradication (SSF Guidelines).

Table 5. Common tasks, hazards and consequences in fisheries and aquaculture  $^{\rm 98}$ 

Tasks	Hazards	Potential health consequences
Capture fisheries		
Sorting, unloading and transporting catches	Heavy loads; large machines with moving parts	Joint and bone deformities; blistered hands and feet; lacerations; back injury; muscle injury; amputation of fingers, toes and limbs; noise-induced hearing loss
Diving for various aquatic species, to free snagged nets or to scare fish into nets	Deep water; dangerous fish; boat propellers; fishing nets; entanglement; extended periods of diving	Death by drowning; hypoxia; decompression sickness (paralysis, death); dizziness; emphysema; bites or stings from fish; hearing loss from ear infections or rapid pressure change
Active fishing; pulling fish onto boat	Heavy loads; sharp objects	Blistered hands and feet; lacerations; back injury; muscle injury; fish poisoning
Going out to sea	Frequent lack of appropriate fishing ports, boat shelters and anchorages	Death or broken bones from surf crossing
Dangerous fishing operations	Trawling vessel gear snagging on a fastener (because of obstacles on the sea bottom); small seiners capsizing under the downward pressure of a large catch of fish "sinking" during the last stage of net hauling; getting caught up in nets; ropes running out while setting the gear; attacks from marine animals (also for wading fishers); use of dynamite poison for fishing	Death due to capsizing of vessels; being swept overboard; stings, bites, tail kicks
Working on boats and water in general	Crowded conditions; deep water; cold water; polluted water; slippery walkways; fumes and other odours; loud equipment; lack of drinking water; long hours; working at night; bad weather, and poor/nonexistent weather warning systems and radio communication; loss of engine power; fire on board; unsuitable boats (sailing farther offshore on prolonged fishing trips on small fishing crafts built for inshore fishing/day trips)	Death by drowning; hypothermia; nausea; claustrophobia; bilharzias, guinea worm and similar parasitic infections; broken bones and head injuries from slips; physical or emotional abuse; exhaustion (also caused by taking higher risks when facing economic hardship); hunger; dehydration; capsizing, grounding, getting lost, collisions (as a result of small boat accidents occurring in sudden gales, major storms and heavy fog)

<sup>98</sup> Tasks and hazards have to be considered within the specific context in which they occur. The table provides a quick overview, but is neither full nor comprehensive

Long periods at sea on boats or fishing platforms	Sexual abuse; intimidation; isolation; violence; inclination to accept dangerous situations and tasks	Sexually transmitted diseases and HIV/AIDS; alcoholism, drug use and smoking-related diseases; diminished sense of self-worth; depression
Behavioural responses to fisheries management	Taking higher risks (if spatial-temporal closures limit the fishing time or area, fishers may venture further offshore)	Death by drowning; physical exhaustion; getting lost or injured during bad weather
Aquaculture		
Maintaining aquaculture farms, including fish handling and feeding, harvesting	Disease control compounds; mosquitoes; water-borne diseases affecting workers; carrying heavy loads	Injury from falls; death by drowning; malaria; dengue; hand/feet injuries
Applying chemicals and pesticides	Exposure to dangerous substances, including water/soil treatment chemicals and fertilizers	Poisoning and cancer; irritation of skin and eyes; damage to the reproductive system and the endocrine system
Sorting, unloading and transporting fish	Heavy loads; large machines with moving parts (in large-scale farms)	Joint and bone deformities; blistered hands and feet; lacerations; back injury; muscle injury; amputation of fingers, toes and limbs; noise-induced hearing loss
Maintenance and operation of facility holding units (ponds, cages, rafts, ropes, pens, etc.) and stocks	Sharp or heavy tools	Blistered hands and feet; lacerations
Guarding aquaculture ponds against thieves	Working at night; attacks from robbers	Physical and psychological injuries
Post-harvest		
Cleaning fish and shellfish; processing, smoking or selling fish	Sharp tools; heat, smoke and chemicals; long hours standing or bending	Blistered hands and feet; lacerations; backache and other musculoskeletal strains and disorders; exhaustion; eye skin and respiratory system disorders
Repairing nets, vessels	Sharp or heavy tools	Blistered hands and feet; lacerations
Marketing/trading	Abuse and transactional sex	Sexually transmitted diseases; physica and psychological injuries

Source: adapted from FAO/ILO, 2013.

## 4.3 Pillar 3: Standards and rights at work

All workers, and in particular disadvantaged or poor workers, need recognition and respect for rights that work for their interests.

### 4.3.1 Ineffective labour regulation

Fishers and fish farmers are frequently excluded from the scope of labour legislation, as national laws often include provisions that wholly or partially exclude agricultural workers from coverage, protection and inspections. 99 To respond to the specific needs of workers engaged in capture fisheries, the ILO has developed standards specifically aimed at providing protection for the men and women who work in this sector. However, the relevant instruments enjoy low level of ratification and this adversely affects effective flag and port State control of labour standards on board fishing vessels. 100 This delay in ratification is due to different factors: one is the low priority that fishers and fishworkers are accorded in terms of social protection and conditions of employment; but more importantly is the complex process of updating national legislation, as the required measures of the Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No.188) for example, fall under the responsibility of different ministries and authorities (such as the labour authority, the fisheries authority and/or the maritime authority). Some organizations argue that opposition to ratification also comes from the private sector, as vessel owners fear that the requirements of the Convention are too stringent and may make fishing non-viable economically, increasing costs and reducing competitiveness.<sup>101</sup>

Even if labour legislation exists, in practice fishworkers are often prevented from asserting their rights and benefitting from them, due to the nature of their employment (e.g. informal and non-registered employment; casual, temporary or seasonal workers; self-employment or small-scale operations) or the absence of a clearly recognized employment status because they belong to a particular group, such as migrants with irregular status or women workers in fish processing factories and marketing. 102 The position of migrant fishers and fishworkers is, in fact, more precarious than that of national fishers. They are unable to exercise rights connected with citizenship, such as freedom of association and access to social security provisions. Furthermore, women are generally more vulnerable than men because they are often employed as unpaid family workers (Dey de Pryck and Termine, 2014). In many countries women cannot officially register as fishers and are thus excluded from labour legislation enforcement. 103 In addition, there is a need to elaborate separately on the case of domestic supply-oriented and medium or large fish processing units. Export-oriented units seem to be held in higher esteem by consumers, and are bound by stringent regulatory frameworks in recipient markets in more developed countries. But the weak enforcement of standards (or even lack of standards) in developing fishing nations make the poor and pervasive practices against employees more likely in the local processing units supplying the domestic markets.

<sup>99</sup> A definition of agriculture is adopted that includes cultivation of crops and animal husbandry as well as forestry, fisheries, and the development of land and water resources (FAOTERM).

<sup>100</sup> ILO. 2013. Caught at sea. Forced labour and trafficking in fisheries.

<sup>101</sup> See http://labour.icsf.net/index.php, accessed 05/08/14.

<sup>102</sup> Employment relationships in capture fisheries between employers (often fishing vessel owners) and fishers are diverse, and are based predominantly on oral agreements in small-scale fishing operations. In OECD countries, large-scale industrial fishing operations normally use formal working agreements.

<sup>103</sup> HLPE. 2014. Sustainable fisheries and aquaculture for food security and nutrition.

When fisheries acts provide for inspections, they usually relate only to controls on gear and catch, while inspection of working conditions is frequently omitted. Moreover, access licenses or bought fish quotas in a country's exclusive economic zone do not usually require that fishing vessels comply with national or international labour standards, nor are they inspected accordingly. Labour inspectorates are often weak, even non-existent in many countries, and fisheries might not be part of their mandate. To complicate this, fish harvesting often takes place in challenging marine and inland water environments,

making monitoring and enforcement of existing regulations even more difficult. Likewise, aquaculture sites are often located at some distance from shore or in isolated and remote rural areas, hindering inspections and effective enforcement of labour legislation. <sup>104</sup> Due to the common separation of resource management and decent work promotion, fisheries and aquaculture agencies and institutions responsible for labour often work in isolation, and fisheries and aquaculture management institutions are currently not equipped to directly deal with labour issues.

#### Actions

- Include decent work criteria in lease renewal procedures to encourage aquaculture operators to comply with labour and environmental regulations.
- Introduce innovative solutions by developing guidelines for good labour practices in fishing and aquaculture that cover not only fundamental labour rights, but also other issues such as wages, working hours and OSH. Such measures should also be extended to self-employed and informal fishers and fishworkers.
- Support the development and use of existing or new sustainability certification standards that
  include decent work criteria and facilitate the engagement of small-scale operators through
  adequate support and capacity building.
- Strengthen the capacity of fisheries and aquaculture agencies to deal with labour issues for effective coordination and cooperation between labour, marine transport, and fisheries and aquaculture management authorities. Invest in improved monitoring and enforcement of labour legislation to access offshore and remote fisheries and aquaculture operations. Existing cooperation and potential conflicts or overlapping mandates should also be identified, including the level of coordination among different line ministries. It may also be important to strengthen the capacity of labour authorities in dealing with labour issues in fisheries and aquaculture.

### 4.3.2 Flags of convenience and IUU fishing

A 2009 study estimated that illegal, unreported and unregulated (IUU) fishing accounts for between 11 and 26 million tonnes of fish totalling US\$10 to 23.5 billion every year. Regional estimates of Illegal fishing indicate that the activity is particularly widespread along the West African coast (Eastern Central Atlantic, 37 percent), the Western Central Pacific (34 percent), the Northwest Pacific (33 percent), the Southwest Atlantic (32 percent) and the Eastern Indian Ocean (32 percent) (Agnew et al., 2009).

The current definition of IUU fishing does not include the employment of, and fishing operations by, fishworkers who do not have proper documentation to ensure that their rights are properly protected by legislation consistent with the provisions of the Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No. 188). In practice this means that vessels engaged in IUU fishing effectively operate outside the labour jurisdiction of any authority, leaving their workers at the mercy of ruthless, profit-driven companies. Fishers are vulnerable to sanctions by coastal States for their participation in illegal fishing activities, as often

<sup>104</sup> Checks by labour inspectors are premised on their capacity to freely enter any workplace liable for inspection, at any time and without prior notice. In fishing–especially at sea–this is difficult, and requires special means (boats), while in aquaculture, if undertaken in rural areas, it may also require long travel times. Given the often limited staffing, financial resources and equipment of labour inspections, their actual capacity to enforce labour law in fisheries and aquaculture is limited.

it is the vessel, and not the fishing vessel operator, that is targeted by fisheries law enforcement agencies. <sup>105</sup> Complex working relationships due to increased globalization of fish value chains means that the state of registration of the vessel, location of fishing vessel owner, country of residence of the fishers, and area of operation of the vessel may all be different. Some flag States known as "open registers" allow fishing operators to register vessels owned by shell companies, which facilitates anonymous ownership of vessels (so-called "flags of convenience"). The result is that some states have amassed large fleets over which they do not have the capacity to effectively exercise their flag State responsibility. Other flag States are unwilling to meet their flag State responsibilities. <sup>106</sup> Additionally, "at sea transhipments" of catch, restock and refuel can worsen the labour situation, as these allow fishing vessels to avoid port control entirely. <sup>107</sup>

Until now, international efforts to implement port State control measures for fishing vessels have mainly focused on addressing IUU fishing to protect and safeguard the fishery resource, while less attention has been given to the links between IUU fishing and unacceptable working conditions. Out of the several international conventions and agreements providing for flag and port State control measures, only the STCW-F is in force at the time of writing this report. The resulting legal gap protection impedes flag and port States control over labour and other safety standards on fishing vessels. This contributes to a lack of transparency as well as limited traceability with respect to information on vessel identity, ownership and movement. While some port States do enforce unilateral control of fishing vessels, this is mostly uncoordinated among port States. However, at present, port State control arrangements for fishing vessels are anticipated for IMO, ILO and FAO legal instruments within the framework of the Agreement on Port State Measures to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing (PSMA). A potential difficulty is the dependence on regional fisheries management organizations (RFMOs) to conduct port State controls of fishing vessels, as RFMOs are currently not mandated to ensure compliance with labour standards. Moreover, RFMO members are often geographically scattered; there may be both coastal States and flag States representing some, or all, fishing interests in a particular maritime zone, often on the high seas. 108

#### Actions

- Coordinate efforts to combat IUU fishing with efforts to ensure decent working conditions of fishers.
   This includes expanding the definition of IUU fishing to include the employment of, and fishing operations by, fishworkers who do not have proper documentation to ensure that their rights are properly protected according to the provisions of the Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No. 188).
- Port States should enter into regional memorandum of understanding (MOU) arrangements to ensure uniform compliance with the Work in Fishing Convention (2007), the STCW-F, and the Cape Town Agreement (2012), and should also allow for inspection of employment practices and labour conditions on board fishing vessels. Uniform regional measures are vital for sharing information, setting common inspection targets, and cooperating on enforcement of instruments, so that if one state tightens legislation to protect workers, there will be no rush to reflag vessels to the jurisdiction of another state.

<sup>105</sup> ILO. 2013. Caught at sea. Forced labour and trafficking in fisheries.

<sup>106</sup> Ibid.

<sup>107</sup> See more at http://m.greenpeace.org/international/Global/international/briefings/oceans/2014/Slavery-and-Labour-Abuse-in-the-Fishing-Sector.pdf.

<sup>108</sup> ILO. 2013. Caught at sea. Forced labour and trafficking in fisheries.

#### 4.3.3 Prevalence of child labour

Surveys on labour and child labour do not capture differences among agriculture subsectors, which leads to limited disaggregated data on the prevalence of child labour in fisheries and aquaculture. Thus the information on the prevalence by activity can be inferred only from case studies. Recent ILO data confirm that there are 98 million child labourers in agriculture, including in fisheries and aquaculture. <sup>109</sup>

Small-scale fisheries and aquaculture operations often depend on unpaid family labour, including that of children. However, awareness is limited on what child labour is, and what are instead age-appropriate tasks that children can undertake. Child labour appears to be particularly common in the informal small-scale subsectors of capture fisheries, aquaculture, and post-harvest fish processing, distribution and marketing. When child labour is used as cheap labour to cut fishing costs, not only may it be harmful to children's development, it may also have a negative effect on the sustainability of the fishery activity, and the economy as well. Gender roles and division of labour in fisheries and aquaculture activities tend to reflect those of adults, with boys being generally more involved in fishing and girls in aquaculture and post-harvest activities.

Despite the almost universal ratification of child labour conventions (Minimum Age Convention, 1973 [No. 138], and Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 [No. 182]), their incorporation into national legislation often does not explicitly take into account fisheries and aquaculture in terms of regulation, implementation and enforcement. For example, hazardous work lists (the main regulatory instrument to identify and protect children from hazardous work, in accordance with the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention) often do not include a sufficient level of detail for hazardous activities in fishing, aquaculture or fish processing; when they do, it is often in the context of exportoriented value chains. Limited capacity on fisheries and aquaculture issues of the ministry of labour, and on child labour issues in fisheries and aquaculture departments, further hinders addressing child labour effectively (Seiffert, 2014).

<sup>109</sup> ILO. 2013. World report on child labour: Economic vulnerability, social protection and the fight against child labour.

<sup>110</sup> Children engage in a wide variety of activities, such as diving to fish or disentangle nets, helping out on board vessels, feeding and harvesting fish in ponds and cages, and in all associated downstream and upstream operations (e.g. processing, marketing, net making and repairing, and boatbuilding). Children also perform household chores in their fishing and fish farming families and communities.

<sup>111</sup> Not all activities children engage in are considered child labour. Some activities may stimulate their development by allowing them to acquire precious skills and contribute to their survival and food security. These activities can be beneficial as long as they are not hazardous, are not undertaken for long hours, and do not interfere with compulsory school and learning. Because they are still in a stage of development, children are more at risk than adults from safety and health hazards. While the general minimum working age is 15, the minimum age to work on board fishing vessels is set at 16 by the ILO Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No. 188). Competent national authorities may authorize it at 15 in cases where the child is no longer subject to compulsory schooling, or is engaged in vocational training.

#### **Actions**

- Collect disaggregated data on child labour in fisheries and aquaculture, and mainstream child labour concerns in fisheries and aquaculture policies, laws and programmes.
- Undertake a tripartite process (with the participation of representatives of government, employers
  and workers) to determine what constitutes hazardous child labour, and develop a legally binding
  hazardous child labour list prescribing activities and sectors that are prohibited for children under
  the age of 18 (ILO Convention 182, Article 4).
- Develop national action plans and capacity development strategies to address child labour in fisheries and aquaculture, with the long-term goal to prevent and eliminate child labour by tackling its root causes (e.g. poverty, lack of education, etc.).

## 4.3.4 Vulnerable migrant labour

Migration is an important strategy for communities and individuals that derive their livelihoods from fishing and aquaculture. It entails diverse typologies and patterns, including international, internal, short-term, seasonal, long-term, permanent, contractual, and stop-over migration. Migration and trafficking flows are often described in terms of "source", "transit" and "destination" countries. Consequently, there are some conceptual challenges related to migration and trafficking into marine activities as opposed to land-based activities, as there is no uniform understanding of "transit" and "destination" countries. Furthermore, it is still unclear if these terms should reflect the geographical location of the vessel or the flag which the vessel flies. 113

Although migrant fishers may benefit from increased work opportunities and higher pay, migrant status in fisheries and aquaculture often entails a number of decent work deficits and vulnerable employment characteristics. Migrant fishers are particularly vulnerable to exploitation as they may not be aware of their rights on foreign vessels, nor may they be in a position to demand adherence to contract agreements or to access legal advice and justice in the case of violation of their labour rights. They may not have acceptable written work agreements, may not be paid at due times, or may lack access to medical care. Migrants are most at risk for forced labour and human trafficking, and children of migrant fishers often end up working with their parents. Poverty is a factor, but so is the limited access to schools in the areas of destination. Language barriers or lower levels of education may mean that migrant workers are often not trained in or not aware of OSH measures, and are therefore more at risk. They are also more exposed to HIV and AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases because of the lifestyle and living conditions, such as being away from home for long periods. Migrant workers are often irregular workers, or undocumented migrant fishers, or fishers without any authorization to work, making it difficult to leave their workplace when they do reach port. They are denied repatriation; their papers are confiscated; they are forced to work very long hours in unsafe and unhealthy conditions; and they are sometimes denied payment altogether,

<sup>112</sup> Njock and Westlund. 2010. Migration, resource management and global change: experiences from fishing communities in West and Central Africa.

 $<sup>\,</sup>$  113  $\,$  ILO. 2013. Caught at sea. Forced labour and trafficking in fisheries.

abandoned in port, blacklisted and criminalized, kept in isolation, and denied access to justice (ITF, 2006). Gender also affects labour migration in the sector, as men are more likely to migrate independently, while women more as part of households (although exceptions do exist).<sup>114</sup>

The demand for cheap labour is increasing in the international seafood industry due to overfishing, smaller landings and stronger competition. In some instances states may be reluctant to enforce labour legislation for fear of lowering the competitiveness of fish products in export markets. Issues of coordination among port and flag States and limited awareness among front-line staff, together with limited coastal law enforcement capacity in many developing countries where human trafficking and forced labour are widespread, further aggravate the problem (Lund, 2014).

#### **Actions**

- Translate relevant laws and regulations, make use of basic legislation, and provide predeparture
  preparation and assistance to migrant workers. This can include migrant worker resource centres,
  requirements for recruitment agencies in countries of origin to comply with their regulations on
  recruitment, and country of origin governments verifying and authenticating migrant fishers'
  contracts.
- Ensure cooperation through regional and bilateral MOUs between flag States, coastal States, port
  States, and states of origin to improve working conditions, labour inspections and recruitment of
  migrant fishers. This includes written work agreements, regular payments, legal aid, social security,
  repatriation, predeparture training of fishers, and the right to organize.
- Study the extent of domestic and migrant workers' dependence on fishing and how potential savings from use of vulnerable labour and substandard fishing vessels affect the competitiveness of the legitimate industry.
- In addition to complying with catch-certification schemes of import markets, fishing vessels should demonstrate no forced labour or human trafficking of fishers on board.

## 4.4 Pillar 4: Governance and social dialogue

Effective dialogue implies the right to freely form and join groups for the promotion and defence of workers' occupational interests. Freedom of association and social dialogue is the cornerstone of democratic good governance in the labour market.

## 4.4.1 Low level of organization and participation

Overall, there are low levels of organization and representation of fishworkers in fisheries and aquaculture. This is due to the prevailing informal employment arrangements, small-scale operations and atypical employment relationships, with limited capacity and legal support to organize. The issue of participation and citizenship is particularly critical for

<sup>114</sup> Njock and Westlund. 2010. Migration, resource management and global change: experiences from fishing communities in West and Central Africa.

<sup>115</sup> Nayak. 2007. Understanding the impact of fisheries development on gender relations in fisheries: The importance of reorienting the focus of fisheries management strategies towards a more life centered and gender Just perspective.

migrant workers who in most countries have no right to organize themselves. Exceptions are China, Hong Kong SAR and Taiwan Province of China, where migrant fishers have the right to constitute their own unions.

In 2013 the International Transport Workers' Federation (ITF), the global union representing fishworkers, had 73 affiliated fisheries organizations, accounting for a total combined membership of 77 117 fishworkers. Membership in fishworker organizations is even lower in small-scale operations, which constitute the vast majority of jobs in fisheries and aquaculture. Levels of unionization of workers in fish processing and other stages of the value chain often depend on the scale of operation and whether or not the workers are hired under formal contracts. In general, unionization is very low at the sectoral level.

To date, fisheries workers have been represented globally by the ITF, as some of the issues are close to those of seafarers and other transport workers, and the number of fisheries workers is limited. However, this represents in some cases a gap in representation of the interest of fishworkers in small- and medium-scale operations and in inland fisheries, as their needs are quite different from those of transport workers. In response to this issue, recently (in Geneva, May 2014) the Executive Committee of the International Union of Food, Agricultural, Hotel, Restaurant, Catering, Tobacco and Allied Workers Association (IUF) supported the proposal for developing coordination within the IUF of fisheries and aquaculture workers, <sup>117</sup> always in collaboration with the ITF. While the IUF represents aquaculture and fish processing workers, the ITF will maintain its primary responsibility for the protection of workers at sea.

It is worth mentioning that at the global level the World Forum of Fish Harvesters and Fishworkers (WFF) and the World Forum of Fisher Peoples (WFFP) also represent small-scale fishers and fishworkers. Another example, at the regional level, is the African Confederation of Artisanal Fisheries Professional Organization (CAOPAC) representing small-scale fishing organizations from Mauritania, Senegal and Guinea.

Sectoral institutions representing large-scale and commercial fishing include, for example, the International Coalition of Fisheries Associations (ICFA) at the global level, and the Association of National Organizations of Fishing Enterprises of the EU (EUROPECHE) at the regional level.

Due to the low level of organization, small-scale producers and traders are dependent on intermediaries, who often have a crucial role in determining prices and access to markets in fisheries value chains, as they provide capital (including boats and gear) and have the means to organize transport of fish to destination markets. Fish traders usually function as a source of informal credit, providing income to households during seasonal periods of limited catch, which in turn creates a strong interdependence between fishers and traders. <sup>118</sup>

Fishery organizations are rarely linked to more powerful and influential employer and worker representative organizations, which limits their members' influence on government actions and policies. As a result, fishworkers, especially women and youth, face challenges in participating in decision-making processes that impact their livelihoods, as well as their access to and use of the fishery resource.

<sup>116</sup> Hishamunda et al. 2014. Improving governance of aquaculture employment: A global assessment.

<sup>117</sup> See http://www.iuf.org/w/?q=node/3430.

<sup>118</sup> Pizzali. 1988. Small-scale fish landing and marketing facilities.

#### Action

- Recognize fishworkers' rights to organize, collectively bargain and participate in fisheries and aquaculture planning, development and management of pre-harvest, harvest and post-harvest operations. Support self-organized, local professional organizations and cooperatives, as these arrangements strongly contribute to fostering the integration of small-scale operators in value chains. The right to organize in unions or organizations should be promoted for both nationals and migrant fishers and aquaculture workers.
- Support cooperatives in negotiating with market intermediaries, improving post-harvest practices and facilities, providing marketing logistics and information, and facilitating investment in shared structures such as ice plants and fish processing facilities.
- Strengthen the capacity of cooperatives to buy all their members' production, regardless of quantity or market situation; formulate management plans for coping with oversupply (such as by storing and processing products); negotiate a collective agreement that discourages the sale of fish outside the cooperative.
- Ensure economic sustainability of fisheries and aquaculture cooperatives by making sufficient funds available for investment and working capital, including adequate infrastructure, services and equipment, and good financial management (including regular bookkeeping, allowances for depreciation and replacement of equipment, and accountability).
- Empower fishery organizations to actively participate in policy dialogue and fisheries and aquaculture
  governance mechanisms. Enable meaningful participation of women, youth, migrants and the poor
  in fisheries management committees by establishing group-specific quotas, and by organizing ageand gender-sensitive management and leadership trainings.
- Promote collaboration among fisheries associations, including fisheries cooperatives and civil society organizations (CSOs), to establish networks and platforms for the exchange of experiences and information, and to facilitate involvement in policy- and decision-making processes relevant to small-scale fishing communities.
- Support Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs) such as the International Collective in Support of Fishworkers (ICSF), <sup>119</sup> and CSOs such as the WFF<sup>120</sup> and the WFFP. <sup>121</sup> Likewise, support and collaboration could be strengthened with fisheries and aquaculture initiatives by the IUF<sup>122</sup> and the ITF<sup>123</sup> who, as global umbrella organizations, represent international fishworker unions.

To conclude this section, an attempt has been made (Table 5) to summarize the main issues and actions on decent work in fisheries and aquaculture. This presents a selection of key issues for which attention and critical action might be needed to both improve labour conditions in fisheries and aquaculture and to address rural poverty. Clearly there will be significant differences depending on geographical context; commodity types; nature of production; scale of operation; involvement of stakeholders; vulnerability and exposure of fishworkers, their households and communities to poverty; and fishworkers' access to health, education and other social services.

<sup>119</sup> See more on the ICSF website.

<sup>120</sup> See more on the World Forum of Fish Harvesters and Fishworkers website.

<sup>121</sup> See more on the World Forum of Fisher Peoples website.

<sup>122</sup> See more on the International Union of Food, Agricultural, Hotel, Restaurant, Catering, Tobacco and Allied Workers Associations website.

<sup>123</sup> See more on the International Transport Workers' Federation website.

## Table 6. Summary of issues and actions

Decent work pillar	Issue	Actions
Pillar 1: Employment creation and enterprise development	<ul> <li>Low earnings and labour productivity</li> <li>Data and policy gaps</li> <li>Threats to sustainable livelihoods</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Invest in sustainable and inclusive value chain development, with a particular focus on small-scale fishworkers.</li> <li>Improve the access of smallscale fishworkers, including women and youth, to productive resources and alternative income strategies.</li> <li>Invest in knowledge and statistical systems for collecting, analysing and disseminating more comprehensive and reliable employment data relevant for decision-making in fisheries and aquaculture.</li> <li>Strengthen employment dimensions in fisheries and aquaculture policy and foster policy coherence across sectors.</li> </ul>
Pillar 2: Social protection	<ul> <li>Lack of social protection</li> <li>Hazardous employment</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Extend social protection to include both formal and informal fishworkers, including national citizens and migrants.</li> <li>Improve and implement occupational safety and health measures in fisheries and aquaculture based on participatory assessment of OSH needs.</li> </ul>
Pillar 3: Standards and rights at work	Ineffective labour regulation Flags of convenience and IUU fishing Prevalence of child Labour Vulnerable migrant labour	<ul> <li>Established International Labour Standards in fisheries and aquaculture, including the ratification of the Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No. 188).</li> <li>Implement decent work standards along with international and regional instruments on fisheries (e.g. conventions, codes of conduct, voluntary guidelines and trade agreements). Enhance regional cooperation and coordination to address decent work deficits related to flags of convenience and IUU fishing.</li> <li>Prevent and eliminate child labour.</li> <li>Protect migrant workers.</li> <li>Address conditions of fishworkers in local processing units supplying domestic markets</li> </ul>
Pillar 4: Governance and social dialogue	Low level of organization and participation	Strengthen collective fisheries, aquaculture and fishworkers' organizations, and leadership roles for women and youth.



## 5: Conclusions and way forward

Decent work is one of the most important issues which need to be addressed to ensure that the development of fisheries and aquaculture translates into the enhancement of livelihoods for fishers, fish farmers, and workers in fish value chains.

This scoping study has presented an overview of issues concerning the promotion of decent work in fisheries and aquaculture, based on available evidence, good practices and case studies. However, as pointed out throughout the study, data and information on the complex employment relationships and livelihood strategies in fish value chains are incomplete, and available data possibly underestimate the number of people engaged in the sector. There are specific and important data gaps concerning sex- and age-disaggregated data for the number of people working in fisheries and aquaculture, especially in small-scale operations and inland fisheries.

Fisheries and aquaculture present many decent work deficits specifically related to the characteristics of the sector, including prevailing informality, seasonality, remoteness, and hazardous nature of the work, as well as value chain complexity. The productive capacity of small-scale fishworkers in developing countries is hampered by a wide interplay of factors including inadequate knowledge and skills, lack of markets and roads, inequitable tenure rights, inappropriate resource management, overfishing pressure, climate change, unsupportive or conflicting policies, and weak political representation.

One issue which is paramount with respect to decent work in fisheries and aquaculture is the lack of a comprehensive framework of (international) regulations and guidance dedicated specifically to the sector. Some important instruments do exist, but national ratification and enforcement remain a challenge. The ILO has developed the Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No. 188), but this has not entered into force, as the required number of ratifying states has not been reached yet. It is therefore important to support states in the ratification of important international instruments.

There is also a need to address labour issues and decent work in fish processing units, be they in relation to social protection, equal distribution of benefits, or hazardous working conditions. Export markets are increasingly sensitive to these issues.

Promoting productive and profitable employment in the sector is essential. This requires greater coherence between employment policies on the one side, and fisheries and aquaculture policies on the other, to foster employment and enterprise development. Increasing the visibility of small-scale fishers, fish farmers and fish processors through better national and international statistics on employment in the sectors is an essential element for enabling better informed decision-making. Practical interventions should focus on the creation of sustainable and inclusive value chains, with a particular focus on small-scale operators, women and youth. To tap the full employment and productivity potential of the fisheries and aquaculture sector, access should be made available to tailor-made services, markets and trainings. To decrease overcapacity in the fishing sector, appropriate alternative and complementary employment opportunities should be sought.

Decreasing the vulnerability of the operators to economic, environmental and social shocks is also a compelling need. Social protection systems that provide access to basic social services for fishworkers and their families should be extended to include formal and informal employees. Furthermore, safety and health measures should be improved and implemented based on an assessment of occupational safety and health needs at the workplace, in transportation and distribution, in households, etc.

The rights of fishworkers to organize, bargain collectively, and participate in fisheries and aquaculture planning, development and management of the pre-harvest, harvest and post-harvest operations should be recognized. Supporting self-organized, local professional organizations and cooperatives is also beneficial to the integration of small-scale operators in fisheries and aquaculture value chains. It also reduces their vulnerability and their political, economic and social marginalization. Particular attention needs to be paid to extending these rights to national and migrant workers.

## Way forward and possible FAO strategic areas for intervention

FAO has a critical complementary role to play in addressing the decent work deficits identified by this study, and in contributing to the effective implementation of the ILO Decent Work Agenda in rural areas. Furthermore, FAO has a track record and a comparative advantage in the fisheries and aquaculture sector, engaging with member countries, civil society organizations, and fisheries and aquaculture ministries and administrations, as well as cooperating with the ILO itself.

Social sustainability, of which decent work is an inevitable element, is at the forefront of the priorities of the FAO Blue Growth Initiative (BGI). Launched in 2013, the BGI recognizes the potential contribution of the marine and freshwater aquatic environments and resources towards global economic and social development as well as linking environmental and social sustainability. FAO's Strategic Framework 2010-2019, in particular its Strategic Objective 3 on rural poverty reduction, puts a great emphasis on granting decent rural employment opportunities and social protection to all agricultural sectors, including fisheries and aquaculture.

In conclusion, some suggested key recommendations are presented for potential FAO actions in order to support decent work in fisheries and aquaculture. They are organized in the form of a checklist for discussion and programming, but in no particular order and without presuming to be fully exhaustive.

#### Policy support and data availability

- a. Fisheries and aquaculture policies. FAO should assist its Members in the development of decent work sensitive fisheries and aquaculture policies, ensuring that social sustainability is considered together with environmental sustainability. This implies maximizing the sector's employment potential through sustainable labour policies and by targeting youth employment, labour migration and social dialogue, while also eliminating child labour, forced labour and forms of discrimination at work.
- b. **Policy coherence and institutional collaboration.** FAO should assist agriculture and fisheries authorities in their cooperation with ministries of labour, the ILO, and any other concerned actors in ensuring policy coherence and national enforcement

between fisheries and aquaculture regulatory frameworks, International Labour Standards and social policies, and broad rural development strategies that are sensitive to the characteristics of the fisheries and aquaculture sector.

- c. Providing legal advice to member countries. FAO has a role to play in supporting its Members in the analysis of laws, regulations and other regulatory frameworks to determine if they adequately address labour rights of fishers, fish farmers and fishworkers in fish value chains. FAO should also provide technical support for their revision, adaptation and implementation as necessary to ensure that employment strategies that tackle critical issues like overcapacity and seasonality in the fisheries' sector (and related social protection systems) are inclusive.
- d. Social protection. FAO should gather more evidence on the implementation and design of social protection programmes, including social assistance to reduce the risks and hazards that fisheries-dependent communities are exposed to. Enhancing access to social protection by informal fishers and fish-farmers and their communities, by expanding coverage through national social protection floor initiatives and universal social protection schemes. Ensuring that fish and fish value chains and fishing communities are fully integrated in FAO's work on social protection, and in wider UN initiatives.
- e. **SSF Guidelines implementation.** FAO should support member countries, regional fisheries organizations, and any other concerned actors in the development of regional and national implementation plans of the Voluntary Guidelines for Securing Sustainable Small-Scale Fisheries in the Context of Food Security and Poverty Eradication (SSF Guidelines) with particular attention to Chapter 6 (Social development, employment and decent work) and Cand chapter 8 (Gender equality).
- f. Data collection. FAO should assist its Members in improving data collection on employment in fisheries and aquaculture, including sex- and age- disaggregated data, type of occupations, employment status, working conditions, access to benefits, and participation in member-based organizations. This should be complemented by the development and promotion of employment/decent work indicators specific to fisheries and aquaculture in order to allow the monitoring and evaluation of the impact of programmes and policies on decent work in the sector.

#### Advice and capacity development

- g. Capacity development. FAO, together with other concerned partners, should facilitate capacity development for fisheries administrations. A coherent and integrated approach to decent work in fisheries and aquaculture implies raising awareness about the legal obligations and responsibilities of states and their governmental institutions, as well as their capacity to intervene. As these domains have traditionally fallen under the ministry of labour, the ministry of justice, and the police department, the agriculture and fisheries ministries would need capacity development to effectively contribute to and ensure sustainability.
- h. **Efficient and inclusive seafood value chains.** FAO can support the development and use of adequate technologies and practices to promote occupational safety and health in fishing, fish farming, fish processing and other post-harvest activities, in particular for women and youth. This includes capacity development, tailor-made

- extension services, and the dissemination of gender-appropriate technologies that reduce women's workload and food losses.
- i. Decent and productive youth employment. FAO should support Member Nations in the creation of sustainable employment opportunities for youth in fisheries and aquaculture communities, for example through aquaculture development projects targeting young entrepreneurs, identification of alternative or complementary employment opportunities, or through training and skills development initiatives (e.g. Junior Farmer Field and Life Schools). Public-private partnership options should also be explored involving the private sector and credit unions to provide youth with friendly access to credit, markets and business skills.
- j. Knowledge and technologies to combat the worst forms of child labour. FAO has a role to play in supporting activities that gather and disseminate knowledge on the main drivers of child labour as well as improve the uptake of technologies and practices that decrease the demand for child labour in fish, fish farming and fish processing activities. Tackling child labour in fisheries and aquaculture also entails country-level collaboration with governments and other UN agencies and initiatives that promote access to health care and schooling (e.g. school feeding programmes).
- k. Promoting stronger organizations. FAO should also continue working with aquaculture, fishers and fishworker organizations through capacity development initiatives to improve organizational capacity, internal communication, and leadership skills, in particular for women. Organized and functioning organizations reduce their members' vulnerability, increase their bargaining power, and enable their participation in policy dialogue processes.
- I. Reducing distress labour migration in fisheries. FAO should continue gathering and disseminating knowledge on the driving forces and dynamics related to migration and fisheries, remittances, and livelihood effects. It should promote best practices exchanges on seasonal migration in fisheries; collaborate with other partners to promote regular migration (e.g. through seasonal employment schemes); and collaborate with relevant organization to sensitize migrants by providing predeparture information.

#### Advocacy, communication and partnership

- m. Multi-actors policy dialogue. FAO should support participatory processes with all relevant stakeholders, including civil society organizations, the private sector, and workers' unions, through awareness raising and consensus building activities in relation to decent work in the fisheries and aquaculture sector. FAO could serve as a impartial forum to share best practices and discuss issues affecting the global seafood supply chain.
- n. Knowledge generation and dissemination. FAO should support the participatory development and dissemination of data and information through policy briefs, infographics, press releases, etc., to create awareness among various stakeholders, policy-makers and the public sector.
- o. **Building partnerships.** FAO should enhance partnerships on specific issues such as child labour, forced labour in the fisheries sector. This includes working in

collaboration with other UN specialized agencies and other actors, in particular the ILO and the IMO, to improve safety and health and training of fishers; and reinforcing the International Partnership for Cooperation on Child Labour in Agriculture to provide multidisciplinary technical advice to member countries on the elimination of child labour in fisheries and aquaculture. It also includes continuing to collaborate with civil society organizations, sectoral institutions, and workers' and employers' organizations to enhance dialogue and exchange for the promotion of decent work as well as participation in policy processes.

p. Advocating for the elimination of severe forms of labour exploitation. In partnership with concerned actors, FAO has a role to play in raising awareness among fisheries administrations and departments on severe labour exploitation in the fisheries and aquaculture sector, including forced labour, human trafficking, and the worst forms of child labour. This area of work is also closely connected to FAO's efforts on combating, preventing and deterring IUU fishing; promoting the national enforcement of the Port State Measures Agreement (PSMA); and promoting safety at sea for fishers.

Finally, access to decent working conditions represents above all a human right for all fishworkers, including fishers, fish farmers and fish processors, as a means to live decent lives. The growth of decent employment opportunities is increasingly recognized as an integral and essential condition of sustainable development. The 2030 Agenda development agenda includes a sustainable development goal dedicated to "...economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all". 124 The 2015 International Conference on Financing for Development in Addis Ababa committed governments to "generating full and productive employment and decent work for all, and promoting micro-, small and medium enterprises". 125 Nowadays, decent work can be seen as a key intrinsic element of sustainability, trade, and governance ethics.

Providing guidance to policy-makers and those responsible for the development and implementation of relevant policies, as well as to the private sector, is therefore considered critical. FAO, in close cooperation with organizations like the ILO, is addressing decent employment issues in fisheries and aquaculture at global, regional and national levels. FAO's efforts in this field also include partnerships with governments, industry, civil society, and research and academia, as well as interested donor communities. This scoping study has identified key areas for possible FAO action in regard to policy support and data availability, advice and capacity development, advocacy, communication, and partnership.

<sup>124</sup> UN. 2015. Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Available at: www.un.org/ga/search/view\_doc.asp?symbol=A/ RES/70/1&Lang=E

<sup>125</sup> Addis Ababa Action Agenda (available at http://www.un.org/esa/ffd/ffd3/wp-content/uploads/sites/2/2015/07/Addis-Ababa-Action-Agenda-Draft-Outcome-Document-7-July-2015.pdf).



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## **Annexes**

### **Annex 1: Good practices**

This section provides a preliminary compilation of good or promising practices and interesting ongoing efforts (including those that have not yet been assessed for impact) to address some of the decent work deficits in fisheries and aquaculture raised in the previous chapters of the study. The compilation follows the structure of the study, with the good practices articulated under the four pillars of the ILO Decent Work Agenda.

#### Pillar 1: Employment creation and enterprise development

#### Developments in policy and regulatory frameworks

- Cambodia, addressing child labour in fisheries and aquaculture policy. The Government of Cambodia provides an example of success in mainstreaming child labour issues in fisheries and aquaculture policy. The Fisheries Administration (part of the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries) with support from the ILO and FAO, and in collaboration with the Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training, fisheries producers' organizations, workers' organizations and other key national institutions, started a process in October 2011 to enhance awareness and capacity on child labour and its worst forms. This culminated a few months later in the National Consultation to Combat Child Labour in the Fisheries Sector, 126 which focused on the identification of appropriate strategies and areas of action. The consultation elaborated a draft National Plan of Action (NPA) on Eliminating Child Labour in the Fisheries Sector of Cambodia. This draft NPA was officially endorsed by the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, and is in line with both Cambodia's Strategic Planning Framework for Fisheries 2010-19 and the National Plan of Action on child labour. It outlines the specific steps and overall strategy to be followed (including specific responsibilities) by national stakeholders to address child labour in the fisheries and aquaculture sector. The government has also included child labour elimination targets in fishing communities as part of the ten-year Strategic Planning Framework for Fisheries, and incorporated child labour issues in the Cambodia Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries (CAMCODE). The next steps include the development of an NPA to address gender and child labour in fisheries and aquaculture (FAO/ILO, 2013).
- Thailand, good labour practices at the industry level in the shrimp, seafood and fishing industry. These practices were developed in the framework of the ILO/IPEC programme and promoted through the National Policy in Promoting Better Working Conditions in Fisheries and Seafood Processing Industry in Thailand. This programme aims at improving labour practices in the industry in fishing, aquaculture farms, primary processing, and processing and packing factories through the establishment of industry-wide labour guidelines and capacity building for the main stakeholders. The programme developed four sets of good labour practice guidelines on primary processing workplaces, processing factories, shrimp farms and fishing vessels. It also supported the implementation of good labour practices through training of trainers as

 $<sup>126 \</sup>quad \text{See more at http://www.ilo.org/ipec/Events/WCMS\_173459/lang--en/index.htm.} \\$ 

well as a training improvement programme. This resulted in 81 primary processing workplaces; hazardous work lists for the shrimp, seafood and fishing industry; and improved labour inspections (Prompoj, 2014).

#### Improving the governance of aquaculture labour

FAO has recently developed a study (Hishamunda et al., 2014) to improve the governance of aquaculture labour, which is a precondition to achieving decent work in the sector.<sup>127</sup> It provides recommendations to improve governance of aquaculture labour based on four general principles: accountability (including monitoring and enforcement of labour regulations, and appropriate penalties); effectiveness and efficiency (regulations that are cost-effective and enforceable); equity (intergenerational and intragenerational, applied in procedures for hiring, remuneration and gender equity); and predictability (fair and consistent application of laws and regulations). The recommendations are as follows:

- Improving monitoring and enforcement: in many countries the main challenge lies
  with the implementation of existing labour laws and regulations, especially because in
  some situations, such as offshore salmon aquaculture, monitoring and enforcement of
  regulations require specific funding, equipment and training.
- Licence withdrawal: as penalties (fines) for non-compliance with labour regulations
  are often not onerous enough to act as a deterrent for large-scale operations, revoking
  licences of repeat offenders would signal that authorities are serious about labour
  conditions in aquaculture.
- Site leases: lease costs and conditions should reflect the full value of resources being
  used as well as any negative externality of a given aquaculture operation. Leases
  should not be granted in perpetuity; high lease costs and renewal on condition of
  good behaviour would encourage producers to comply with labour and environmental
  regulations, and also generate revenue.
- Limiting ownership size: industrial concentration, which occurs because of economies
  of scale in production and marketing, may have negative effects on the local labour
  market. Indeed, if there is a single large producer in a local area it can have a
  monopsony power in the labour market, thus reducing the capacity of workers to
  negotiate and obtain fair wages.<sup>128</sup>

#### Enhancing decent work for youth in fisheries and aquaculture

Because of the increasing rate of unemployment among youth, enhancing opportunities to promote access to decent work opportunities in fisheries and aquaculture is a policy priority. However, the issue is very complex, requiring complex interventions that address multiple factors, including those affecting labour supply and demand. For example, youth need their human capital strengthened with education and skills that are appropriate for fisheries and aquaculture, through:

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· scholarships for long-term education, to address the shortage of expertise and skills

<sup>127</sup> Available at http://www.fao.org/publications/card/fr/c/64571e00-adb1-409a-9dfe-22ffdd5c70a3/.

<sup>128</sup> Ibid

<sup>129</sup> Some of the points below draw on the recommendation of the paper by Nabafu (2013).

(e.g. for becoming fisheries extension workers, water quality monitors and fish feed formulators);

- short trainings, demonstrations and field internships, to equip youth with practical skills on sustainable fishing or aquaculture practices;
- sharing stories of successful youth experiences, to motivate other youth to join or continue engaging in the sector;
- awards and recognition to youth who have made outstanding contributions towards development of the sector, thus attracting attention to role models and motivating others to be innovative;
- networking, to share experiences with peers and identify common solutions.

Entering the job market and starting up fish farms or service enterprises could be facilitated, for example, through:

- financial support and subsidies, including special grants or loans, to help establish or develop business in fisheries and aquaculture. These can take the form of subsidies for inputs and materials such as fishing boats, fishing gear, and fish feed and seed.
- technologies that are feasible, sustainable and easy to adopt. In remote areas it is
  especially important to use locally sourced inputs and materials, and also to ensure
  that maintenance can be carried out easily and at low cost. Research and sharing of
  good practices is important for generating knowledge on adequate technology.

Emerging employment opportunities for youth in the sector may lie especially in the development of aquaculture (in the countries where it still has margins for growth), and in the post-harvest and processing stages of fisheries value chains. For aquaculture, some of the activities for which there could be market demand are: provision of farm inputs, including fish meal; aquaculture extension services; fish farming, processing and marketing; and supporting small-scale farmers in accessing markets.

Specific attention needs to be devoted to making education and vocational training relevant and accessible for youth wishing to work in fisheries and aquaculture, as well as encouraging youth to enter the sector if there are prospects for growth. The very successful FAO Junior Farmer Field and Life Schools (JFFLS)<sup>130</sup> approach – which has been used in a number of countries in agriculture - can also be used in fish farming, capture fisheries and post-harvest activities in fisheries and aquaculture. The JFFLS approach combines agricultural and life skills. Specifically trained extension workers, teachers and social animators use a participatory methodology to pass on agricultural knowledge and life skills to adolescent boys and girls. Establishing a JFFLS requires the engagement of different ministries (such as education, labour, agriculture and trade) as well as farmers' and other stakeholders' organizations, unions and youth associations, as this is important for ensuring sustainability and institutionalization. The field schools normally have a duration of one school year. Specific modules on aquaculture, capture fisheries and post-harvest activities in fisheries and aquaculture<sup>131</sup> have recently been developed by FAO so that the participants can learn about the various employment and business opportunities in fish value chains. Participants learn about the different

<sup>130</sup> JFFLS guides are available at www.fao-ilo.org/?id=20904.

<sup>131</sup> For more information on the JFFLS modules, see the facilitators' guide for capture fisheries, post-harvest activities and aquaculture.

types of aquaculture, capture fisheries and processing techniques through small group discussions, hands-on tasks, and demonstrations. Participants also learn about the importance of preliminary planning and management of daily activities and procedures to ensure a successful business in fish value chains, together with consideration for sustainable use and management of the fishery resource.

Facilitators can use, as applicable, the specific socio-economic and cultural contexts and needs of each target group and country in which the module is used, and adapt them as necessary. These JFFLS modules complement each other and other general JFFLS modules as well, and can be combined with them to enhance economic opportunities.

#### User-friendly fish processing technology

Technology innovations in fish processing and marketing can address productivity, quality and working conditions. The following are recent examples of particular interest:<sup>132</sup>

In Africa, the FAO-Thiaroye processing technique (FTT)<sup>133</sup> is a dual processing–smoking and mechanical drying technique (FAO, 2011a).<sup>134</sup> In smoking, it addresses some of the limitations of existing ovens (including improved kilns such as the Chorkor oven) by adding some devices for more fuel efficiency, improved product quality and safety, and enhanced OSH and labour productivity. The advantages of the FTT-Thiaroye technique are as follows:

- Consumption of fuelwood is significantly reduced by adding stones and allowing the
  use of other types of fuel (like coconut husks and shells, maize husks, and others),
  thus respecting the environment and reducing costs.
- Exposure of workers to smoke, heat and burns is reduced.
- The FTT saves time spent processing, and as such its outputs can be relatively higher.
   It can allow processing irrespective of weather conditions (operations can take place also in the rainy season or during cloudy periods).
- The FTT helps reduce post-harvest losses including downstream processing. It can also serve as a storage unit.
- Importantly, the FTT can control polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), which are
  food contaminants intimately linked to processing conditions. International food safety
  requirements involving compliance with PAH limits are controlled for exported fish.
  Therefore, keeping PAH levels at a minimum is important to access export markets,
  and also to meet safety objectives of food consumed domestically.
- Adoption of the FTT-Thiaroye technique can also promote employment opportunities in its manufacturing and maintenance at the community level.

Another improvement in post-harvest fisheries technology, piloted by FAO in Burundi in 2004, <sup>135</sup> is rack drying. This processing technique addresses the limitation of traditional fish drying, which is done on bare ground and is subject to substantial post-harvest losses

<sup>132</sup> The information provided in this section was extracted from an interview with Yvette Diei, Fishery Industry Officer, FAO.

<sup>133</sup> For more detail on the FTT-Thiaroye technique, see the video produced by FAO available at: http://www.fao.org/news/audio-video/detail-video/it/c/10566/?uid=10566.

<sup>134</sup> See more at http://www.fao.org/docrep/017/i3093b/i3093b.pdf, pp. 53-70.

<sup>135</sup> The rack drying technique was piloted through the FAO Technical Cooperation Project "Support to post-harvest fish technologies" (TCP/BDI/2903), February 2004 – October 2005.



(10-15 percent) during processing, as well as hygienic and taste alterations to the product. The technology is simple, and can be manufactured and maintained locally, using locally available materials. Its adoption following piloting in the Mvugo fisheries community (Lake Tanganyika) has resulted in:

- about a 50 percent decrease in post-harvest losses, a better quality product for consumers, and more than double the price (and income) for producers and processors - thanks to consumers' willingness to a pay premium price as they gained greater confidence in better quality dried fish products;
- an increase in the number of people (mainly women) working as fish processors, from 500 using sand drying in 2004 to 2 500 directly involved in rack drying in 2012;
- an increase in dried fish availability and quality, with a longer shelf life, which means
  that it can be marketed to more distance places, even those located far from fishing
  centres.

In Asia, improved handling in the cold chain, processing and packaging of milkfish in Indonesia increased value addition to its production. However, the introduction of better technology required capacity building, including that targeted specifically at women's groups. This has created new job opportunities, including some in processing, with benefits in terms of nutrition (having increased fish food consumption) and food safety and quality. Now milkfish is available in fast food restaurants in Indonesia (Kurien, 2010).



#### Pillar 2: Social protection

#### Social protection

Social protection is increasingly recognized as an important component of policies for the development of agriculture (including fisheries and aquaculture) and the rural economy, not only from an equity, human rights and social justice perspective, but also because the absence of good health and social security benefits (including insurance and maternity benefits), safety nets, and other social protection interventions - and therefore the lack of protection against vulnerability and shocks - impacts negatively on fisheries production. Limited access to social protection affects fishworkers not only directly (for example, when they are ill or injured) but also indirectly, as these functions are taken on by individuals, families and communities (for example, when they need to devote time to caring for the aged or sick, to spend money on medical or funeral expenses, or to survive the death of the main family provider). While social welfare benefits are often available to formal workers in fish value chains (in fleets or factories), the majority of men and women engaged in small-scale fisheries are unprotected (Dey de Pryck, 2013). Recent efforts on the part of the UN Social Protection Floor Initiative 136 move in the direction of providing a minimum set of social protection measures for all (independent of their employment status), and of extending the social welfare system to informal sector workers, including fishworkers.

The new FAO approach to social protection as a way of achieving food security highlights the following roles of social protection (FAO, 2013a):

- Providing support to the poor in terms of income support (direct transfers or wages from public works) and access to food, which can help overcome some of the immediate constraints, including food security;
- Helping the vulnerable manage risk, by providing insurance or unemployment coverage;
- Promoting human capital formation and accumulation, through support to nutrition and education, education policies, and basic health care;
- Overcoming liquidity constraints and promoting multiplier effects in the local economy, through investments by the beneficiaries and support for local goods;
- Promoting sustainable management and upgrading of natural resources, for example through public works programmes, which may increase productivity of agriculture.

The ILO World Social Protection Report (ILO, 2014f) reported on the expansion of coverage of unemployment insurance schemes to cover workers at the margins of the formal economy. For example, Tunisia improved pension coverage for domestic workers, farmers, fishers, the self-employed, and other low-income groups in 2002. This increased the proportion of pension beneficiaries among people aged 60 and over from 33.9 percent in 2000 to 68.8 percent in 2006. Sri Lanka has a voluntary social security scheme, the Fishermen's Pension and Social Security Benefit Scheme, which is voluntary and provides either lump sum or periodic benefits. Brazil's social protection system is considered a good example in terms of breadth of coverage, gender equity and social redistribution. Besides wage workers, the unemployment insurance scheme now also covers small-

<sup>136</sup> See the Social Protection Floor Initiative at http://www.socialprotectionfloor-gateway.org/.

scale fishermen and workers rescued from forced labour. However, extension of social protection systems often faces challenges in its implementation, especially with regard to gender-equitable access, as pointed out by FAO (Dey de Pryck, 2013):

- In Brazil's Pará State, for example, where 11 percent of the artisanal fishers are women, most fishers qualify for the "special insured" category where they are entitled to noncontributory welfare benefits (pension, sickness, maternity, disability, and work-related accident benefits). They are also entitled to social unemployment insurance while the fishing season is closed. Since 1991, women fishworkers have been entitled to these benefits as spouses or as fishers in their own right, but often their worker status is not recognized because they lack documentation, or because their documentation gives their occupation as "housewife" (despite their work in fisheries). Fisher organizations are increasingly raising awareness of these rights among both men and women members, by helping them acquire the necessary papers, deal with the bureaucracy, and fight discrimination against fishworkers, especially female fishers (often considered low-status workers). As membership in a professional fisheries association is a criterion of eligibility for social security benefits, and the leaders of the municipal colônias can decide whether to accept women as members or only as their husbands' dependents, it is vital that women obtain these papers and register as colônia members (Dey de Pryck, 2013).
- India also provides an example of a good practice with its National Welfare Scheme for Fishers, initially launched by the Ministry of Agriculture in 1992/1993 with three components: the Group Accident Insurance Scheme, Development of Model Fishermen Villages, and the Saving-cum-Relief (SCR) Programme. A fourth component on Training and Extension was added in 2009/2010. The SCR scheme (in which Rs1 800 contributed equally by the state, the central government and the fisher are provided as subsistence during the three-month monsoon closed season) has been extended to women fishers in some states, while women in other states are demanding the scheme be extended to them. In many states however, women fish processors and vendors are not given official identity cards that give them access to welfare schemes such as SCR, insurance and old-age pensions (Dey de Pryck, 2013).

#### Occupational safety and health: workplace risk assessment

Workplace risk assessments are a good practice methodology in occupational safety and health promotion. These assessments help to understand existing hazards and risks in a specific workplace, and to take measures to eliminate or mitigate these risks. While a "hazard" is anything with the potential to do harm, a "risk" is the likelihood of potential harm if that hazard is realized (IPEC, 2011a). The following text is adapted from the FAO-ILO Guidance on addressing child labour in fisheries and aquaculture (FAO/ILO, 2013), based on other guidance materials developed previously by the ILO. It identifies how to carry out risk assessments in fisheries workspaces:

A risk assessment consists of three main steps: (i) identifying the hazards, (ii) evaluating the risks, and (iii) introducing safety and health measures:

First, identify the hazard(s), defined as the potential to cause harm. Hazards can
include bad weather, machinery, tools, transport, processes, and substances (for
example, chemicals, dust, noise and disease). The aim is to spot hazards that could
result in harm to those working, identify dangerous work activities and processes, and

determine how many workers are at risk for each hazardous activity, along with their age and sex.

- Second, evaluate the nature and level of risk for each hazard identified (different risk reduction measures are required for each hazard).
- Finally, identify the safety and health measures to implement for each hazard in order
  to prevent or reduce the risk of fatalities, injury or illness. The following categories of
  measures should be applied in ascending order, moving on to the next category only
  when measures in previous categories are not feasible, or are insufficient:
- 1. <u>Eliminating the risk</u> always the best solution. For example, do not allow fishing in certain kinds of weather.
- 2. <u>Substituting technology to reduce risk</u> the next best risk reduction option. For example, substitute a toxic chemical used in aquaculture with a less toxic one.
- 3. <u>Introducing new or additional technology</u> potentially effective for reducing the risk if elimination and substitution are not feasible. For example, soundproof a noisy machine, install dust-extracting equipment in the boatbuilding workshop, or use a wheelbarrow or hand cart to carry heavy loads of fish or nets.
- 4. <u>Using safe work practices</u>, <u>procedures and methods</u>, <u>linked to appropriate information and training</u> appropriate for specific activities to ensure that tasks are carried out in a safe (or safer) manner. Such measures require good organization of the workplace and OSH training for workers.
- 5. <u>Providing preventive health measures</u> to help workers not fall ill by detecting potential harm or warning signs early on when carrying out hazardous work. For example, introduce regular lung function tests for workers exposed to potentially harmful levels of dust.
- 6. Promoting utilization of personal protective equipment (PPE) never the first way to protect workers, but the last resort. While PPE to protect from hazardous substances (such as pesticides) does not guarantee the safe use of a chemical, and therefore does not change the hazardous nature of the work, other types of PPE (such as specific items of clothing) can drastically reduce the risk of hazards. For example, in fishing, especially on board vessels, the availability and use of personal flotation devices or selfinflating working life jackets constitutes a basic requirement that dramatically reduces the risk of drowning. PPE should be provided in addition to other safety and health measures; it must be of good quality to provide genuine safety and health protection. It is also important to provide training on the proper use and maintenance of PPE.

For risk assessments on fishing vessels, guidance is available in binding and voluntary instruments prepared by the ILO, IMO and FAO. In accordance with the Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No. 188), government authorities should establish the necessary framework to ensure that "fishing vessel owners, skippers, fishers and other relevant people be provided with sufficient and suitable guidance, training material, or other appropriate information on how to evaluate and manage risks to safety and health on board fishing vessels" (Article 32). Moreover, on the issue of health checks, the Work in Fishing Convention stipulates that, in general and in particular for workers on board

vessels 24 metres in length that normally remain at sea for more than three days, no fishers shall work "without a valid medical certificate attesting to fitness to perform their duties" (Article 10).

#### Pillar 3: Standards and rights at work

#### Addressing gaps in existing legislation on fishworkers' rights

The Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No. 188), supplemented by the Work in Fishing Recommendation, 2007 (No. 199), revises several existing ILO fisheries-related labour conventions, <sup>137</sup> but has not entered yet into force. It contains a number of important provisions, which could significantly improve working and living conditions of fishers and help prevent and combat forced labour and human trafficking on board fishing vessels.

The Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No. 188):

- establishes the responsibilities of fishing vessel owners and skippers for the safety of fishers on board and for the safety of the vessels (Article 8);
- sets a minimum age for work on board fishing boats and requires special protection for young fishers (Article 9);
- requires fishers to undergo periodic examinations of their medical fitness for work on fishing vessels (Articles 10-12);
- requires that fishing vessels are sufficiently and efficiently manned (crewed), are under the control of a competent skipper, and that the fishers on board are provided sufficient rest periods (Articles 13-14);
- requires fishing vessels to have a crew list, and fishers to have the protection of a signed work agreement setting out the terms of the work they are performing (Articles 15-20, and Annex II);
- entitles fishers to be repatriated when their agreements expire or for other reasons
   and prohibits making fishers pay to obtain their jobs, or blacklisting them (Articles 21-22);
- addresses how fishers are paid and ensures that they shall have the means to send money home to their families at no cost (Articles 23-24);
- sets standards for living accommodations and food on board (Articles 25-28, and Annex III);
- establishes requirements for occupational safety and health, as well as a basic level of medical care on fishing vessels (Articles 31-33);
- ensures that fishers benefit from social security protection no less favourable than that provided to other workers in their country and, at a minimum, provides protection in case of their work-related sickness, injury or death (Articles 34-39).

The Convention applies to all fishers, defined as people working on board fishing vessels. It applies to a variety of fishing vessels with the exclusion of subsistence or recreational

<sup>137</sup> The Convention and Recommendation replace a number of earlier ILO instruments (from 1920, 1959 and 1966) covering labour conditions in the fishing sector. These were considered to be outdated, no longer reflecting the modern, globalized nature of commercial fishing. Countries that have ratified the old conventions will continue to be bound by their terms until they ratify the Work in Fishing Convention.

fishing. Some requirements are more stringent for larger vessels (over 24 metres in length, or that stay over three days at sea), while some flexibilities are allowed for smaller vessels.

It is important to note that the Work in Fishing Convention is the first fishing-related convention that applies to all fishing operations, including inland fisheries (rivers, lakes or canals), but with the exception of subsistence and recreational fishing. In this Convention, subsistence fishing refers to fish caught only for subsistence or for exchange with family and friends, without payment. Therefore, subsistence fishing is intended narrowly and should not be confused with small-scale fishing (even if family-based) undertaken as an economic activity. It brings together inland and marine fishing operations (including small-scale fishing) and applies to large- and small-scale fishing vessels, open and decked, as well as fishers on board such vessels (ICSF, 2007).

The 2013 Global Dialogue Forum for the Promotion of the Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No.188) provided recommendations to work with INTERPOL and the UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) to promote the Work in Fishing Convention and to address forced labour and trafficking in fisheries (ILO, 2013c).

Together with adequate legislation, decent work requires its application and enforcement, including through labour inspection - which in the fishing sector faces numerous challenges. The example of Brazil shows how coordination can be increased between different government agencies, including the department of fisheries, and how approaches can be diversified according to the specific fishing operation (industrial-scale fishing and small-scale commercial fishing). "The Brazilian system for the inspection of fishing vessels is divided into two parts, with one part focused on industrial fishing and the other on small-scale commercial fishing. Industrial vessels are subject to inspections of minimum conditions and health and safety, whereas small fishing-vessel inspections focus on minimum conditions. However, for both parts of the system, inspections are based on planning and mapping to generate databases on the fishing fleets. In these exercises, the Ministry of Labour and Employment coordinates and exchanges information with the Ministry of Defence, the Ministry of Fisheries and the Ministry of the Environment, and also with trade unions and Non-governmental Organizations. The need for specific approaches to different operations is exemplified by the small-scale commercial fishing sector. Labour inspectors are often required to assess whether a case involves an employment relationship or a subsistence or self-employment situation that would not be subject to national labour standards" (ILO, 2010b).

# Voluntary guidelines for Securing Sustainable Small-Scale Fisheries in the Context of Food Security and Poverty Eradication (2014)

The Voluntary Guidelines for Securing Sustainable Small-Scale Fisheries in the Context of Food Security and Poverty Eradication (the SSF Guidelines), adopted in June 2014 at the 31st Session of the FAO Committee on Fisheries (COFI), represent an important development in linking fisheries with the people involved in the sector, and in recognizing the contribution of small-scale fisheries to livelihoods and food security. The SSF Guidelines provide guidance for states and stakeholders to improve governance and promote development of small-scale fisheries, together with increased awareness of their contribution to livelihoods and food security. The Guidelines address employment issues specifically in Chapter 6, "Social development, employment and decent work", and indirectly in Chapter 7, "Value chains" and Chapter 8, "Gender equality". The Guidelines

are based on a set of principles; those most closely related to employment and decent work are: 1. Human rights and dignity, 3. Non-discrimination; 5. Equity and equality; and 6. Consultation and participation; 7. Rule of law; 10. Economic, social and environmental sustainability; and 12. Social responsibility, 13. Feasibility and social and economic viability. In sum, all of the content of the SSF Guidelines is relevant for livelihoods, employment and decent work in small-scale fisheries. In particular, the Guidelines stress that small-scale fishing communities need to have secure tenure rights, and the equitable distribution of the benefits from responsibly managed fisheries along the value chain must be assured. Long-term conservation and management of fishery resources needs to be balanced with ensuring the livelihoods and food security of the people who depend on them, thus focusing on the social and economic contributions of small-scale fisheries. The Guidelines also stress the importance of participation from fishers, fishworkers and their organizations, including those representing women and post-harvest activities, in the design, planning and implementation of management systems to sustain fisheries and communities. Furthermore, the Guidelines also call for special attention to social and economic development (and preferential treatment where needed) to ensure that vulnerable or marginalized communities can have secure livelihoods in respect of their human rights, including protection from disaster and climate change risks. The importance of information and knowledge, including traditional knowledge possessed by small-scale fishing communities, and access and use of IT is recognized. Issues of forced labour and IUU fishing are also noted as very important areas for action by states. Chapter 8 (Gender equality) focuses on women's economic and social roles, and on the promotion of women fishworker organizations and their role in monitoring implementation of measures for gender equality. It also stresses the importance of developing and adopting better technology relevant and appropriate for women's work in fisheries.

The SSF Guidelines are groundbreaking in terms of social and economic recognition of small-scale fisheries as a resource; contribution to livelihoods, food security and well-being; and recognition of fishing communities as the key stakeholders who make decisions regarding their development and livelihoods. From a decent work perspective, however, the issues of child labour – only addressed in respect to the Convention on the Rights of the Child and not relevant International Labour Standards - as well as of collective bargaining and freedom of association, are left somewhat uncovered.

#### Addressing gender inequalities

Recent FAO publications (Dey de Pryck, 2013; Arenas and Lentisco, 2011; FAO, 2013c; FAO, 2012b) identify good practices to promote gender equality and equity in policies and programmes, and to enhance women's potential in fisheries and aquaculture. The starting point to address gender inequalities is to recognize that both women and men play important roles in the sector, despite the fact that it has traditionally been seen as a male domain. Sex-disaggregated data is limited, and should be collected and disseminated. Women have less access to extension and training, and often they do not occupy leadership positions or are not able to influence decision-making over the management of the fishery resource or fish value chains. These are just a few of the dimensions where gender matters in fisheries and aquaculture, and below are some interventions that can help address these issues.

Improving sex-disaggregated information: Data should be sex-disaggregated for different types and scales of fisheries systems, occupations and activities (especially to fill data

gaps in small-scale capture fisheries and aquaculture, both marine and inland), and for different stages in the value chain (from pre-harvest, to production/capture, to processing and marketing). Data should aim to understand the division of labour and existing gender inequalities in terms of conditions; pay; productivity and access to resources; contracts; access to social protection and other benefits; and participation in member-based organizations. Because collecting such a level of sex-disaggregated data is very costly, efforts should start by concentrating on ensuring that relevant sex-disaggregated indicators about women's economic empowerment in fisheries and aquaculture are collected in existing surveys, such as agricultural censuses, household surveys and labour force surveys. However, it is also very important to analyse, present and disseminate the data so that it can be understood and used widely to advocate for targeted actions to redress gender inequalities, and to promote women's and men's economic empowerment and access to decent work.

Promoting gender-sensitive extension and training: Extension and training in fisheries and aquaculture, as in other agricultural activities, is often characterized by having a majority of male trainers and extensionists, and by the fact that fewer women than men have access to the services. To address these inequalities of access as well as the relevance of training to the needs of women and men, it is important to understand the gender division of labour in activities and occupations, and to ensure that extension and training covers activities that are relevant for both women and men. Teaching styles need to be adjusted to suit different people's literacy skills and learning styles, and also the sociocultural contexts that may restrict women's ability to attend trainings. Training times and locations need to be suitable for both men and women and disrupt their work as little as possible. Ensuring that extension and training agencies recruit more women can help in facilitating communication and recognition of women's needs. It is also very important to ensure that technologies and practices being promoted address rather than reinforce gender inequalities. Common risks are that new activities or technologies may increase women's workloads without bringing economic empowerment, or that activities traditionally controlled by women may become captured by men or powerful groups once they become more valuable (owing to the introduction of better technology, for example). In any case, participation of both women and men in training processes, especially when they lead to adoption of technology or decisions on productive activities, is important for ensuring that the interests and perspectives of all are taken into account, and that decisions fit with existing roles and responsibilities at the family and community level.

Promoting gender-balanced roles in small-scale fisheries resource management: Fisheries resources are increasingly co-managed by government, resource users and other stakeholders through the establishment of co-management committees, including local government-relevant departments; organizations of fishers, processors and traders; community-based fisheries organizations; and other relevant stakeholders. However, these committees often reflect existing power relationships in the community and can lead to reinforcing the exclusion of women, migrants, and the poor from fisheries management - for example, by not recognizing secondary rights that are important for them. To ensure equitable participation of women in these committees, it is important to address the constraints women may face, such as illiteracy and weak organizational capacity. Recognizing women's roles (often in post-harvest, processing and marketing, or in shore-based fishing) as an important component of fish-based activities is a precondition to legitimizing their membership in, and leadership of, resource management organizations (Dey de Pryck, 2013).

Promoting gender-equitable access rights and control of aquatic resources and other resources (FAO, 2012a): Resources can be economic (land, aquatic resources, equipment, capital and other assets, cash, financing); social (mutual aid social networks, kinship networks); time-related (availability and control over one's own time; conflicting time requests, such as productive and reproductive work); mobility-related (the extent to which physical movement is restricted by norms and customs as well as access to transport or locations); information- or education-related (the opportunity to exchange opinions and information; access to extension and training); and personal (self-esteem, self-confidence, and the capacity to express one's own interests and opinions in private and in public) (Arenas and Lentisco, 2011).

Mainstreaming gender in fisheries and aquaculture policies and programmes: Mainstreaming gender equality in development cooperation programmes and projects is simply a case of recognizing, during their design, implementation and evaluation, that all societies assign identities, roles, responsibilities, value, and resources to people on the basis of their sex. Similarly, these assignments entail advantages and discrimination, and therefore lead to differences in the balance of power between women and men (Arenas and Lentisco, 2011). To undertake a gender analysis it is important to investigate ongoing changes in livelihoods (and related gender issues), as gender roles and divisions of labour are dynamic and respond to market and sectoral changes. Rather than focusing only on what resources men and women do or do not have, it is important to include local understandings about what women and men are able to do with those resources. Interventions should focus on addressing changes that increase the vulnerability of the men and women involved, and on seeking improvements (e.g. through changes in their lives and roles) that will ensure gender equity (World Bank, FAO and IFAD, 2007).

#### Protection of migrant workers in fishing

Migrant workers are particularly vulnerable to exploitation, poor living and working conditions, and disrespect of their labour rights. There are a range of interventions that can improve their working conditions, such as those recommended by the CSO subregional dialogue in the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) region, held in Bangkok in December 2013 (Mathew, 2014):

- Protect migrant fishers by contract or written work agreement, especially a standard contract to ensure that important clauses such as pay, hours, repatriation and duties are specified.
- Provide predeparture preparation and assistance to migrant workers. This can
  include migrant worker resource centres, requirements for recruitment agencies in
  countries of origin to comply with their regulations on recruitment, and verification and
  authentication of migrant fishers' contracts by country of origin governments.
- Update legal instruments to address migrant fishers' issues for example, by ensuring that labour law covers fishworkers and migrant workers.
- Provide access to information on employment and labour protection in fishing.

The ILO's Tripartite Action to Protect Migrant Workers from Labour Exploitation (TRIANGLE) project <sup>138</sup> strengthens recruitment and labour protection policies and practices in the Greater Mekong Subregion. The experience of the project provides

138 The GMS TRIANGLE project is a technical cooperation project supported by Australian Aid, with action in Cambodia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Malaysia, Thailand and Viet Nam. More information available at http://www.ilo.org/asia/whatwedo/projects/WCMS\_304802/lang--en/index.htm.

examples of interventions that states can introduce to improve working conditions of migrant workers - for example:

Migrant worker resource centres<sup>139</sup> in countries of origin and destination can help reduce migrants' vulnerability by facilitating access to reliable information on labour markets, support and counselling services, legal assistance and dispute resolution, education and training, and employment services. These centres can help migrants overcome language barriers and fears about discrimination from authorities or retaliation from employers. In some cases, the centres are also a way to create a peer network of migrants and to facilitate trade union membership (ILO, 2014c).

Labour attachés<sup>140</sup> are staff from the Ministry of Labour appointed to provide support to migrant workers at their consulates or embassies in countries of destination. They can provide support in job-seeking and in vetting potential employers; assisting in labour disputes, including compensation claims and legal assistance; monitoring, or coordinating with local authorities to monitor, the working conditions of migrant workers in the host country; and supporting and/or facilitating the repatriation of workers (ILO, 2014a).

Protecting migrant workers through labour inspection<sup>141</sup> in fishing requires specific actions to ensure that labour inspection and enforcement of labour laws are possible. These include: (i) targeted training and capacity building of labour inspectors to respond to specific challenges faced when inspecting fishing vessels, together with protocols to follow when cases of forced labour and child labour are uncovered; and (ii) establishment of multisectoral units, including the ministry of labour, the department of fisheries, and the marine police (among others), to inspect vessels while at sea (as implemented in Brazil and Thailand) (ILO, 2014d).

In terms of provision of support services, the principal good practices (and gaps) in a recent ILO study on Cambodia, Indonesia, the Philippines and Viet Nam are presented in Table 6.142

It is important to stress that the Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No. 188) establishes minimum standards that fishers should expect and that fishing vessel owners should follow. Its ratification and implementation therefore will provide a common legal framework for protection of all workers, including migrants.

#### Pillar 4: Governance and social dialogue

#### Organization of fishers, fish farmers, fishworkers and employers, and other institutions

Fisheries organizations, including local organizations of fishers, fish farmers, fishworkers, employers and other sectoral institutions, are an important means to provide a voice for the interests of fishing and fish farming communities, as well as those of fishworkers in the processing sector and other post-harvest activities. These organizations can be instrumental in overcoming some of the constraints that small-scale producers experience in the value chain, such as limited bargaining capacity and access to services; access to input and output markets; economies of scale in processing; information; networks and capital; and enforcement of sustainable fisheries resource management. Therefore, strengthening the capacity of these organizations is an important component of any fishing, fish farming and fish processing development programme.

<sup>139</sup> More information on migrant worker resource centres available at http://www.ilo.org/asia/areas/WCMS\_234459/lang--en/index.htm.

<sup>140</sup> More information on the role of labour attachés in the protection of migrant workers is available at http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/--ro-bangkok/documents/genericdocument/wcms\_249588.pdf.

<sup>141</sup> More information on labour inspection and migrant fishworkers is available at http://www.ilo.org/asia/areas/WCMS\_249418/lang--en/index.htm.

<sup>142</sup> Extracted from Shen (2013).

Enhancing women's role in these organizations is also a way to strengthen women's position in fish value chains and to address some of the existing gender imbalances. Some of the measures that have proven successful in overcoming gender imbalances in these organizations are:

- quotas for women in membership and decision-making positions in fishery organizations;
- gender-sensitive training in management and leadership skills and negotiation techniques;
- awareness raising among men and women of gender equity issues and their respective labour rights;
- remedial education, literacy and numeracy training given in gender-sensitive ways, as
  women are more likely to have dropped out of or not attended school, and may have
  different learning aptitudes from those of men;
- training in environmental and product quality regulations and trade requirements (for example, the use of antibiotics in aquaculture), and in aquatic animal health (Dey de Pryck, 2013, p. 57).

Fish farmer associations have an important role to play in many important areas, such as:

- · ensuring participation and consultation of all stakeholders in the planning,
- development and management of aquaculture, including the promotion of codes of practice and good management practices;
- promoting appropriate and efficient use of resources, including water, sites, seed stock and other inputs;
- building capacity through training, technology transfer and the provision of and access to information;
- promoting and implementing voluntary self-regulatory mechanisms for implementing best practices.

However, they can fulfil their role best when they are strong enough to be independent from political pressures (Hough and Bueno, 2003).

Other critical aspects of stakeholder involvement in aquaculture policy-making, planning and management include: the institutional capacity of stakeholder organizations; legitimacy of the organizations and process; costs of stakeholder involvement; degree of stakeholder competition; and the level(s) at which stakeholders are involved (Sevaly, 2001).

An approach that has proven successful, especially in Asia, in establishing and running fish farmers' organizations to support collective action among small-scale aquaculture producers is "cluster management". Cluster management refers to a group of aquaculture farmers who collectively implement certain production standards and better management

practices (BMPs). This approach can be an effective tool for improving aquaculture governance and management in the small-scale farming sector, enabling farmers to work together; improve production; develop economies of scale and knowledge to participate in value chains; increase their ability to join certification schemes; improve their reliability of production; and reduce risks, such as vulnerability to disease (Kassam, Subasinghe and Phillips, 2011).

Cooperatives can also be instrumental in overcoming limitations connected to the small scale of operations, in protecting them from economic and natural shocks, and in providing additional services (financial, social and economic) to members.

However, not all cooperatives have succeeded in achieving these objectives. Strong leadership and clear rules about membership have proven to be important factors for success in collective decision-making towards a common goal (FAO/IFAD, 2012). Institutional responses and enabling legislation can support cooperatives' evolution from other forms of community association. Financial resources, profitability and the availability of sufficient funds for investment and working capital are fundamental for economic sustainability. This includes adequate infrastructure, services and equipment, and good financial management - including regular bookkeeping, allowances for depreciation and replacement of equipment, and accountability. Cooperatives also need: the ability to negotiate pricing agreements; a strategy for diversifying markets; the capacity to buy all their members' production, regardless of quantity or market situation; management plans for coping with oversupply (such as by storing and processing products); a collective agreement that discourages the sale of fish outside the cooperative; and little or no competition from intermediaries (FAO/IFAD, 2012). Examples from Mexico and Brazil highlight the important role cooperatives can play in sustainable management of the fishery resource, by agreeing on and monitoring fishing practices among members and negotiating better prices with buyers of fish produce (FAO/IFAD, 2012).

#### Organizations of fishworkers and collective bargaining in fisheries

Only 1 percent of workers in fish value chains are unionized. Globally, the International Union of Food, Agricultural, Hotel, Restaurant, Catering, Tobacco and Allied Workers Associations (IUF) represents aquaculture and fish processing workers, while the primary area of responsibility of the International Transport Workers' Federation (ITF) is the protection of workers in the ocean and sea waters - therefore making it the primary global union federation concerned with conditions of work on board fishing vessels. In integrated value chains, and in the case of transnational companies, these two types of operations are linked together.

The ITF has developed a guide on the Work in Fishing Convention for unions as well as a model collective bargaining agreement for the crew of fishing vessels. As a result of the ITF-IUF collaboration, the programme "From catcher to counter" was established. This programme addresses the fishing industry as a whole, targeting both fishers and fishworkers and aiming to: increase union membership, strengthen unions, standardize conditions across multinational companies, improve terms of work, guarantee minimum working conditions, put workers at the centre of the campaigns, and ensure that fishing is legal, regulated and reported.<sup>143</sup> The programme is an example of representative organizations of fishers and fishworkers working together at the international level. Particularly successful is the case of action in Papua New Guinea, with a sector characterized by large-scale fishing and fish processing operations that are structured as integrated companies and totally self-reliant on the sourcing and processing of fish. A few years of on-the-ground work resulted in the unionization of more than 5 000 workers, in spite of sharp resistance from the employers. The programme team has led eight company campaigns, trained dozens of union representatives and opened bargaining negotiations in four companies, including negotiations for minimum wage, paying conditions. 144

# Opportunities presented by codes of conduct, better management practices (BMPs), multistakeholder initiatives and other private sector initiatives

Soft law voluntary instruments including codes of conduct (COC), codes of practice (COP), better management practices (BMPs) and good agricultural practices (GAPs), as well as certification/product labelling schemes, are increasingly being developed by the private sector, governments, NGOs and academia to improve compliance with environmental and social standards and legislation, and furthermore to provide significant market signals to reassure consumers on the environmental sustainability, social sustainability, and food safety of products (and production processes), including in fisheries and aquaculture (Ababouch, 2012; Washington and Ababouch, 2011). While a comprehensive assessment of these initiatives is beyond the scope of this study, we go into some detail below on the approach to labour issues of two of the major certification and labelling schemes in aquaculture: the Global Social Compliance Programme (GSCP), the Aquaculture Stewardship Council (ASC) and the Best Aquaculture Practices (BAP) programme. They provide examples of the roles these initiatives can play in promoting decent working conditions across the sector.<sup>145</sup>

The Global Social Compliance Programme (GSCP) is a business-driven programme created by global buying companies to improve consistency among private voluntary

 $<sup>143 \</sup>quad \text{From the ITF website: http://www.itfglobal.org/en/transport-sectors/fisheries/in-focus/catcher-to-counter/.} \\$ 

<sup>144</sup> Extracted from the IUF website: http://www.iuf.org.

<sup>145</sup> For additional information about examples on seafood certifications, refer to Trafficked II: An updated summary of Human rights abuses in the seafood industry, carried out by FishWise (available at https://www.fishwise.org/images/pdfs/Trafficked\_II\_FishWise\_2014.pdf).

standards and codes, aiming at ensuring sustainability (social and environmental) in global supply chains.  $^{146}$ 

The Aquaculture Stewardship Council (ASC) - an independent not-for-profit organization - aims to be the world's leading certification and labelling programme for responsibly farmed seafood, based on the global standards for responsible aquaculture that were developed by the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) Aquaculture Dialogues.147 The ASC addresses labour issues through its 7th principle:

"Social responsibility for workers and communities impacted by farming (e.g. no child labour, health and safety of workers, freedom of association, community relations)" (ASC, 2014). There are eight global standards that define responsible farming for 12 different types of fish and shellfish: salmon, shrimp, tilapia, trout, pangasius, abalone, mussels, clams, oysters, scallops, cobia and seriola. As an example, Box 8 analyses the ASC Tilapia Standard in some detail to show how it addresses social and labour issues.

#### Box 8. Labour issues in the ASC Tilapia Standard

The ASC Tilapia Standard includes clauses on social and labour issues under its 7th principle, "Be socially responsible". The principle includes labour and community requirements among its criteria: child labour; forced and compulsory labour; discrimination at work; OSH; wages, overtime and working hours; freedom of association and collective bargaining; disciplinary actions; action response plans and policies; living conditions for employees and community interaction. It is therefore very comprehensive. The labour criteria make specific reference to ILO standards and national legislation; however, in some instances the indicators could be more specific, as in the case of OSH where no checks are made on the availability, status and use of personal protective equipment.

The community criteria aim to ensure that fish farms do not negatively impact on access to resources by other community members, and that potential conflicts over use and management of resources can be solved through agreed mechanisms.

Source: ASC Tilapia Standard, Version 1.0 Jan 2012 and ASC Audit Manual–Tilapia Manual, Version 1.1 July 2014  $^{148}$ .

The Global Aquaculture Alliance coordinates the development of Best Aquaculture Practices (BAP) certification standards for hatcheries, farms, processing facilities and feed mills, which drive continued improvements. The BAP standards cover aquaculture facilities for a variety of fish and crustacean species, as well as mussels. <sup>149</sup> These standards address labour issues in a rather general way (see more in Box 9).

<sup>146</sup> See more at http://www.gscpnet.com/http://www.gscpnet.com/.

<sup>147</sup> See more at http://www.asc-agua.org/.

<sup>148</sup> Available at http://www.asc-aqua.org/index.cfm?act=tekst.item&iid=6&iids=290&lng=1.

<sup>149</sup> See http://www.gaalliance.org/bap.

In both the ASC and BAP cases, the main role of these private voluntary standards is to complement enforcement of existing labour legislation, as they generally do not prescribe labour conditions beyond or better than what is mandatory at the national level. However, in a situation in which labour inspection does not have the capacity (because of the insufficient number of labour inspectors, remoteness of the farms, or insufficient technical capacity to assess labour conditions in aquaculture) or mandate (in the instances where aquaculture, like other agriculture activities, is a sector excluded by labour legislation or by labour inspection) to inspect fish farms, adherence to these private voluntary standards may contribute to avoiding labour rights violations in specific member fish farms and value chains.

Overall, however, there are very limited in-depth impact assessments of the role of private voluntary standards in improving working conditions in supply chains, and none specific to fisheries and aquaculture. Available evidence points to positive impacts on improving OSH, reduction of unreasonable overtime, and the payment of minimum wages, while there are weaker impacts with respect to rights-based and equity issues (such as freedom of association and gender equality), and on the application of these standards to vulnerable segments of the workforce, such as casual and contract workers (Newitt, 2013). The main criticism of the proliferation of private voluntary standards, however, is that they tend to pre-empt the role that national governments must play in implementation and enforcement of labour legislation to protect all workers, with the possible result of widening the gap between workers in global supply chains and workers in operations not

#### **Box 9. Labour issues in BAP standards**

BAP-finfish and crustaceans, BAP-salmon, BAP-mussels and BAP-shrimp hatcheries standards under their standard 3 ("Community"), address issues of worker safety and employee relations. These standards mention similar provisions, including that farms shall comply with local and national labour laws to assure adequate worker safety, compensation and - where applicable - on-site living conditions. While the principles are generally agreeable, the BAP programme could have gone beyond prescribing compliance with national and labour laws, which is already mandatory. It therefore does not add much to existing national legislation in terms of ensuring additional protection of labour rights or workers' welfare.

linked to export markets that require respect of specific markets.

Other standards such as the Marine Stewardship Council (MSC) standard for fisheries do not address labour issues, concentrating instead on sustainable fish stocks, minimizing environmental impact, and effective management.<sup>150</sup>

In recent years, COFI has advised FAO to develop guidelines for the ecolabelling of fish and fishery products from marine capture fisheries; however, these do not address social clauses. A follow-up action could be to review whether applying ISEAL Alliance<sup>151</sup>

<sup>150</sup> See http://www.msc.org/about-us/standards/fisheries-standard/msc-environmental-standard-for-sustainable-fishing.

<sup>151</sup> The International Social and Environmental Accreditation and Labelling Alliance is the global association for sustainability standards, whose Codes of Good Practice are seen as global references for developing credible standards. ISEAL is a Non-governmental Organization whose mission is to strengthen sustainability standards systems for the benefit of people and the environment (see http://www.isealalliance.org/).

and GSCP  $^{152}$  criteria in fisheries and aquaculture could bring benefits in terms of the promotion of decent work in fish-based value chains.

In aquaculture, a notable private sector code is that implemented by Lake Harvest, the largest aquaculture company in Africa, based on Lake Kariba in Zimbabwe. However, no detailed impact assessment has been carried out on the improvement of working conditions since the adoption of the standard - although FAO has conducted a case study on the company (Hishamunda et al., 2014).

Fair trade initiatives have only recently started certifying fisheries and aquaculture products. For example, Fair Trade USA has recently launched a standard for capture fisheries.<sup>154</sup>

Slow Food, an international cultural movement to rediscover the pleasure of eating well, has been working for many years in the field of sustainable fish through the campaign Slow Fish. This campaign raises awareness on sustainable practices in fish value chains through the biennial Slow Fish fair in Genoa, and by developing projects to support responsible artisanal fishing communities around the world. Although Slow Fish is not directly involved with labour issues, the ethos of the campaign is to promote and defend small-scale sustainable fishing and fish processing undertakings by creating awareness of their value added and by promoting social responsibility.

Other private sector initiatives include the initiative of the Bangladesh Shrimp and Fish Foundation. In response to alleged violations of labour rights, the foundation took a series of measures such as updating all the national laws and promoting labour standards. On 30 April 2015, it signed a mechanism to resolve labour disputes with a focus on migration. It also established a system of measuring processing plant compliance with standards on aquaculture safety, environment and labour rights, linked to the license that exporters need to operate (if plants do not comply with 70 percent of the requirements, the license is not renewed). <sup>156</sup>

<sup>152</sup> The Global Social Compliance Programme (GSCP) is a business-driven programme for the continuous improvement of working and environmental conditions in global supply chains (see http://www.gscpnet.com/).

<sup>153</sup> See Lake Harvest: Undated a. Code of conduct. Kariba, Zimbabwe (also available at http://lakeharvest.com/uploads/pdf/CODE\_OF\_CONDUCT.pdf); Lake Harvest. Undated b. Product health and safety policy. Kariba, Zimbabwe (also available at http://lakeharvest.com/uploads/pdf/Health\_&\_Safety\_Policy.pdf); Lake Harvest. Undated c. HIV/AIDS policy. Kariba, Zimbabwe (also available at http://lakeharvest.com/uploads/pdf/HIV-AIDS\_Policy.pdf).

<sup>154</sup> See http://www.fairtradeusa.org/sites/default/files/wysiwyg/filemanager/fish/Fair-Trade-USA-Capture-Fisheries-Standard-Infographic.pdf.

<sup>155</sup> See the Slow Food website: http://www.slowfood.com/slowfish/.

<sup>156</sup> Mr Syed Mahmudul Huq, Bangladesh Shrimp and Fish Foundation, personal communication.

#### **Annex 2: Selected resources**

#### **Codes and Guidelines**

FAO.1995. Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries.

FAO. 2012. FAO Voluntary Guidelines for the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries and Forests in the Context of National Food Security.

FAO. 2014. Voluntary Guidelines for Securing Sustainable Small-Scale Fisheries in the Context of Food Security and Poverty Eradication.

FAO/ILO. 2012. Guidance on addressing child labour in fisheries and aquaculture.

FAO webpage on the Decent Rural Employment Toolbox.

FAO. 2015. Infographic Understanding Decent Rural Employment.

#### Safety-at sea-resources

FAO website on Safety for Fishermen.

International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping for Fishing Vessel Personnel (STCW-F) (1995).

FAO/ILO/IMO (2001) FAO/ILO/IMO Document for Guidance on Training and Certification of Fishing Vessel Personnel.

FAO/ILO/IMO. 2005. Code of Safety for Fishermen and Fishing Vessels, Part A – Safety and Health Practice.

FAO/ILO/IMO. 2005. FAO/ILO/IMO Voluntary Guidelines for the Design, Construction and Equipment of Small Fishing Vessels.

FAO/ILO/IMO. 2014. Implementation Guidelines on Part B of the Code, the Voluntary Guidelines and the Safety Recommendations (2014).

FAO/ILO/IMO. 2012. Safety Recommendations for Decked Fishing Vessels of Less than 12 metres in Length and Undecked Fishing Vessels.

#### Other relevant resources

Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No. 188).

ILO webpage of the International conference on labour exploitation in the fishing sector.

International Partnership for Cooperation on Child Labour in Agriculture (ILO, FAO, IFAD, IFPRI, IUF).

ILO webpage on sectoral policies activities.

### Annex 3: FAO applied definition of decent rural employment

Decent rural employment refers to any activity, occupation, work, business or service performed by women and men, adults and youth, in rural areas that:

- (i) Respects the core labour standards as defined in ILO Conventions, and therefore:
- a. Is not child labour;
- b. Is not forced labour;
- c. Guarantees freedom of association and the right to collective bargaining and promotes organization of rural workers;
- d. Does not entail discrimination at work on the basis of race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction, social origin or other.
- (ii) Provides an adequate living income;
- (iii) Entails an adequate degree of employment security and stability;
- (iv) Adopts minimum occupational safety and health (OSH) measures, which are adapted to address sector-specific risks and hazards;
- (v) Avoids excessive working hours and allows sufficient time for rest;
- (vi) Promotes access to adapted technical and vocational training.

Note 1: The term "rural employment" covers any activity, occupation, work, business or service performed in rural areas for remuneration, profit, or social or family gain, in cash or in kind. It applies to both waged employed workers (including contributing family workers) and salaried workers, as well as self-employed workers.

Note 2: This applied definition acknowledges the considerable heterogeneity of rural contexts across the world. Designed by FAO to provide a general minimum standard for decent employment in rural settings, it may be adjusted to the specific geographical, sectoral, and socio-economic contexts in which it is to be implemented. Any adaptation should however respect the four core labour standards, which are universally accepted as fundamental principles and rights at work.

Fisheries and aquaculture are a significant source of livelihoods and contribute to the food security of hundreds of millions of people.

Notwithstanding, small-scale fishers, fish famers, boat crew members, fish-processors, fish traders and fish processing workers often face serious labour related challenges which limit the poverty reduction potential of the sector.

Low earnings and labour productivity in rural areas, ineffective labour regulation, low level of workers' organization with reported cases of child labour and severe cases of human rights abuses are common challenges in the sector. These challenges are often exacerbated by the informal nature of the sector (especially in small scale fishing) and by prevailing seasonality, remoteness of operations and hazardous nature of work.

Based on available literature, the study explores wide-ranging decent work concerns in the fisheries and aquaculture sector with the objective to inform and guide FAO programming and collaboration with governments, civil society organizations, the private sector and other United Nations organizations in promoting decent working and living conditions along the whole seafood value chain.

