



International
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Effectiveness Review of Child Labour Monitoring Systems in the Smallholder Agricultural Sector of Sub-Saharan Africa

Review of Emerging Good Practices

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ABBREVIATIONS

ARTCI	Autorité de Régulation des Télécommunications de Côte d’Ivoire
CB-CLMS	Community-Based Child Labour Monitoring System
CCLC	Community Child Labour Committee
CLMS	Child Labour Monitoring System
CLMRS	Child Labour Monitoring and Remediation System
CCPC	Community Child Protection Committee
CLU	Child Labour Unit
DCLCs	District Child Labour Committees
GCLMS	Ghana Child Labour Monitoring System
KAP	Knowledge, Attitude and Practice
ICI	International Cocoa Initiative
IGA	Income Generating Activity
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IPEC	International Programme for the Elimination of Child Labour
KAP	Knowledge, Attitude and Practice
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NPA	National Plan of Action for Elimination of Child Labour
NPECLC	National Programme for Elimination of Child Labour in Cocoa
NSCCL	National Steering Committee for Child Labour
OSH	Occupational Safety and Health
PPP	Public-Private Partnership (ILO project on decreasing the incidence of child labour that benefited from private sector contributions)
SCREAM	Supporting Children’s Rights through Education, the Arts and the Media
SOSTECI	Système d’Observation et de Suivi du Travail des Enfants en Côte d’Ivoire
SMART	Specific – Measurable – Achievable - Realistic - Time-related
ToR	Terms of Reference
TWG	Technical Working Group (convened for the purpose of this review)
VCLC	Village Child Labour Committee
WACAP	West Africa Cocoa/Commercial Agriculture Programme (ILO)
WCF	World Cocoa Foundation
WFCL	Worst Forms of Child Labour

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY



In recent years, both legally binding requirements such as the UK Modern Slavery Act and voluntary guidelines such as the UN Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights, have been developed by international organisations and national governments with the goal to change the way in which businesses conduct their operations to address child and forced labour in their supply-chains. Under the label “Human Rights Due Diligence” and in response to this changing regulatory environment, companies have started to put in place mechanisms enabling them to monitor human rights impacts in their supply-chains and to address those that are directly linked to the companies’ operations, products or services. In the smallholder agricultural sector, and in the cocoa sector in particular, Child Labour Monitoring Systems (CLMSs) have gained prominence due in part to the fact that their establishment became a requirement in the 2016 revised UTZ code of conduct and in the 2016 CocoaAction strategy from the World Cocoa Foundation (WCF). With such rising demand for this type of human rights due diligence systems and the need to scale them up rapidly, the International Cocoa Initiative (ICI) was mandated by its Board to review the different approaches existing in this area.

The objective of ICI’s *Effectiveness Review of Child Labour Monitoring Systems in the Smallholder Agricultural Sector of Sub-Saharan Africa*, is therefore to explore ways to increase the cost-effectiveness of Child Labour Monitoring Systems and to identify best practices to guide

the establishment and scaling-up of monitoring systems in the smallholder agricultural sector. This *Review of Emerging Good Practices*, is the first stage of a larger process to gain insight into the cost-effectiveness of different CLMS approaches and to inform the second phase of the review (which is ongoing and shall be completed in 2018).

The information contained in this report originates from two main sources: on the one hand, a desk review of 25 publically-available reports and studies (see literature list in annex I) related to CLMS, and on the other, responses gathered through an online survey (see questionnaire in annex II), which was shared with a wide array of stakeholders operating a CLMS within and outside the cocoa sector, seven of which responded.

The present report is divided in two parts. The first one examines which components constitute a CLMS and identifies ‘typical’ activities and standard procedures related to each one of these components as summarised below:

1. Training and awareness-raising

In this section, the content and duration of the monitors’ training is touched upon. The review covers the suggested content of monitors’ training, which includes key concepts related to child labour and child protection, interview techniques, the questionnaires used for data collection, concepts of community engagement as well as

child-safeguarding principles. The literature and responses to the online survey are not conclusive regarding the duration of such trainings, which can last from 2 to 68 hours depending on the system. It is apparent that training content and duration may vary significantly depending on who is doing the monitoring, what their existing knowledge and skills are and what is required of the monitors. Therefore, an ideal training duration or a universal curriculum could not be defined or identified as part of this exercise.

Different awareness-raising techniques/approaches are presented, and responses to the online survey show a consensus amongst implementers on the fact that monitoring systems should include community-wide awareness-raising components if they are to be effective. However, the information analysed in the context of this review has neither allowed us to assess the impact of different training/awareness-raising approaches in relation to their length and the groups targeted, nor to determine a cost per activity, which could help to establish the cost-effectiveness of each training and awareness-raising session for each group.

2. Monitoring (observation)

The review provides some answers to questions such as *how often*, *by whom*, *where* and *how* child labour monitoring should be conducted to identify emerging good practices in this field. First, monitoring is defined as the direct and regular observation of places where children live and where they might be working to identify cases of child labour and to determine risks to which they are exposed. In this context, “direct” means that farmers’ self-assessment, phone interviews or other remote and indirect contacts do not qualify as observation, and “regular” indicates that visits should take place at least once a year and take into consideration peaks in farm activities and school schedules. The report also highlights the difference between comprehensive CLMS and project monitoring and evaluation (M&E), the latter being conducted to evaluate the impact of a particular activity or other short-term initiatives. CLMS on the contrary, is intended to be part of the regular management, supervision and governance of the work place or the community or the school, and thus outlive any particular time-bound child-labour project.

Next, the term “visit” is further analysed, indicating that the mere visual inspection of a situation without having any interaction with either adults or children present, is not sufficient to be considered monitoring. Moreover, such visits should take place both in the household and on the farm to prevent the transfer of children from one sector to another. Visits may be announced or unannounced, as a combination of both may lead to achieving the most realistic level of identification. Lastly, the advantages of choosing monitors from within the target community, or at least to appoint someone known to the farmers and trusted (e.g. an agronomist regularly visiting farmers in the case of a supply-chain based monitoring) are presented, alongside evidence that compensated monitors appear to deliver better results than voluntary ones. Finally, the review argues that making use of existing supply-chain structures (e.g. agronomist visits, cooperative management capacities, etc.) may decrease the logistical and financial burden related to the establishment of sector-specific (cocoa, tobacco) monitoring, where scattered farms are to be visited.

3. Identification and data collection

Within this section, the report dwells upon a core function of a monitoring system: the act of identifying children doing agricultural work and determining whether they are exploited, exposed to either work or working conditions that put them at risk or are inappropriate for their age. Different procedures to identify cases of child labour are reviewed and the type of data collected and indicators that are regularly tracked by the different systems are presented. One of the report’s key findings, is that beyond references to international convention and national laws, there is no one-size-fits-all identification procedure to declare that a child is in child labour. The type of data collected and the method used to declare that a child is in a situation of child labour seems to depend on the design, scope and objective of each individual CLMS.

Based on the fact that children are often both enrolled in school and frequently engaged in hazardous activities, the report argues that irregular school attendance cannot be the sole criterion to define that a child is engaged in child

labour. Different systems appear to track different information, although one indicator appears to be fundamental and measured by numerous systems: the number of children identified/assisted who are no longer in child labour as a result of the system's intervention.

Next, the report shows that there is no consensus with regard to the definition, monitoring and tracking of children that may be 'at risk' of child labour. The category of children at risk (as opposed to children in child labour) does not seem to be captured by all CLMS analysed for this review.

This section also touches upon the need to establish child-safeguarding procedures when adults are mandated to interview potentially vulnerable children in the context of a CLMS. Finally, some legal requirements related to data privacy are presented and it is argued that sensitive information should be collected with the consent of respondents and also abide by existing laws and regulations.

4. Response: withdrawal, referral and remediation

This section starts with a list of different types of remediation activities captured in the literature and reported by respondents to the online survey, acknowledging that child labour monitoring must not stop with the identification of child labour cases and has to also encompass some form of follow-up and remediation for identified children. Remediation activities appear to be conducted at three different levels: i) at the individual-level, targeting of the child him/herself; ii) at household-level, targeting the family of the identified child; as well as iii) at community level, benefiting the whole population. Remediation actions may be taken, amongst other, in the area of education, labour-saving techniques or income generation.

The report purports that such assistance has to be provided based on the principle of "best interests of the child", which means that the child's removal (away from his/her home to be placed in a caring structure) isn't a routine procedure, and in fact, seems to be an exceptional and ill-advised measure in the context of children helping on smallholder family farms.

Lastly, the report discusses the advantages of having a CLMS which adopts a supportive rather than punitive approach to the identification of, and response to, child labour. This contributes to identifying and bringing cases to the surface rather than hiding them.

However, the information contained in the documents reviewed has not allowed for a comparison of the impact of different referral/assistance mechanisms to determine which form of assistance has proven to be the most efficient in preventing children from staying in or 're-entering' child labour. It has also not been possible to determine the cost-effectiveness of each referral/assistance mechanism.

5. Tracking

There is a consensus in the literature reviewed, that monitoring has to go beyond awareness-raising, observation, identification and assistance to also verify that children have been removed from child labour. This should incorporate the tracking of identified and assisted children to ensure that they have satisfactory alternatives and are no longer engaged in child labour. However, there is no consistency in the documents examined when it comes to defining a procedure by which an identified child is declared to be no longer involved in child labour, nor how long the tracking of identified children should last for, or how many tracking visits this should include. This question appears crucial in determining the ability of a system to establish whether a child was removed from a child labour situation and therefore assess its impact. It is therefore surprising how little attention has been given to this particular aspect in the existing literature.

6. Third party verification

This short section highlights that if a monitoring process has a significant role in establishing that child labour is not used in a particular sector or industry (cocoa for example), then the implementer may need to consider a robust external verification system where international organisations, private social audit firms or other independent parties can be called upon to verify that the information provided by the CLMS is

correct and truthfully reflects the situation. This is considered to be crucial for the credibility of the system.

The online survey did not include any question on this component, though one respondent stated that the company has an external monitoring system which “consists of country-specific external assessments conducted by an independent third-party, Control Union Certifications, to evaluate the implementation of the programme and the working and living conditions of farmers and workers”. Furthermore, two other respondents are members of the Fair Labour Association and even though the yearly assessment doesn’t seem to target specifically their CLMS or its management and outputs, it does provide some form of external scrutiny around their operations.

This section also highlights the fact that certification schemes are increasingly adopting a risk-management approach to child labour, as exemplified by the 2016 UTZ Code of Conduct revision that includes control points (conduct of a risk assessment, appointment of child labour liaisons, documenting monitoring and remediation actions, etc.) aiming to establish CLMS. These control points will be audited once a year in certified farmers’ groups, thus providing some form of external scrutiny on the systems in place.

7. Partnerships

The importance of entering partnerships with existing structures that may already be working on the issue of child labour or having systems in place that can be used as a platform to establish a new CLMS is recognized as a good practice in the literature reviewed. In addition, there is clear sense that child labour monitoring requires coordination and partnership between different actors. As mentioned above, child labour monitoring efforts can take varying forms and build upon different existing structures. As a result, there is not therefore a one-size-fits-all form of coordination between a clear set of defined partners that could be applied to any system, anywhere. Nevertheless, the literature repeatedly argues for the involvement of national authorities from the Ministries of Education and Labour at central to regional level and local government bodies. This is considered crucial by

the ILO as the aggregated data produced by any child monitoring system can be used for a number of purposes, including periodic appraisals of child labour trends, for social planning, reporting and policy development. Furthermore, collaboration is also recommended with workers’ and employers’ organisations, certification schemes and industry, amongst other actors, since it will inform their own planning and support their efforts in eradicating child labour. This aspect seems to be integrated in the operational CLMS presented by respondents to the online survey since all of them reported to be collaborating with authorities at different levels.

In discussing each one of these seven components, wherever possible, the strengths and limitations of the different operational models are presented, compared and critically assessed. From this analysis, 23 lessons learned and potential best practices are presented, along with 16 recommendations for CLMSs. The full list of those emerging best practices can be found at the end of this executive summary. The limited amount of information available and its difference in nature and format did not allow to compare cost with impact and therefore to determine which practices may be the most cost-efficient.

In the second part of this report, a presentation of scope, costing elements and effectiveness criteria of different CLMSs is made. It was found that the oldest CLMSs in place were established in 2011 and are therefore still relatively new.

The scope of the seven different systems presented by respondents to the online survey is showcased by the number of child labour cases identified; the number of communities in which the system is operational; the number of households covered; and the number of children monitored. With the exception of one respondent, whose programme and the corresponding monitoring of farms is applied in 30 countries, the scale of each different CLMS does not reach more than 30,000 households at once.

The report then goes on to present two different sets of CLMS effectiveness criteria found in the literature. One is from the 2005 ILO Child Labour Monitoring Resources Kit and the other from WCF’s CocoaAction strategy. An analysis from the respondent’s answers to the CocoaAction

effectiveness criteria showed that most systems do not track this type of information at all, or at least not in a format that would allow them to be comparable. Even the most basic quantitative data regarding the number of people covered is difficult to compare, as some systems will record the number of farms, while others will count households or entire communities. Furthermore, different organisations will have a different understanding of what “monitored” means. Some will consider that a child living in a community where they are intervening is monitored, while others will only count children directly interviewed and for which data is available in their database. A recommendation was made to actors in the cocoa sector to agree on a SMART set of effectiveness criteria to allow for greater comparisons across different systems.

The review of the information related to the cost of different systems extracted from the respondents’ answers and the project reports consulted reveals once more the challenge to compare systems when the data is either not available, tracked or formatted in a uniform way. Some systems are able

to generate specific information on the cost per child or household while others are monitoring the funds used to operate in an entire community. For all systems presented above, little information is provided on the breakdown of these estimated costs and no link can be made to the effectiveness of each one of those systems or their individual components, thus rendering a comparison of cost-effectiveness nearly impossible.

The report further examines the literature’s answer to questions related to the financial sustainability of CLMSs as it appears to remain a major challenge, especially for those systems established within the timeframe of a particular project, with a definite budget and an expiry date. For the survival of any CLMS, it appears crucial to set up simple systems that are well integrated into existing governance/management structures with a sustainable financial source that covers all running costs. In the final section of the report, recommendations are made to inform the next steps of this CLMS effectiveness review and guide the cocoa sector towards a better alignment of their results emerging from CLMS efforts:

Recommendations for the 2nd round of the Effectiveness Review

- A. Using targeted KAP surveys (ex-post assessments), assess the respective impact of each type of awareness-raising intervention, for each target group and, where possible, establish the cost of each intervention to be able to determine their cost-effectiveness.
- C. Pool information from all CocoaAction companies and other actors operating CLMSs on the beneficiaries-per-monitor ratio, their level of compensation, their means of transport (bike, motorbike, etc.), the average distance to the farmers.
- D. Compare identification/remediation rates according to the indicators described in recommendation C).
- E. Compare existing data collection tools and define a list of common questions and indicators used across different systems.
- I. Disaggregate results (e.g. the number of children once identified and no longer in child labour) according to the type of remediation support received and, wherever possible, match it with information on the household and community environment to identify the strategies that are most efficient in reducing child labour.
- N. Encourage companies to isolate the unit cost of different key components of their CLMS (at least each remediation intervention - especially those at household and individual model) to be able to determine and compare their cost-effectiveness.

Project-specific recommendations to implementers	<p>B. When implementing a CLMS, define an indicative list of key inputs (participation in a training and a field exercise, etc.) and outcomes (key competences, skills and information acquired) as minimum training requirements for monitors and ensure these are assessed before monitors begin their tasks.</p> <p>K. Define unified terms of reference with control points for third party verifications of CLMS.</p> <p>O. Simplify existing CLMS procedures/data collection processes and integrate them into existing governance/management structures to increase cost-efficiency.</p>
General recommendations for the cocoa sector	<p>F. Agree on a unified procedure to identify cases of child labour based on existing national legislations and international conventions.</p> <p>G. Develop/adapt existing interview guides for monitors that encompass good practices in child labour identification (age verification techniques, etc.) and include a strong child-safeguarding component to become part of the mandatory training of all monitors.</p> <p>H. Gather legal requirements for the operation of a CLMS in Ghana and Côte d'Ivoire in a short guide to be shared with the whole cocoa sector.</p> <p>J. Define a unified procedure to declare that a once identified/assisted child is no longer in child labour and ensure that moves between those two categories can be captured by the different systems.</p> <p>L. Agree on a definition of what "covered" or "monitored by the system" means practically to allow for better comparison between systems.</p> <p>M. Review and refine the existing set of effectiveness criteria that is adapted to different CLMS and/or encourage companies in the sector to put in place data collection systems able to track them so that comparison between the effectiveness of different systems becomes possible.</p> <p>P. Define roles and division of labour between national and private CLMS.</p>

Throughout the course of the review, the following emerging best practices in CLMS were identified:

Lessons Learned <hr/> Good Practices	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Awareness-raising at community-level represents a key component of any CLMS. 2. Training sessions for monitors are likely to be more effective if conducted in small groups over a long enough period of time to ensure that participants acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to successfully conduct monitoring activities. 3. Farmers' self-assessment, phone interviews or other remote and indirect contacts do not qualify as "observation." 4. Choose monitors from within the target community or at least, someone farmers know and trust (e.g. an agronomist regularly visiting farmers in the case of a supply-chain based monitoring). 5. Mapping, taking advantage of and building upon existing structures when defining a monitoring approach eases the set-up and, most importantly, ensures greater sustainability of any child labour monitoring system. Specifically, making use of existing supply-chain structures (e.g. agronomist visits, cooperative management capacities, etc.) makes logistical and financial sense for sector-specific monitoring (cocoa, tobacco), where scattered farms are to be visited. 6. Schools might be a challenging entry point for child labour monitoring in some parts of rural West Africa where educational systems are limited.
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Lessons Learned

Good Practices

7. Regular school attendance cannot be the sole criterion to define that a child is not in child labour.
8. Household monitoring, as opposed to just workplace monitoring, is required to prevent the transfer of children from one sector to another.
9. Monitoring visits have to happen at least once a year to be considered regular and ongoing.
10. The mere visual inspection of a farm, without having any interaction with either adults or children present, is not sufficient to be considered monitoring. Some form of interview is required to be able to assess child labour situations.
11. The planning of monitoring visits needs to take into consideration peaks in farm activities and school schedules.
12. A combination of both unannounced and announced visits may lead to achieving the most realistic level of identification.
13. Beyond references to international convention and national laws, there does not seem to be a one-size-fits-all identification procedure to declare that a child is in child labour.
14. The definition, monitoring and tracking of children that are 'at risk' of child labour, as opposed to those that are in child labour situations, does not seem to be considered a constitutive part of CLMS.
15. The number of children identified/assisted that are no longer in child labour is one key indicator that should be captured by any CLMS.
16. Mandating adults to interact with vulnerable children in the context of CLMS represents a child protection risk. The management of such risks should be anticipated and planned for in the conduct of CLMS operations.
17. Data should be collected with the consent of respondents and in agreement with laws and regulation in place.
18. The data collected within the context of a CLMS should be treated with confidentiality.
19. Child labour monitoring must not stop with the identification but has to encompass some form of follow-up and remediation/assistance for identified cases.
20. Such assistance has to be provided based on the principle of "best interests of the child". In the context of smallholder family farms, the child's removal (away from his/her home to be placed in a caring structure) seems to be only exceptionally warranted (e.g. cases of forced child labour).
21. Supportive, rather than punitive response to the identification of child labour contributes to bringing cases to the surface rather than hiding them.
22. Share gathered information with government authorities to support their policy and social planning efforts.
23. Enter partnerships with existing structures already working on the issue of child labour or having structures in place that can be used as a platform to establish a CLMS.

INTRODUCTION AND OBJECTIVES



In recent years, both legally binding requirements such as the Modern Slavery Act, and voluntary guidelines such as the UN Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights, have been developed by international organisations and national governments with the goal to change the way in which businesses conduct their operations to address child and forced labour in their supply-chains. Under the label “Human Rights Due Diligence” and in response to this changing regulatory environment, companies have started to put in place mechanisms enabling them to monitor human rights impacts in their supply-chains and to address those that are directly linked to the companies’ operations, products or services. In the smallholder agricultural sector, and in the cocoa sector in particular, Child Labour Monitoring Systems (CLMSs) have gained prominence due in part to the fact that their establishment became a requirement in the 2016 revised UTZ code of conduct and in the 2016 CocoaAction strategy from the World Cocoa Foundation (WCF). With

such rising demand for this type of human rights due diligence systems and the need to scale them up rapidly, the International Cocoa Initiative (ICI) was mandated by its Board to review the different approaches existing in this area.

The objective of the ICI *Effectiveness Review of Child Labour Monitoring Systems in the Smallholder Agricultural Sector of Sub-Saharan Africa* is to identify ways to increase cost-effectiveness of Child Labour Monitoring System (CLMS) and identify best practices to guide the establishment and scaling-up of monitoring systems in the smallholder agricultural sector.

The first step in this process has consisted in gathering, collating and analysing information on different child labour monitoring systems in the Sub-Saharan smallholder agricultural context. The findings from the first phase contained in this report will shape the subsequent steps of the review to be concluded in 2019.

Respondent	Sector	Coverage
Respondent 1	Multisector	Community/area-based
Respondent 2	Cocoa	Supply-chain based
Respondent 3	Multisector	Community/area-based
Respondent 4	Multisector	Community/area-based
Respondent 5	Tobacco	Dual: Community/area-based + Supply-chain based
Respondent 6	Cocoa	Supply-chain based
Respondent 7	Tobacco	Dual: Community/area-based + Supply-chain based

This Review of Emerging Good Practices is based on two streams of information: on the first hand, a desk review of 25 publically-available reports and studies (see literature list in annex) related to CLMS, and on the second hand, responses gathered through an online survey¹ shared with a wide array of partners operating CLMS within and outside the cocoa sector, seven of which have responded and presented their systems and objectives. Since not all organisations that have taken part in the review have given their agreement to share the information publically, their names and data have been made anonymous.

The first part of this report will be examining which components are considered to constitute

a CLMS and identify ‘typical’ activities and standard procedures related to each one of these components. Wherever possible, the strength and limitations of the different operational models presented will be compared and critically assessed. From this analysis, some lessons learned and potential best practices will be presented, along with specific cocoa-related recommendations. In the second part of this report, a presentation of scope, costing elements and effectiveness criteria will be conducted, before reflections on CLMSs’ financial sustainability will be presented.



PART 1

Mapping and Best Practices

“it is important to understand that Child Labour Monitoring System (CLMS) is not a ‘ready-made fits all’ type of a system but an overall framework, the parts of which can be assembled from different starting points.”

In the first part of this report, we will undertake a mapping of existing systems, based on the desk review of documents dealing with CLMSs and the responses to the online survey. The strengths and limitations of different approaches will be presented, leading, where possible, to the identification of context-specific best practices. Recommendations for the cocoa sector will be made with a view to guiding companies currently setting up a CLMS and ensuring that more reliable information can be gathered for the next steps of this effectiveness review.

To begin with, it is essential to define the scope of this review and to provide a sense of what constitutes child labour monitoring. As stated by the ILO in its Overview of Child Labour Monitoring Systems, “it is important to understand that CLMS is not a “ready-made fits all” type of a system but an overall framework, the parts of which can be assembled from different starting points.” While this review will therefore not be able to define one single, universally recognised model as the only and most cost-efficient, the literature highlights several key components that are essential in defining what can be considered child labour monitoring or not. The following components can be considered essential parts of any CLMS:²

1. Training and awareness-raising
2. Monitoring (observation)
3. Identification and data collection
4. Response: withdrawal, referral and remediation
5. Tracking
6. Third party verification
7. Partnerships

1. Training and Awareness-Raising



A. Training

Training content for monitors

Making a distinction from the broader intervention aimed at sensitizing community members on the risk of child labour, most of the documents reviewed indicate that any child labour monitoring effort requires the training of some key, strategic target groups. First and foremost, the individuals in charge of the monitoring may need to go through a series of training and capacity-building exercises to be prepared for monitoring and to learn how to use various monitoring tools. Specifically, the ILO Child Labour Monitoring Resources Kit states that in order for the child labour monitoring team to be able to perform its duties in an objective and correct manner it needs to:

- understand issues concerning the rights of the child, vulnerability and gender;
- have a good basic understanding of the process of monitoring;
- have a good basic understanding of the techniques for conducting a monitoring visit, including identification and interviewing of possible child labourers;
- understand the basic principles and tasks of monitoring; and
- be able to respond to various situations they will encounter in their work as monitors.⁴

In addition to this list, and taking into consideration the above-mentioned importance of awareness-raising, the ILO paper titled *Rooting out Child*

Labour from Cocoa Farms also states that “to be effective they [community-monitors] not only must be trained in the techniques of monitoring and reporting, but also in communicating with their communities on the issue.”⁵

The Winrock Best Practices Report mentions a special training on child safeguarding-related issues “to avoid traumatising children and to ensure that monitors did not abuse their positions.”⁶

Winrock points out however, that “training content will vary significantly depending on who is doing the monitoring and what is required of them. Imparting the necessary skills may entail a one-off training or a series of workshops and may include follow-up or in-service training during the project.”⁷ Considering the wide array of CLMS models, it seems therefore difficult to define a universally relevant curriculum for monitors’ training.

Duration

Except for one respondent that did not answer this specific question, all organisations that took part in the online survey declared they provide training to the people in charge of monitoring. The four out of six respondents who were able to submit information on the length of their training sessions indicated durations lasting from 2-12h; 16h; 42h and 68h per monitor. Out of the literature review, specifically in the *GCLMS Implementation Review* report, the duration of the training sessions given to operational agents in charge of the system



roll-out on understanding of child labour, as well as training on data collection tools, data entry etc. is said to be on average two to three days.⁸ The independent review of the project considered this too short. Training sessions are held in groups of up to 100 participants that seem to be too large to be efficient.⁹ This can give an indication in terms of both the minimum duration of monitors' training and the maximum number of participants per training session.

Training of other stakeholders

Further to the training of monitors that is essential for several core functions of child labour monitoring (awareness-raising, data collection, etc.), there is a sense from reviewing the literature that, although not essential, the training of specific, strategic groups may also be considered to increase the impact of a CLMS on child labour reduction. The PPP project for example, specifically trained the following stakeholders on child labour and occupational safety and health (OSH):

- Households
- Farmers (cocoa, palm oil)
- Local officials
- Supply-chain actors (e.g. purchasing clerks in Ghana)
- CCPC members
- Teachers

In addition to those, two private companies that responded to the online survey also reported training their own employees, as well as children.

B. Awareness-raising

The ILO Paper titled *Rooting out Child Labour from Cocoa Farms*¹⁰ states clearly that “the first step in rooting out child labour from cocoa farms is to make sure that individuals in the community understand that agricultural work can be very harmful to children. Community monitors can help to infuse knowledge in the community about the negative impacts of child labour and encourage good practice. The community monitors have the dual role of information collector and change agent in their communities.” From several documents reviewed,¹¹ it appears that monitoring child labour without some form of wider awareness-raising in the communities where children are monitored would not be effective with regard to the broader objective of any monitoring effort that is to reduce or eradicate child labour. Six out of seven respondents have declared that their system provided awareness-raising at community level, while the last respondent declared to target only farmers and their workers.

No prescriptive quantitative or qualitative standards on awareness-raising emerge from the

literature. As an example, the PPP and CCP project reports give some indication of the format and the target population of awareness-raising efforts on child labour. Within those projects, awareness-raising was done as a “*continuous process*” that took the forms listed below:¹²

- Durbars and community gatherings
- Film screenings
- Radio messages and discussions
- ‘SCREAM¹³ clubs’
- Door to door campaigns
- Promotional material distribution (T-Shirts etc.)
- Posters / Picture Box
- Football games
- Theatre performances and sketches¹⁴
- ‘Anti-child labour clubs’- school-based clubs aiming to raise awareness
- Special events (e.g. on the occasion of the World Day Against Child Labour)
- Role models and mentors

There was no indication in the literature or in the responses to the survey as to how many days,

sessions or hours of awareness-raising is needed to achieve increased knowledge or a change in attitude. Two respondents indicated that a typical awareness-raising session at community-level lasted on average two hours.

C. Conclusions regarding CLMS awareness-raising and training components

The information analysed in the context of this review has not allowed us to assess the impact, for example through Knowledge, Attitude and Practice (KAP) surveys of different training/ awareness-raising approaches in relation to their length and the groups targeted, nor to determine a cost per activity that could help establish the cost-effectiveness of each training, for each group. Nevertheless, the following table provides a sense of the lessons learned and good practices identified in the process of this review, along with some recommendations specifically directed at actors in the cocoa sector:

<p>Lessons Learned</p> <p>Good Practices</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Awareness-raising at community-level represents a key component of any CLMS. 2. Training sessions for monitors are likely to be more effective if conducted in small groups over a long enough period of time to ensure that participants acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to successfully conduct monitoring activities.
<p>Recommendations for the 2nd round of the Effectiveness Review</p>	<p>A. Using targeted KAP surveys (ex-post assessments), assess the respective impact of each type of awareness-raising intervention, for each target group and, where possible, establish the cost of each intervention to be able to determine its cost-effectiveness.</p>
<p>Project-specific recommendations to implementers</p>	<p>B. When implementing a CLMS, define an indicative list of key inputs (participation in a training and a field exercise, etc.) and outcomes (key competences, skills and information acquired) as minimum training requirements for monitors. Also ensure that these are assessed before monitors begin their tasks.</p>
<p>General recommendations for the cocoa sector and CocoaAction</p>	<p>-</p>

2. MONITORING (OBSERVATION)



According to the ILO and Winrock, Child Labour Monitoring “involves direct observations, repeated regularly, to identify child labourers and to determine risks to which they are exposed.”¹⁵ This chapter will explore what “direct” and “regular” observation mean in the context of child labour monitoring.

Before this is addressed, it is worth mentioning that the literature highlights the importance to map, take advantage of and build upon existing structures when defining a monitoring approach. One best-practice identified by Winrock consists in investigating “whether any community, school, or child monitoring processes already exist that can be adapted.”¹⁶ There is a sense from different reports¹⁷ reviewed that building on existing structures will ease the set-up and, most importantly, ensure greater sustainability of any child labour monitoring system. Integrating monitoring into existing structures is understood as being crucial to the sustainability of any CLMS:¹⁸ “It is ensured that monitoring at community and school level are embedded in existing structures that can continue to operate also after the end of the project period.”¹⁹

A. Monitoring – By whom?

Following the above overall definition and from the literature reviewed, one of the most central functions of any monitoring is the inspection of places where children might be working. Although

not discussed explicitly in the literature, there seems to be a general understanding that the observation process requires on site, personal, and face-to-face visits. Under this definition, it is fair to assume that farmers’ self-assessment, phone interviews or other imaginable remote and indirect contacts would not qualify as ‘observation’. One question the literature pays particular attention to is who should conduct the observation.

With specific regard to the context of smallholder agriculture, the ILO states that “because so much child labour is in the agricultural and informal sectors, monitoring cannot be done by the official inspectorate alone.”²⁰ From the different reports reviewed²¹ and responses to the online survey, it is clear that the monitoring function can be taken on by different groups (extension officers, agronomists, school teachers, appointed data collectors, social protection services staff, labour inspectors, community members, etc.). Given the fact that monitoring takes different forms, there is no one-size-fits-all approach emerging from the review. Defining minimum requirements for the individuals in charge of the monitoring is too dependent on context and could not be part of this review either. There are nevertheless certain qualities and attributes of monitors that are touched upon and give an indication of best-practices, or at least the strength and limitations of different approaches in the observation of child labour in smallholder agriculture. These will feature in the following sections.

Community vs. external monitors

First, the question about the origin of monitors and their belonging to the targeted group²² is touched upon in different documents reviewed. According to the ILO paper *Rooting out Child Labour from Cocoa Farms*, “community involvement in identifying and monitoring child labour in agriculture is critical because labour inspectors are usually too few to adequately cover all farms and will therefore confine their inspection to large agricultural enterprises and plantations. A vigilant community can also help to protect children at times and in places where child labour is difficult to detect (such as on small family plots) or where families think that work by children on farms of relatives is normal and safe.”²³ The 2008 Winrock Best Practices Report²⁴ acknowledges the benefits of having child labour monitors chosen from the community as this approach provides “access to even the most hidden or transient child labourers.” ICI’s experience would support such a model since using a peer-to-peer (as opposed to an external) monitoring approach tends to prevent the purposeful hiding of child labour, thus making it more difficult to address. In its best practices report, Winrock also states that “it may help to conduct the interview through someone the child knows and trusts, for example a young person from the community.”²⁵ The monitors of ICI’s system, chosen within the communities based on their moral standing, are often perceived as teachers and mentors, rather than as policemen, by the

communities.²⁶ This, however, is also partially contingent on the supportive rather than punitive approach of the ICI system. It is fair to assume that community monitors would be equally perceived as policemen if the result of identification would lead to some form of punishment (e.g. exclusion from the farmers’ group and loss of premium).

Volunteer vs. compensated monitors

Furthermore, one recurrent topic addressed in several reports reviewed relates to the critical question of financial and in kind compensation for the monitors. There seems to be converging opinions in the literature that the main function of child labour monitoring will be best fulfilled by compensated, rather than volunteering monitors. Except for one report that advocates the demonetisation of the data collection,²⁷ most documents touching upon this issue tend to agree that volunteer monitoring structures are less reliable in their data collection and management role than compensated ones.

The ILO *Rooting out Child Labour from Cocoa Farms* paper states for example that “informal [community-based] systems can be remarkable in bringing change within the communities and in identifying working children and referring them to school or other services, but they are seldom able to provide or support systematic, credible and reliable information on a periodic basis on selected children or on the overall child labour situation in



*a specific area.*²⁸ The same assessment emerges from an ICI internal review,²⁹ where voluntary community-based monitoring groups are seen to pose a challenge in terms of identification since the information collected orally is seldom transferred on paper and the structure in question is neither able to keep a record for the child labour cases identified, nor to describe the way each case were handled.

Based on its operational experience, the ILO GCLMS-specific review similarly recommends that data collectors receive enough of an incentive to “*give out their best.*” This follows operational agents in charge of data collection complaining about the poor level of compensation.³⁰ The same goes for the PPP Technical Progress Report, which suggests recruiting salaried agents dedicated to the collection of data.³¹

Furthermore, one of the lessons learned from an IPEC Project in the Tabora region of Tanzania is that some of the Village Child Labour Committees (VCLCs) with the mandate of fulfilling monitoring and remediation activities “*are not very effective in participating in the monitoring of child labour activities in their respective areas, because they are not given incentives. The demand for incentives is high from some of the VCLCs. This is a key determinant for participation of the VCLCs in the child labour monitoring system (CLMS) programme.*”³² Equally, as stated in a review from Uganda, “*although most committee members demonstrated a commitment to continue working as volunteers after the end of the project, there*

was a strong sense of expectation of rewards by some CCLC members from the IAs for the work they do in child labour.”³³

One crucial condition for the financial compensation of monitors to be effective though, is that the funding needs to be sustainable and must be without a deadline of expiration after which the support will cease. “*A significant question is whether the provision of stipends by international NGOs may impede the formation of national child protection systems if governments cannot afford to continue paying the stipends.*”^{34 35} Sustainability seems to be a significant challenge for community-based child protection groups, many of which collapse at the end of the externally funded period.

B. Monitoring – Where?

Workplace

If, as mentioned above, monitoring is considered as the ‘inspection of places where children might be working’, then workplaces seem to be the most obvious starting point. In sectors where, because of the nature of the activities or the presence of machinery, people have to gather in one particular site to work (quarries, textile workshops, etc.), the workplace is indeed a strategic location to conduct monitoring visits. This is stated by Winrock: “*Children work because someone is employing them. It is important to include employers in monitoring activities and particularly in inspections of workplaces to ensure that children are not present.*”³⁶ However, the specificity of smallholder

Child Labour Monitoring “involves direct observations, repeated regularly, to identify child labourers and to determine risks to which they are exposed.”

family farms in Sub-Saharan Africa, where children are not employed but rather ‘help their parents on the farm’ presents a challenge for implementing this type of workplace monitoring. Farms are often in remote areas, scattered across a large geographical area and monitoring every single one of them therefore represents a high logistical burden. Despite this challenge, all supply-chain-based CLMS that responded to the online survey declared that their monitoring visits take place on farms. In line with the recommendation to embed monitoring functions within existing structures, two of them use their agronomists who visit farmers on a regular basis to perform child labour monitoring. In its CLMS operational set-up, another respondents trains farmers within each community and equips them with a bicycle to go and perform monitoring on fellow members of the certified farmers’ groups.

Schools

Since regular school attendance is generally understood to be one of the best strategies for preventing child labour, the ILO and others³⁷ recommend that CLM “*link and match workplace monitoring information with available data from education information systems.*”³⁸ This means that workplace and school monitoring ought to be complementary rather than alternative/competing strategies in CLM.

The ILO highlights the importance of having teachers included in the group undertaking child labour monitoring since teachers are usually one of the first ones to know when children drop out of school.^{39,40} Despite this, the ILO and Winrock also highlight the limitation of teachers’ involvement: “*often school educators do not have the capacities and skills to actively participate in the mechanism. Moreover, a number of other factors may affect teachers’ commitment and active involvement in the monitoring mechanism: teaching is [...] poorly remunerated, motivation is very low, and often it is carried out in combination with other jobs.*”⁴¹

The latter appears to be confirmed by ICI’s operational experience in Côte d’Ivoire and Ghana, where cocoa-growing communities often lack formal educational structures, in particular at secondary level. Communities, and particularly informal residential camps, can be so spread out that a teacher might not be aware of all the school-

aged children present and therefore may not be in a position to identify children not enrolled in school. This makes schools a less obvious entry point for child labour monitoring in some parts of rural West Africa compared to other contexts with reliable educational systems. Another important factor to highlight when considering school monitoring is that, according to ICI data from its CLMRS operation in Côte d’Ivoire⁴², 63.8% of all children identified in a situation of child labour are enrolled in school. This means that the sole checking of school registers will not be sufficient to ensure children are not in child labour, since the two often co-exist. Nevertheless, Winrock’s experience within a Circle Project in Sierra Leone shows the value of involving schools in CLM since “*irregular school attendance and deteriorating performance were signs that children may also be working and therefore at risk of dropping out.*”⁴³ Three out of seven respondents reported that they assessed school attendance.

It is also to be noted that schools are not always as protective as they should be and that the presence of children on their grounds does not provide a 100% guarantee that they will not be engaged in any hazardous activities. While children’s use of sharp tools is prohibited under the National Hazardous Activities Framework in Ghana, anecdotal evidence from ICI staff field visits shows that teachers sometimes request pupils to use grass-cutters to mow the school lawn, a practice that would fall under hazardous child labour.

Household monitoring

After workplaces and schools, the third monitoring location regularly mentioned in the literature⁴⁴ is children’s homes. In ICI’s CLMS operational experience in Côte d’Ivoire, children are more often found at home than on the farm and therefore more easily interviewed during a household visit. As described in the section below (see section 3.a), this often leads to the identification of child labour cases based on declaration rather than observation. All six out of seven respondents that answered this question of the online survey declared that their monitoring system includes household-level monitoring.⁴⁵

Monitoring children in their household outside a sector-specific workplace allows the prevention of a recurrent phenomenon in the fight against child

labour, namely their transfer (e.g. from a cocoa farm) to other, sometimes even more dangerous sectors (e.g. illegal mining).

C. Monitoring – How?

Announced vs unannounced visits

Except for the *ILO Guidelines for Developing CLM Process*, the literature doesn't touch upon, or give a precise recommendation as to whether monitoring visits ought to be announced or unannounced. This question was not asked by the online survey either. One aspect to be considered according to the ILO, is that the nature of the visit becomes preventive if one announces it beforehand, while unannounced visits may allow one to “*see the workplace in a typical work situation.*”⁴⁶ Based on the key components and goals of any CLMS as described so far, it seems that a combination of both announced and unannounced visits would be justified and help meet the objectives of the system.

In ICI's experience with the CLMRS in Côte D'Ivoire, announced visits at household level allow those monitoring to see (and conduct interviews with) most members of the household. These types of visit are therefore more 'efficient' in identifying cases of child labour. However, without actual on-site direct observation of the farms through unannounced visits, the exercise could remain too theoretical and may lead to a disconnect between the reality on the farm and the description made by the farmer in his/her home.

Beneficiaries/monitor ratio

One of the respondents to the survey provided some information on the scale of its monitoring and the beneficiaries/monitor ratio: “*CLMS is implemented by more than 3,500 trained field technicians, supporting farmers on a day-to-day basis and spending a specific amount of time dedicated to monitor the Labour Code Standards on each farm. Each farm receives several visits, at regular intervals, throughout the whole season. All field technicians gather detailed information on a farm-by-farm basis that is used to systematically identify and address issues.*” As pointed out by this respondent when answering the question related to the regularity of monitoring visits: “*the field technician-to-farmer ratio impacts the number of visits conducted to each farmer during the crop*

season.” The respondent gave a ratio of one field technician monitoring on average 128 farmers.⁴⁷ ICI's current farmers/monitor ratio is 35. However, it is to be noted that the ICI's monitors only work one day per week, while above-mentioned monitors are likely to be working full time. Whether monitors are equipped with motorbikes or other means of transportation may also affect their ability to effectively visit more farms thus making the comparison between the sole farmers/monitor ratios difficult.

A comparative analysis of identification rates and monitoring visits per year according to different beneficiaries/monitor ratio would be highly valuable.

While cost might be a key factor in deciding about the exact number of beneficiaries per monitors, Winrock gives the following general advice: “*too many monitors in too many settings can be cumbersome to manage, can make the project too administratively heavy, and can backfire. Too few monitors can mean that not enough information is being collected about the beneficiaries and the progress of the project.*”⁴⁸

Observation vs. interview

The above stated definition of CLMS and the analyses conducted in this chapter show that monitoring involves “*direct observations*” of places where children might be working. ICI's CLMS operational practice shows that even when conducting regular, unannounced visits of farms, the likelihood of observing a child in a situation that unequivocally triggers their identification is relatively limited. The vast majority of identification through the ICI CLMS practice is based on the declaration of a hazardous activity during the interview that takes place during the visits with both adults and children. The ILO definition of “*observation*” encompasses both element since it is considered to have the following four components: “*identification of child labourers, assessment of working conditions; interviews with children and age verification.*”⁴⁹ It is therefore fair to assume that the mere visual inspection of a farm, without having any interaction with neither adults nor children present, would not be sufficient and that some form of interview is required to be able to assess a child labour situation. The review of the remaining literature doesn't directly

touch upon this but the fact that monitoring visits are usually accompanied by questionnaires and that, in an example provided by Winrock⁵⁰, “interviews with children were carried out to ascertain the veracity of the adults’ responses” gives an indication that interviews (including with the children themselves) are required to effectively identify and monitor child labour.

D. Monitoring – How often?

Regularity of monitoring visits

Beyond the fact that the observation has to be direct, child labour monitoring also requires the observation to be regular. According to the ILO, a defining feature of monitoring, as opposed to surveys, baselines, project M&E and other assessments, is the fact that “the monitoring and follow-up activities are ongoing: they are repeated on a regular basis.”⁵¹ The ILO Overview of Child Labour Monitoring Systems makes this distinction very clear: “It is important to understand the difference between comprehensive CLMS and “project” monitoring, which is done to evaluate impact of a particular project or other short-term initiative. CLM is intended to be part of “Governance” and thus outlive any particular CL projects or programmes.”⁵² It is therefore fair to assume that a CLMS stops existing the moment that the regular visits stop.

However, the literature reviewed doesn’t give any indication of what “regular” means or how often farms and households would need to be visited for this process to be considered regular and

ongoing. From the responses to the online survey, the regularity of monitoring visits varies from once a month to once a year, with the latter being the minimum level of regularity in systems currently operational.⁵³

Timing of monitoring visits

With reference to the agricultural and rural sector, the ILO Guidelines further highlight that “monitoring visits need to be scheduled according to harvest times, school year and weather conditions in order to capture the actual situation of the target group”. It seems indeed crucial, as also pointed out by Winrock,⁵⁴ to ensure that the planning of monitoring visits takes into consideration peaks in farm activities and school schedules, as children will be more or less likely to be engaged during different periods of the year, the week and even the day.

Questions around the timing of monitoring visits were not asked in the online survey.

E. Conclusions regarding monitoring

The literature reviewed did not allow for any comparison between the impacts of the different approaches presented in this section. The answers to the online survey are also very difficult to compare and therefore give very little room for an appraisal of the effectiveness, let alone costs, of the different monitoring approaches. An assessment of the cost-effectiveness, isolating the particular elements of different models presented



in this section, has therefore not been possible. This is particularly difficult to achieve since the identification ratio may vary heavily based on other factors. In fact, independently from all factors mentioned above, identification rates may be:

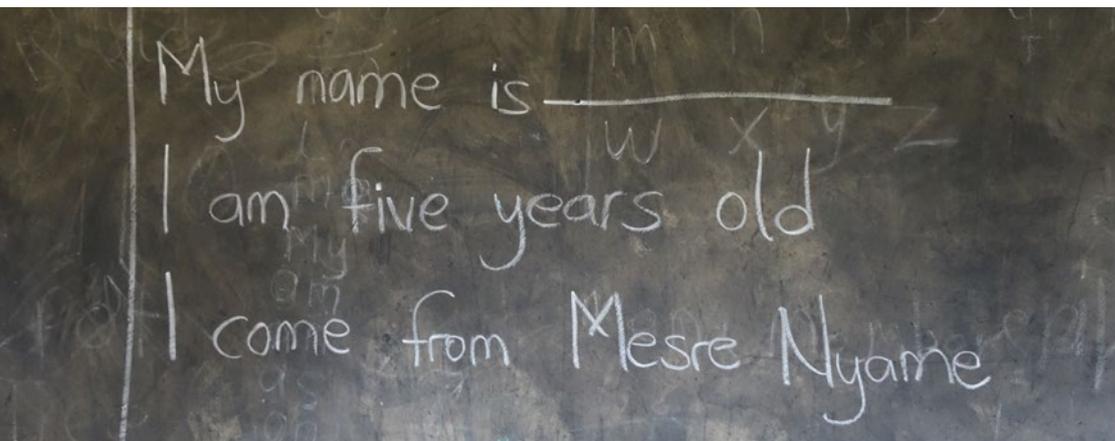
- *Low* if they lead to some form of punishment (e.g. exclusion from the farmers’ group and loss of premium in the case of certification)
- *Neutral* if there are no consequences to identification, or

- *High* if they lead to some form of benefit in terms of remediation support (e.g. schooling support, IGA, etc.)

Even though comparing the cost-effectiveness of the different approaches presented in this chapter has not been possible, the following table provides a sense of the lessons learned and good practices identified in the process of this review:

<p>Lessons Learned</p> <hr/> <p>Good Practices</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Farmers’ self-assessment, phone interviews or other remote and indirect contacts do not qualify as “observation”. 4. Choose monitors from within the target community, or at least someone farmers know and trust (e.g. an agronomist regularly visiting farmers in the case of a supply-chain based monitoring). 5. Mapping, taking advantage of and building upon existing structures when defining a monitoring approach eases the set-up and, most importantly, ensures greater sustainability of any child labour monitoring system. Specifically, making use of existing supply-chain structures (e.g. agronomist visits, cooperative management capacities, etc.) makes logistical and financial sense for sector-specific monitoring (cocoa, tobacco), where scattered farms are to be visited. 6. Schools might be a challenging entry point for child labour monitoring in some parts of rural West Africa where educational systems are limited. 7. Regular school attendance cannot be the sole criterion to define that a child is not in child labour. 8. Household monitoring, as opposed to just workplace monitoring, is required to prevent the transfer of children from one sector to another. 9. Monitoring visits have to happen at least once a year to be considered regular and ongoing. 10. The mere visual inspection of a farm, without having any interaction with either adults or children present, is not sufficient to be considered monitoring. Some form of interview is required to be able to assess child labour situations. 11. The planning of monitoring visits needs to take into consideration peaks in farm activities and school schedules. 12. A combination of both unannounced and announced visits may lead to achieving the most realistic level of identification.
<p>Recommendations for the 2nd round of the Effectiveness Review</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> C. Pool information from all CocoaAction companies and other actors operating CLMSs on the beneficiaries-per-monitor ratio, their level of compensation, their means of transport (bike, motorbike, etc.), the average distance to the farmers. D. Compare identification/remediation rates according to the indicators described in recommendation C)
<p>Project-specific recommendations to implementers</p>	<p>-</p>
<p>General recommendations for the cocoa sector and CocoaAction</p>	<p>-</p>

3. IDENTIFICATION AND DATA COLLECTION



A. Identification

Definition

The cornerstone of any monitoring effort consists of *“identifying children doing agricultural work and determining whether they are exploited or exposed to work or working conditions that put them at risk or are inappropriate for their age.”*⁵⁵

However, the review of the available documents and the answers to the online survey did not allow for the identification of one single set of questions, or a universal method that would best trigger the identification of child labour cases in any smallholder agricultural context. The question as to when and according to which procedure a CLMS will declare that a child is considered to be in child labour, can therefore not be answered in general terms. Evidently, the identification of child labour cases is based on relevant international conventions and their translation in national laws, but there are variances in the different methodologies leading to identification and therefore follow-up, tracking, referral, etc. In the GIG PPP project⁵⁶ for example, the identification of child labour cases is made according to the following definition, made operational through detailed questionnaires (see next section) that are administered by monitors during the observation visits:

Child labour refers to work that is unacceptable for children because:

- the child is either too young to enter work or employment, or because the work prevents

a child from attending school regularly or impedes a child’s ability to learn (see Convention No. 138); or

- the conditions under which the child works and the safety, health, and environmental hazards to which the child is exposed as well as the duration of work (Art. 3 of Convention No. 138).
- The work concerned falls under Art. 3a (forms of slavery), 3b (forms of sexual exploitation), 3c (illicit activities) or 3d (hazardous work) of Convention No. 182 (see below under 2).

To take a more concrete example from the tobacco sector, one respondent based its identification on ILO Convention No. 138 using “Measurable Standards”, which should allow the company to assess progress over time:

- The minimum age for admission to work is not less than the age for the completion of compulsory schooling and, in all cases, is not less than 15 years or the minimum age provided by the country’s laws, whichever affords greater protection.
- No person below 18 is involved in any type of hazardous work.
- In the case of family farms, a child may only help on his or her family’s farm provided that the work is light and the child is between 13 and 15 years old or above the minimum age for light work as defined by the country’s laws, whichever affords greater protection.



The respondent also provided some more detailed information related to the list of hazardous activities. It highlights the parallels between cocoa and other crops: *“A significant part of our and our suppliers’ guidance and training to Field Technicians, farmers and workers is related to child labour and hazardous work. What is ultimately defined as acceptable work for children varies from country to country, as well as among sectors within countries. A concrete but non-exhaustive and not definite list of hazardous activities, considering the most common tasks in tobacco farming, can be found below:*

- Driving vehicles or operating machinery with moving parts;
- Using sharp tools in movement (e.g. stalk cutting with a machete);
- Handling and applying crop protection agents or fertilizers;
- Carrying heavy loads (e.g. loading curing barns);
- Working at heights (e.g. in a curing barn);
- Working long hours that interfere with health and well-being;
- Working in extreme temperatures;
- Working at night;
- Harvesting, topping and suckering (e.g. GTS exposure).”

Beyond reference to the international conventions, a respondent to the online survey, uses the following approach to define cases of child labour: *“The indicator that we use to define a child out of school is: a child that does not attend school at all or has an attendance rate of less than 75%. We consider a child out of school to be a child labourer.”* While ICI bases its identification procedure on *“children’s involvement in hazardous tasks as defined in by the Ivorian law in Arrêté n°009 MEMEASS/CAB”* without consideration to the schooling status.⁵⁷

Children in child labour and children at risk

The PPP project⁵⁸ makes a difference between ‘children identified to be in child labour’ and ‘children judged to be at risk of child labour’. The latter are identified as siblings of identified children or children considered ‘at risk’.

“A “high risk” situation refers to a set of conditions or circumstances (family environment or situation, vicinity of economic activities known to employ children, etc.) under which the child lives or to which it is exposed. Children at high risk of engaging in exploitative/hazardous work could also include children who are not yet in school as well as those currently in school but at high risk of

dropping out. Usually a clear definition for “high-risk” is provided in the project document. If not, the Project Manager should define “high risk” in the context of the project.”

One of the respondent has a more operational definition to identify children at risk. It uses the wealth ranking participatory approach and ensures that the most vulnerable children are selected for the programme:

- Children living in extreme poverty, according to local standards set by members of the community;
- Children who are orphaned, are HIV/AIDS-affected or head/ live in a child-headed household;
- Siblings of children engaged in exploitive labour or formerly engaged in exploitive labour;
- Children receiving assistance from the community (accommodation, clothing, food)
- Children living in the vicinity of economic activities prone to employing children;⁵⁹

With exception of one or two examples, the rest of the literature and the respondents to the online survey do not make specific mention of the concept of children at risk and no clear definition, identification method or dedicated prevention recommendations have been found. A comparison between the impact on child labour rates of CLMS using this definition of children at risk, versus those who do not, has not been possible either. The prevention of these cases would likely be partly addressed by the overall awareness-raising interventions of the CLMS as well as the household and community-based remediation interventions (see below).

There isn't any clear sense from the documents reviewed that a CLMS should categorically define, monitor and track children that are 'at risk' of child labour.

B. Data collection – indicators

There seems to be a general consensus in the literature on the fact that child labour identification needs to be documented through a data collection process that goes beyond “child labour: yes / no” questions. Furthermore, the ILO underlines the importance of establishing a robust data management system to make it possible to use

the data to respond to children's needs in the most efficient and timely way possible⁶⁰ as well as inform policies and the planning of social interventions.⁶¹ While this question was not part of the online survey, the literature reviewed gives some indication of the type of data that a child labour monitoring system is expected to gather. This will be presented in this section.

According to the ILO Child Labour Monitoring Resources Kit, there are at least three general sets of data to be collected:⁶²

- information about the child
- information about the workplace, and
- information about the school or other service sites that are part of the referral system

There is also a sense in some reports that data collection should take the gender perspective into account,^{63 64} at least through the separation of indicators by gender.

Below is an example of the monitoring forms developed by the Ghana CLM system in Commercial Agriculture:⁶⁵

- Form No. 1: The child receiving support
- Form No. 2: The school/education institution
- Form No. 3: The workplace/employers
- Form No. 4: Girls and boys in labour situations

Each system having seemingly different questionnaires, it is difficult to define which exact questions should be integrated into CLMS interviews. While detailed questionnaires would be available in the literature or upon request to some respondents of the online survey, a comparative analysis of those would represent a significant endeavour and go beyond the scope of this initial review. Identifying overlapping questions across different systems and defining standard questionnaires for the whole cocoa sector could however potentially help create consistency across different approaches.

According to the ILO's Rooting out Child Labour from Cocoa Farms paper, the following indicators, disaggregated by gender, should be tracked:

- *The number of children interviewed and identified working in cocoa production*

- *The number of children interviewed and identified working in cocoa farms under hazardous conditions*
- *The number of children withdrawn from work in the cocoa production and enrolled in a) schools; b) vocational training*
- *The number of children withdrawn from hazardous work in the cocoa production and enrolled in a) schools; b) vocational training*
- *The number of farms and families active in the cocoa production interviewed employing children*
- *The number of farms and families active in the cocoa production interviewed that are free of child labour*
- *The number of schools visited indicating the number of enrolled children and the number of enrolled former child workers*⁶⁶

CocoaAction is a voluntary industry-wide strategy that aligns the world's leading cocoa and chocolate companies, governments and key stakeholders on regional priority issues in cocoa sustainability, including child labour. Amongst other, it requires participating companies to track the following indicators in relation to child labour monitoring:

- 2.2a: # and % of communities with CPC or similar that function effectively
- 2.2b: # and % of children in CocoaAction farmers' households in child labour
- 2.2c: # and % of children in non-CocoaAction farmers' households in child labour
- 2.2d: # and % of assisted child labour cases no longer in child labour
- 2.2e: # and % of farmers' households covered by CLMRS⁶⁷

While Winrock suggests the following list of potential indicators:

- number of beneficiaries who successfully complete their academic year and pass on to the next stage of their education
- number who move successfully from bridging non-formal to formal school classes
- number of child labourers withdrawn from hazardous workplaces and enrolled in school
- number of children who have dropped out of school and returned to work⁶⁸

Among all CLMSs reviewed, the one tracked indicator that seems to be fundamental is the number of children identified/assisted who are no longer in child labour.

C. Interview methods – child safeguarding

Some recommendations were found in the literature about how to conduct interviews, especially with children. The ILO's *Sample "Setting the Climate"* checklist for interviewing girls and boys gives advice including the following:

- "Conduct interviews in a neutral setting, and preferably in a place where girls and boys feel safe and comfortable"⁶⁹
- Start the interview with small talk to make the child feel at ease
- Phrase your questions in a simple way that the child will easily be able to understand"⁷⁰ etc.

The online survey did not include any question on the way interviews are conducted and the information contained in the reviewed literature has not provided the possibility to compare the effectiveness of different interview approaches. For example to find out whether conducting an interview in one way or another leads to higher or lower identification rates.

The Winrock Best Practices Report gives similar recommendations and it also stresses the importance of adding child-safeguarding considerations in the interview process to prevent monitors from abusing their positions.⁷¹ It is surprising what little attention is given to procedures around child-safeguarding in the literature, considering the potential risk of child abuse associated with the setting-up of a CLMS and recommendations that adult monitors receive to interact with vulnerable children. One of these is: "*conduct the interview out of sight and earshot of employers, peers and others who may influence the way in which the child acts and responds to the questions.*"⁷²



D. Confidentiality of the data collected

One additional aspect in relation to data collection in the context of child labour monitoring relates to the ethical consideration around confidentiality and access to information. The latter *“should be carefully limited to those who are an essential part of the rehabilitation of the child and that due attention is given to how information is stored, edited and made available to different actors in society.”*⁷³ Information also needs to be collected and stored in a reliable and confidential manner, respecting the child’s right to privacy.⁷⁴ Furthermore, the ILO stresses the importance of seeking consent from respondents before collecting data through interviews.⁷⁵

One example taken from ICI’s Côte d’Ivoire operations is that data collection and management is regulated by law under the Autorité de Régulation des Télécommunications de Côte d’Ivoire (ARTCI). The CLMS’ data collection

component has to be registered and authorised by ARTCI. This has involved the nomination of a data collection officer within the organisation who must abide by certain procedures in terms of confidentiality and data transfer.

E. Conclusions on identification and data collection

There is no one-size-fits-all identification method or a defined set of data to be collected that could apply to any one CLMS. The type of data collected and the method used to declare that a child is in a situation of child labour will depend on the design, scope and objective of the individual CLMS. The information reviewed in the context of this exercise has not given rise to the possibility of comparing different identification approaches and different types of data collection systems, their cost or impact, and their effectiveness. Nevertheless, the following table provides a sense of the lessons learned and good practices identified in the process of this review:

<p>Lessons Learned</p> <hr/> <p>Good Practices</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 13. Beyond references to international convention and national laws, there does not seem to be a one-size-fits-all identification procedure to declare that a child is in child labour. 14. The definition, monitoring and tracking of children that are ‘at risk’ of child labour, as opposed to those that are in child labour situations, does not seem to be considered a constitutive part of CLMS. 15. The number of children identified/assisted that are no longer in child labour is one key indicator that should be captured by any CLMS. 16. Mandating adults to interact with vulnerable children in the context of CLMS represents a child protection risk. The management of such risks should be anticipated and planned for in the conduct of CLMS operations. 17. Data should be collected with the consent of respondents and in agreement with laws and regulation in place. 18. The data collected within the context of a CLMS should be treated with confidentiality.
<p>Recommendations for the 2nd round of the Effectiveness Review</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> E. Compare existing data collection tools and define a list of common questions and indicators used across different systems.
<p>Project-specific recommendations to implementers</p>	<p>-</p>
<p>General recommendations for the cocoa sector and CocoaAction</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> F. Agree on a unified procedure to identify cases of child labour based on existing national legislations and international conventions. G. Develop/adapt existing interview guides for monitors that encompass good practices in child labour identification (age verification techniques, etc.) and include a strong child-safeguarding component to become part of the mandatory training of all monitors. H. Gather legal requirements for the operation of a CLMS in Ghana and Côte d’Ivoire in a short guide to be shared with the whole cocoa sector.

4. RESPONSE: WITHDRAWAL, REFERRAL AND REMEDIATION



There is a clear sense from the literature that child labour monitoring must not stop with the identification, but has to encompass some form of follow-up for identified cases, ranging from awareness-raising and in the most extreme cases of exploitation, to withdrawal.⁷⁶ This section presents the list of remediation activities found in the literature and responses to the online survey. It will then address considerations related to the child's best interest and the nature of the system's response to identification.

A. Types of remediation activities

The following list of remediation activities emerged from the reports mentioning this component as well as from the responses to the online survey.⁷⁷ It is to be noted that support to children following their identification can take place at three different levels: i) individual remediation targeting the child him/herself; ii) in households, targeting the family of the identified child as well as iii) at community level.

Type of remediation	Individual	Household	Community
Support for transportation to school (sandals, bicycles, etc.)	X		
Support to attend school (school bags, text books, school uniform, etc.)	X		
Literacy classes/ remedial education	X		
Vocational training	X		
Cash to support the payment of school fees / scholarships		X	
Summer camps during harvesting season	X		
Income generating activities supporting parents of children (soap making, etc.)		X	
Community service groups		X	X
Counselling services / psycho-social support	X	X	
Classroom equipment			X
School building renovation			X

Type of remediation	Individual	Household	Community
School canteen			X
Birth certificates	X		
Referral to health/welfare schemes	X		
After-school activities/hobby/sports classes	X		
Community action plan development			X
Financial education trainings		X	
Saving and loan groups		X	X
Introduction of labour-saving techniques		X	

Depending on the context and the body in charge of the monitoring, these services may be provided ‘in-house’ or through a “referral to government entities (schools and health stations), NGOs, faith- or community-based initiatives, etc.”

B. Best interests of the child - Assisting vs withdrawing

Although not explicitly mentioned in the CLMS-specific literature or the responses to the online survey, it would seem natural to consider that the principle of best interests of the child,⁷⁸ as derived from art. 3 of the UN Convention of the Child, should be applied to any form of assistance provided to children found to be in child labour situations. This might be why, according to the ILO’s Child Labour Monitoring Resources Kit, “monitoring rarely involves physical removal of the child.” ICI’s CLMS experience in Côte d’Ivoire, where most cocoa production sites are small family farms, confirms this assessment. Out of more than 5,000 cases of child labour identified, not once has the physical removal of the child (away from home and placed in a caring structure) been considered in his/her best interest. However, in “the case of [...] unconditional forms of child labour, such as commercial sexual exploitation or trafficking of children, the removal of a child from the situation is the only option. In this case, the referral mechanism often includes special services, such as psycho-social help and halfway houses where child labourers get immediate assistance. The identification and removal of the child in this case is an immediate act of rescue and often conducted

by specialised rapid action teams or multi-sector monitoring/law enforcement task forces.”⁷⁹

C. Punitive vs supportive response

Another aspect that has not been explicitly mentioned in the literature but that is worth addressing is whether a system’s response to child labour is supportive or punitive. The origin of the ICI CLMRS can be traced back to a 2012 FLA audit of the Nestlé cocoa supply-chain in Côte d’Ivoire where cases of child labour were found in certified farmers’ groups that were deemed to be ‘child labour free’. It appeared clear that the compliance approach (i.e. is there child labour in the farmers’ group: yes or no?) to the certification standards contributed to hiding the problem, since farmers knew they would lose their certification premium if they reported child labour, so this was a negative financial incentive. The ICI CLMRS has since found an average of one in five children involved in hazardous activities in the certified cooperatives in which it has set-up its CLMRS. This difference can be explained by the supportive nature of the CLMRS and since then, certification standards such as UTZ have adopted this approach. The CLMRS offers support to children involved in hazardous activities and their household rather than punishing them for declaring their involvement in activities that are hazardous. This paradigm shift is seen as having allowed child labour (previously under the radar of certification) to come to the surface.

D. Conclusions regarding the responses to identification

The information contained in the reports reviewed has not allowed for a comparison of the impact of different referral/assistance mechanisms to determine which form of assistance has proven to be the most efficient in preventing children from ‘re-entering’ child labour. Therefore, while some indication of the cost of remediation is available from the ILO PPP reports and the responses to the online survey, it has not been possible to

match that information with the rate of children taken out from child labour situations in such a way that would determine the cost-effectiveness of each referral/assistance mechanism. It is also to be noted that having a supportive, rather than punitive approach to remediation, has a positive impact on the identification rates and contributes to bringing child labour to the surface.

The following table provides a sense of the lessons learned and good practices identified in the process of this review:

<p>Lessons Learned</p> <hr/> <p>Good Practices</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 19. Child labour monitoring must not stop with the identification but has to encompass some form of follow-up and remediation/assistance for identified cases. 20. Such assistance has to be provided based on the principle of “best interests of the child”. In the context of smallholder family farms, the child’s removal (away from his/her home to be placed in a caring structure) seems to be only exceptionally warranted (e.g. cases of forced child labour). 21. Supportive, rather than punitive response to the identification of child labour contributes to bringing cases to the surface rather than hiding them.
<p>Recommendations for the 2nd round of the Effectiveness Review</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> I. Disaggregate results (e.g. the number of children once identified and no longer in child labour) according to the type of remediation support received and, wherever possible, match it with information on the household and community environment to identify the strategies that are most efficient in reducing child labour
<p>Project-specific recommendations to implementers</p>	<p>-</p>
<p>General recommendations for the cocoa sector and CocoaAction</p>	<p>-</p>

5. TRACKING



According to the ILO's Overview of CLMSs, monitoring has to go beyond awareness-raising, observation, identification and assistance to *"verify that they [children identified] have been removed (or that risks have been reduced to an acceptable level) and to track them to ensure that they have satisfactory alternatives."*⁸⁰ *"An active tracking mechanism ensures that proper action has been taken and that information about this action is recorded, available and withstands scrutiny."*⁸¹ In this context, one question receives some attention in the literature reviewed: the procedure to declare that a child is no longer in child labour after they have been identified and potentially supported by the CLMS.

The PPP Technical Progress Report⁸² gives the following two definitions to consider that a child is either "withdrawn" or "prevented" from entering child labour:

- **Children withdrawn:** This refers to those children who were found to be working in child labour (i.e. work that should not be allowed for children – see definition above) and no longer work in such unacceptable work as a result of educational services and/or training opportunities or other non-education related services provided by a project. This category includes children completely withdrawn from child labour, as identified under ILO Convention Nos. 138 and 182. It also includes those children that were

engaged in hazardous work (see definition 1 above) or work that impedes their education and as a result of a project intervention their work is no longer considered hazardous (e.g., shorter hours, safer conditions) and it does not interfere with schooling.

- **Children prevented from entering work:** In order to be considered as "prevented", these children must have benefited directly from a project intervention.

In the case of the PPP project, the procedure to declare that a supported child is no longer in, or prevented from, child labour is linked to the project's direct beneficiary monitoring and reporting (DBMR). According to the PPP Technical Progress Report⁸³, such declaration is made following *"a minimum of 2 monitoring visits after receiving direct support"* though the same report also states that *"children [...] have been monitored once and considered to be prevented from child labour."*

For the ICI CLMRS in Côte d'Ivoire, the procedure to declare that a child is no longer in child labour is as follows: six months after identification, the child is monitored once to assess if she/he has, since the last interview, been engaged in any hazardous activities, or not. This same procedure is repeated three months later. If the child declares to be no longer involved in any hazardous activity after two consecutive tracking visits, then he/she is considered no longer in child labour and the

“An active tracking mechanism ensures that proper action has been taken and that information about this action is recorded, available and withstands scrutiny.”

specific tracking procedure stops. This particular child then falls back under the ‘normal’ regular monitoring undergone by all children in the system.

Other respondents to the online survey do not seem to put too much emphasis on this particular question and work towards the broader goal of increased child protection at community level: *“In many cases these children are identified as ‘high risk’ children, meaning they are at high risk of dropping out of school and receive extra attention in ensuring they stay in school. [...] Up until now the declaration of a specific child to be no longer in child labour has not seemed a very relevant question for us, as we focus more on the change in the community as a whole. However, for the future this is something we would like to explore further, as we do believe it would be good to be able to monitor (sustainable) change more closely.”*⁸⁴

There is no consistency in the documents analysed for this review when it comes to defining a procedure by which an identified child is declared to be no longer involved in child labour, nor how long the tracking of identified children should last for, or how many tracking visits this should include. Considering the importance of this one crucial question in determining the ability of a system to take identified children out of a child labour situation, it is surprising what little attention is given to this particular aspect. As a consequence, it has not been possible to define any emerging good practice in this area or to conduct any cost-effectiveness analysis of different approaches for this aspect of a CLMS.

<p>Recommendations for the 2nd round of the Effectiveness Review</p>	<p>-</p>
<p>Project-specific recommendations to implementers</p>	<p>-</p>
<p>General recommendations for the cocoa sector and CocoaAction</p>	<p>J. Define a unified procedure to declare that a once identified/assisted child is no longer in child labour and ensure that moves between those two categories can be captured by the different systems.</p>

6. THIRD PARTY VERIFICATION



According to the ILO Guidelines, a CLMS “need to ensure that quality control measures and verification are developed and put in place. This is important for the credibility and accuracy of the data collected from the workplace and the community.”⁸⁵

More specifically related to the issues faced by the cocoa industry, the same Guidelines state that “If your monitoring process has a significant role in establishing that child labour is not used in a particular sector or industry (especially in export industries), then you may need to consider a more robust external verification system where

international organisations, private social audit firms or other neutral parties can be called upon to verify that the information provided by the CLM is correct and truthfully reflects the local situation.”

The online survey did not include any question on this component, though one respondent stated that they have an external monitoring system that “consists of country-specific external assessments conducted by an independent third-party, Control Union Certifications, to evaluate the implementation of the labour practice programme and the working and living conditions of farmers and workers. These assessments include the respondent’s affiliates or suppliers’ commitments



to change conditions on farms in light of the findings and reflecting the improvement needs and priorities. The company fully discloses and shares with external stakeholders detailed reports of these assessments” It is also to be noted that two respondents are members of the Fair Labour Association and even though the yearly assessment doesn’t seem to target specifically their CLMS, its management and outputs, it provides some form of external scrutiny around their operation. It is also worth mentioning that, as of January 2016, CLM is part of the new UTZ Code of Conduct

and that certain control points (conduct of a risk assessment, appointment of Child Labour liaisons, documenting monitoring and remediation actions, etc.) will be audited once a year in certified farmers’ groups. More information might therefore be available in 2017 and 2018.

The limited information gathered has however not allowed to define any emerging good practice in this area, or to conduct any cost-effectiveness analysis of different third party verification approaches.

Recommendations for the 2nd round of the Effectiveness Review	-
Project-specific recommendations to implementers	K. Define unified terms of reference with control points for third party verifications of CLMS.
General recommendations for the cocoa sector and CocoaAction	-

7. PARTNERSHIPS

There is clear sense from reviewing the literature, that child labour monitoring requires coordination and partnership between different actors. This is even one of the success criteria for a CLMS according to the ILO.⁸⁶ As mentioned above, child labour monitoring efforts can take varying forms and build upon different existing structures and there is not therefore a one-size-fits-all form of coordination between a clear set of defined partners that could be applied to any system, anywhere.

Nevertheless, the literature repeatedly argues for the involvement of national authorities from the Ministries of Education and Labour at central level to regional and local government bodies.⁸⁷

This is considered crucial by the ILO’s Rooting out Child Labour from Cocoa Farms paper as the aggregated data produced by any child monitoring system can be used for periodic appraisals of child labour trends, for social planning, reporting, policy development, etc. Furthermore, collaboration is also recommended with workers’ and employers’ organisations, certification schemes, industry, etc., as it will inform their own planning and support their efforts in eradicating child labour.⁸⁸

This aspect seems to be already integrated in the operational CLMS present by respondents to the online survey since all of them reported to be collaborating with authorities at different levels.

Lessons Learned

Good Practices

- 22. Share gathered information with government authorities to support their policy and social planning efforts.
- 23. Enter partnerships with existing structures already working on the issue of child labour or having structures in place that can be used as a platform to establish a CLMS.



PART 2

Cost-Effectiveness Comparisons

“Some systems consider that children in school have been successfully assisted while others consider that the sole fact of having benefited from the system’s remediation assistance means children are prevented from entering child labour. With such disparate criteria, comparing the effectiveness of different systems is particularly difficult.”

In the first part of this report, the key components of CLMS have been presented and different approaches/models discussed with their strengths and limitations. Lessons learned and potential good practices have been listed alongside recommendations to actors working in the specific context of the Cocoa Sector in West Africa.

In this second part of the report, information on the scale, cost and effectiveness of the different approaches will be presented and discussed. Some questions surrounding the financial sustainability of CLMS will also be raised.

1. SCALE OF THE SYSTEMS



In order to be able to compare different models and their approaches, it is important to start by getting a sense of their history and scale. The starting dates of the systems presented by the respondents to the online survey show how recent such community-based and supply-chain due diligence systems are. The tables below give a sense of the number of children identified, assisted or prevented by the different systems/projects, in addition to the number of communities in which the different systems are operational

(though it is to be noted that some approaches have a community-wide approach and that their intervention within each community might be more intensive than that of supply-chain-based models).

In conclusion, there does not seem to be any operational CLMS in the smallholder agricultural sector that is older than five years. With the exception of one respondent, whose programme and the corresponding monitoring of farms is

Table 1. Overview of scale and scope of the different systems

Organisation	Year of establishment	# of individual households monitored	# countries	No of communities in which the system operates	
				Community-Wide	Supply-Chain-based
Respondent 1	2014	32,594 households	4	79	No info
Respondent 2	2012	30,548 farmers and their households	1		1'071
Respondent 3	No info	2,942 (not clear whether households or individuals)	1	94	No info
Respondent 4	No info	No info	1	45	No info
Respondent 5	2011	30,000 farmers and their households as of 2016	6	73	No info
Respondent 6	2014	973 farmers	1	No info	19
Respondent 7	2011	450,000 farms	30	No info	No info

Table 2. Overview of the systems’ identification of child labour cases

	No of Children Monitored	No of Children Withdrawn	No of Children Prevented	No of Children Identified	Identification rate*
Respondent 1	67,814	No info	No info	No info	No info
Respondent 2	37,287	Indicator will be available from Dec 2016	No info	5’135	14%
Respondent 3	No info	No info	No info	No info	No info
Respondent 4	6,348	No info	No info	2’234	35%
Respondent 5	No info	Moving away from this definition.	No info	9,437	No info
Respondent 6	1,801	19	No info	93	5%
Respondent 7	712,000 farmers’ children	No info	No info	No info	No info

* Differences in methodologies and the definition of indicators have to be taken into account when comparing results from this table. The identification rate was calculated by ICI based on the information provided and it is only indicative.

applied in 30 countries, the scale of each different private CLMS does not reach more than 30,000 households at once.

The data showed in the above tables provide a tangible example of the type of issues emerging when comparing different CLMS models. Even the most basic quantitative data regarding the number of people covered is difficult to compare

as some systems will record the number of farms, while others will count households or entire communities. Furthermore, different organisations will have a different understanding of what “monitored” means. Some will consider that a child living in a community where they are intervening is monitored, while others will only count children directly interviewed and for which data is available in their database.

Recommendations for the 2nd round of the Effectiveness Review	-
Project-specific recommendations to implementers	-
General recommendations for the cocoa sector and CocoaAction	L. Agree on a definition of what “covered” or “monitored by the system” means practically to allow for better comparison between systems.

2. EFFECTIVENESS CRITERIA



In order to be able compare the effectiveness of different models, one has first to identify what defines an ‘effective’ CLMS. The previously mentioned indicator measuring the number of identified children no longer in child labour as a result of the system’s assistance, probably represents the main way to judge the effectiveness of a CLMS. This is because it would provide the possibility of assessing its ability to identify and remove children from child labour situations, although one could also define a certain number of vulnerability criteria and judge a system’s effectiveness by its ability to decrease the level of vulnerability of children.

However, as we have seen under section VI., there is no common procedure to declare that a child is no longer at risk of, or in a child labour situation. Some systems consider that children in school have been successfully assisted while others consider that the sole fact of having benefited from the system’s remediation assistance means children are prevented from entering child labour. With such disparate criteria, comparing the effectiveness of different systems is particularly difficult.

Nevertheless, the literature provides some help to identify criteria that could be used to determine the effectiveness of different CLMSs. The ILO’s CLM Resources Kit⁸⁹ provides the following characteristics/conditions for a CLMS to be considered successful:

- **“Wide application:** *The coverage of CLM should be as wide as possible; both geographically and in terms of the types of child labour targeted. [To be most useful, CLM should be inclusive of all types of child labour, and be area-based rather than limited to a particular sector]*⁹⁰
- **Local community involvement:** *CLM operates at the local level, covers work and service sites and includes a referral system to access services*
- **Legal mandate:** *CLM has a legal mandate and operates under the authority and supervision of the local government or labour inspectorate*
- **Political commitment:** *CLM is most effective when it is mainstreamed and operated within the system of governance*
- **Relevance to policies:** *CLM is linked to national child labour policy and action*
- **Clear roles and responsibilities:** *Institutions dealing with management and workplace monitoring activities and forming part of the referral system have specific tasks*
- **Sustainability:** *CLM should be sustainable in terms of technical complexity, human resource requirements and cost*
- **Potential for replication and scaling-up**
- **Viable information collection systems**
- **Transparency:** *For CLM to be credible it must be based on good governance and transparency”*

These criteria provide a useful checklist to get a general sense of an approach, even though most of them are not SMART⁹¹ enough (e.g. potential for replication and scaling-up) to be tracked and measured in an accurate way. The current CocoaAction strategy is less prescriptive in terms of model design/set-up and seems to have adopted a more output-based approach to measuring the efficiency of a CLMS, linking it to the ability of a system to generate the following data:

- Average number of hours of CL awareness-raising per year / per community delivered by the system
- Average number of hours of training undergone by those responsible for monitoring and remediation
- Percentage of farmers (farmers' group members or community members) covered by the system
- Average number of monitoring visits/contacts per farmer covered, per year
- Number of CL cases identified as a % of children monitored (compared to known local baselines)
- Percentage of identified CL cases followed-up
- Percentage of identified CL cases assisted (through remediation or referral)
- Percentage of assisted CL cases no longer in child labour (cocoa-related or other) after the assistance⁹²

Those two sets of criteria are very different by nature and, in the absence of benchmarks, comparison between the efficiency of different models remains very difficult. Nevertheless, the latter criteria have been used to design the online survey as part of this Review. The questionnaire responses provided by the seven different organisations allow for some limited comparison, at least in the ability to provide answers and offer data on each one of the different indicators. However, it has to be noted that different approaches track different indicators and define the success of their model in different ways. Certain models which cannot provide information under some of these criteria (e.g. Respondent 1 on the hours of awareness-raising per community), are able to provide other types of similar information (e.g. how many children involved in awareness raising activities, how many teachers trained or how many radio messages broadcasted, etc.). The exercise therefore partly consists in 'comparing apples and pears', especially since, as mentioned under part 1, section 1, the impact of different awareness-raising methods is often not measured accurately or at least not uniformly.

The following table shall help the reader get a quick sense of the different models' responses to the CocoaAction effectiveness criteria.

“different organizations will have a different understanding of what “monitored” means. Some will consider that a child living in a community where they are intervening is monitored, while others will only count children directly interviewed and for which data is available in their database.”

	Respondent 1	Respondent 2	Respondent 3	Respondent 4	Respondent 5	Respondent 6	Respondent 7
Average number of hours of CL awareness-raising per year / per community delivered by the system	Difficult to say	12h/year/ community	No info	2h	No info	No info	No info
Average number of hours of training undergone by those responsible for monitoring and remediation	Difficult to say	8.5 days of 8 hours training = 68h	No info	6 days of 7 hours = 42 hours	2 days per year	16 hours of training over 2 days	In 2015, this respondent organised approximately 5,200 training sessions for 3,500 field technicians
Average number of monitoring visits/ contacts per farmer covered, per year	On average every 3-6 months	In 2015, the average was 2.0 visits per producer per year. The target is 3 visits per year	No info	"Regularly"	1 visit in 2 months	Every 6 - 12 months	On average, field technicians visit each farm five times per year. In Brazil, there were over seven visits throughout the crop season
Number of CL cases identified as a % of children monitored	20.4% of the total number of children aged 6 -14 in the identified area were out of school. 23.8% of the children aged 15-17 were out of school	By December 2015, the system had identified 5,135 children involved in hazardous activities amongst 26,679 children aged 5-17 (thus representing 19%). This represents 15% if calculated against the 33,593 children aged 0 – 17 years	No info	No info	9,437 children identified, brought to formal or non-formal education and monitored	93 children identified in CL 5% of the total number of children	Expl. from Mozambique: data from 2014-2015 shows a reduction of around 30% in "prompt action" situations related to child labour (amounting to a total incidence of 1.3%) and falling levels of child labour incidents involving the hiring of minors

 Data available

 Other form of similar data available, though does not make it possible to respond to exact criteria

 No data available/provided

	Respondent 1	Respondent 2	Respondent 3	Respondent 4	Respondent 5	Respondent 6	Respondent 7
(compared to known local baselines)	External baseline in Erussi sub-county, carried out by Respondent 1 (2015): 27.8% of all children aged 5-17 are considered to be 'out of school'	The latest 2013/2014 Tulane University Report states that 30.9% of children in cocoa growing areas, age 5-17 years, in hazardous work in the cocoa sector in the last 12 months, in Côte d'Ivoire	No info	No info	No info	No info	See above
Percentage of identified CL cases followed-up	Currently – after almost 2 years of project implementation – 4.7% of the children aged 6 - 14 in the identified area that is working towards a child labour free zone are still out of school. Of the children aged 15 -17, 5.5% are still out of school	By December 2015, 3,591 children out of 5,135 identified (70%) had been followed up through a specific interview and a targeted household-level awareness-raising session	No info	100%	100%	100%	100%

-  Data available
-  Other form of similar data available, though does not make it possible to respond to exact criteria
-  No data available/provided

	Respondent 1	Respondent 2	Respondent 3	Respondent 4	Respondent 5	Respondent 6	Respondent 7
Percentage of identified CL cases assisted (through remediation or referral)	100%	3'591 children out of 5,135 identified (70%) have been assisted through targeted awareness-raising or direct and household-level remediation support.	No info	2,234 children assisted in 7 districts	100%	100%	100%
Percentage of assisted CL cases no longer in child labour (cocoa-related or other) after the assistance	Difficult to say	Indicator will be available by Dec 2016	No info	No info	100%	20%, the remaining 80% representing the remediation for the 93 children, is ongoing	No info

 Data available

 Other form of similar data available, though does not make it possible to respond to exact criteria

 No data available/provided

A quick review of the respondents’ answers to the CocoaAction effectiveness criteria show that most systems do not track this type of information at all, or at least not in a format that would allow them to be comparable. Even what appears to be the most

central of all indicators (i.e. the no./% of assisted CL cases no longer in child labour (cocoa-related or other) seem to be only tracked by one or two organisations.

Recommendations for the 2nd round of the Effectiveness Review	-
Project-specific recommendations to implementers	-
General recommendations for the cocoa sector and CocoaAction	M. Review and refine existing set of effectiveness criteria that is adapted to different CLMS and encourage companies in the sector to put in place data collection systems able to track them so that comparison between the effectiveness of different systems becomes possible.

3. COSTS



The second piece of the cost-effectiveness puzzle relates to the cost of the different systems and their individual components. The table below gives an overview of the information available from the literature and the responses to the online survey. It is to be noted that the remediation costs provided below are an indication of the input (i.e. the funds spent or available per child) and not outcome-

based (i.e. the amount required to successfully take a child out of a child labour situation). There is no evidence that the amount available for remediation automatically leads to a sustainable solution for the identified children. In addition, the costs below may well reflect different economic environments and were not adjusted by purchasing power parity.

	Respondent 1	Respondent 2	Respondent 3	Respondent 4	Respondent 5	Respondent 6	Respondent 7	PPP GH\$	PPP CDI
Total system cost	30,000 euros per year over 3 years for around 5000-6000 people and 3000-3600 children =25 to 30 euros total cost per child	\$264 / farmer over 3 years (\$88/farmer/year). After the initial 3 years period: 49 \$ farmer/year)	No info	No info	No info	No info	The implementation of the labour practice Programme is embedded in the respondent's affiliates and suppliers' day-to-day operations. More than 3,500 field technicians and dedicated Country Teams to oversee and support the ongoing work of the field technicians. Therefore, in order to calculate the total cost of implementing the labour practice Programme on a global scale, it would be necessary to consider these resources. In 2014, the respondent invested approximately \$31.1 million in Operational Initiatives and Corporate Contributions in communities (approximately \$23.7 million and \$7.4 million, respectively).	No info	No info
What is the average budget available for remediation/ assistance per monitored child on average?	See above	17 USD per monitored child, per year.	No info	No info	No info	It is case specific, obtaining birth certificate costs FCFA 16,500/ 28.5 USD for example)		15.45 USD ⁹³	27.36 USD ⁹⁴
What are the estimated set-up costs of the system per child monitored / covered?	See above	36 USD per monitored child.	No info	No info	No info	24.5 USD		12,141 USD to 13,842 USD/ community ⁹⁵	No info
What are the ongoing annual running costs per child monitored?	See above	17 USD per monitored child.	No info	No info	No info	6.4 USD		No info	No info
What is the average cost per household for the running of the CLMRS?	See above	30 USD per farmer/ household / year	No info	No info	No info	9.5 USD			
What is the average cost per farm for the running of the CLMRS?	See above	30 USD per farm / year	No info	No info	No info	11.3 USD			

The review of the information related to the cost of different systems extracted from the respondents' answers and the project reports consulted reveals once more the challenge to compare systems when the data is either not available, tracked or formatted in a uniform way. Some systems are able to generate specific information on the cost per child or household while others are monitoring

the funds used to operate in an entire community. For all systems presented above, little information is provided on the breakdown of these estimated costs and no link can be made to the effectiveness of each one of those systems or their individual components, thus rendering a comparison of cost-effectiveness nearly impossible.

<p>Recommendations for the 2nd round of the Effectiveness Review</p>	<p>-</p>
<p>Project-specific recommendations to implementers</p>	<p>-</p>
<p>General recommendations for the cocoa sector and CocoaAction</p>	<p>N. Encourage and help companies to isolate the unit cost of different key components of their CLMS (at least each remediation intervention - especially those at household and individual model) to be able to determine and compare their cost-effectiveness.</p>

4. THE FINANCIAL SUSTAINABILITY OF CLMS



A. Sustainability of National Systems in Ghana and Côte d'Ivoire

After gaining a sense of the cost of the different systems reviewed in this report, it is crucial to draw attention to the sustainability of the interventions and models presented. One of the basic principles of CLM is that, in order to be sustainable, it should be low cost, simple and linked to existing systems of governance/management. Issues of self-sufficiency and costs seem to be recurrent in the literature. The ILO therefore recommends ensuring the development and implementation of CLMSs is adequately funded and that there is a continuing commitment by the participating agencies to allocate financial and human resources to the actual monitoring work.⁹⁶ This is also linked to the fact that, as mentioned above (see part 1, section 2), one-off assessments and time-bound project M&E are not considered as “monitoring” since the observation and tracking of children is not ongoing.

The literature does not have a universal answer to the sustainability question, since child labour monitoring can take various forms and be more or less integrated into existing private, local or national governance/management structures. The challenges related to creating a sustainable system are well described in the Independent Final Evaluation of the Project “Combating Child Labour in cocoa-growing communities in Ghana

and Côte d'Ivoire (PPP)”, which highlights the dangers of funding national systems through discrete projects. While “the CLMSs implemented in both Ghana and Cote d'Ivoire proved to be effective mechanisms to detect and monitor and work against child labour in cocoa-growing communities” its longer-term sustainability is entirely dependent on Governments’ ability to fund and organise its scale-up.⁹⁷ However, the projection of the costs of a scale-up in Côte d'Ivoire by the final IPEC evaluation of the PPP/Mars Project shows how difficult it would be to fund from government budgets.⁹⁸ The report concludes that bringing the pilot to a larger scale “quickly shows its limits in terms of financial viability”.⁹⁹ Similarly, for Ghana, the final technical progress report’s assessment states: “The present structure, in terms of cost and operation arrangements, does not present a good prospect for up-scaling the system.”¹⁰⁰ The independent evaluation of the PPP project comes to similar conclusions when it states that “it is difficult to tell if this will be sustained over the long term.”¹⁰¹ A similar assessment is also presented in relation to the referral system: “without ongoing awareness creation, the informal system will not hold and depending on the intensity and frequency of the cases identified, the system may break down, especially if the local committees are not supported by a higher level body.”¹⁰² Specifically for Ghana, the Review of the GCLMS implementation reports that the “system is relatively time-consuming and has for many years had serious challenges regarding

*full implementation. [...] For proper up-scaling, simplicity is crucial.*¹⁰³

In summary, the Final Evaluation of the PPP reports states that *“with unreliable budget allocations to all state institutions, the intention to scale up the CLMSs in both countries may not materialise or follow a consistent implementation process without a deliberate external funding mechanism and a serious attempt to have it really integrated into existing state databases and mechanisms that support child protection and rights.”*¹⁰⁴

The different reports available for the desk review raise questions as to whether the SOSTECI and GCLMS have really remained operational after the end of the ILO funding in December 2014 and whether data collection, identification and remedial assistance is still conducted regularly in the target communities. The CCP independent final evaluation from September 2014 states that *“despite the setting-up of CLMS mechanisms in Ghana and Côte d’Ivoire, [...] its full implementation has not yet been achieved [and] at the time of this evaluation was conducted, there were no reliable national CLMS reports produced.”*¹⁰⁵ An earlier ILO project seemed to have faced similar challenges since *“although the CLMS was successful during its implementation, it is difficult to predict how sustainable the WACAP child labour monitoring system would be in West Africa because the project ended.”*¹⁰⁶

Taking into account those challenges, the following three strategies were highlighted in the literature to respond to the problems identified in this section and ensure greater sustainability of the systems’ set-up.

B. Strategies to Address Sustainability Issues

De-monetising

One evaluation of the PPP project suggests that the “monetisation” through bonuses at all levels, jeopardises the system’s future viability and recommends “demonetising” the data collection process, replacing monthly salaries or stipends paid to staff through i) income-generating activities for data collectors at community level and ii) at county level, securing the flow of information as part of

the “normal” functions designated to departmental authorities.¹⁰⁷ Similarly, the CCP Project Evaluation suggests that monitoring functions can be “simply” added to the role of existing labour and education inspectors, extension officers and teachers to ensure cost-efficiency.¹⁰⁸

As pointed out across the analysis conducted in part 1, section 2. of this report, volunteer monitoring structures do not seem to deliver the level of efficiency and commitment required to operate a CLMS with robust data collection systems, reliable identification and consistent tracking. Furthermore, adding responsibilities onto the ToR of professional groups and civilian servants that are already overstretched (e.g. teachers) seems hardly practicable in the rural West African context.

An additional perspective on the sustainability of volunteer community-based child protection groups from a Save the Children Review is that *“many [of those groups...] collapsed at the end of the externally funded period.”* This therefore also challenges the recommendation that monitoring functions can be decentralised at community-level and are sustainable if integrated into community structures.¹⁰⁹

Simplification

As mentioned extensively over the course of this review, the simplification of the different CLMS components and their integration into different existing structures is considered a way forward to improve the sustainability of the system.¹¹⁰ Specifically, the following recommendations were made by the Independent Final Evaluation of the Project *“Combating Child Labour in cocoa-growing communities in Ghana and Côte d’Ivoire”*:

- a) Fast-track efforts towards simplifying the data collection process, entry and analysis.¹¹¹ The administration of certain modules can take approximately two hours per child/ household due to the numerous details they contain. This often discourages the interviewees and creates workload for the collectors. It also reduces the number of people willing to be interviewed and increases errors in data collection¹¹²
- b) CLMS implementation should become part of the core activities of District/Departments

ensuring that their staff is focused solely on those activities¹¹³

- c) CLMS could be mainstreamed by linking with public databases, social programmes and private certification and monitoring systems. Also by training and inviting other agencies and non-government institutions (NGOs, Unions...) and other initiatives to participate in the system. This could create synergies and avoid duplication of efforts, improving the financial and technical viability of a nationwide CLMS¹¹⁴
- d) It was observed that most of the indicators were based on data, particularly from the community register, that could be avoided without compromising the integrity and purpose of the system. This would allow for focus to be placed solely on child specific indicators¹¹⁵

Public-Private Collaboration

Finally, one recommendation from the ILO based on the *“IPEC experience with WACAP shows that child labour monitoring systems that are initiated at the behest of private sector entities often have a clear purpose to verify the status of child labour in their production and to monitor compliance of established criteria or standards by their supplying entities. The*

financial resources provided for such systems make it possible to establish and sustain relatively more elaborate child labour monitoring systems than those that could be established and sustained by solely public financing.”¹¹⁶

Reflecting on the emergence of private sector monitoring systems in the cocoa sector and the difficulties faced by the national CLMS in Ghana and Côte d’Ivoire, there seems to be indeed a strong opportunity for collaboration between the public and the private sector.

C. Conclusions regarding the financial sustainability of CLMS

Ensuring the financial sustainability of CLMSs remains a major challenge, especially for those systems established within the timeframe of a particular project with a definite budget and an expiry date. Setting up simple systems, well integrated into existing governance/management structures with a sustainable financial source (through the private sector for example) that cover all running costs, is crucial for the survival of CLMS.

Recommendations for the 2nd round of the Effectiveness Review	-
Project-specific recommendations to implementers	O. Simplify existing CLMS procedures/data collection processes and integrate them into existing governance/management structures to increase cost-efficiency.
General recommendations for the cocoa sector and CocoaAction	P. Define roles and division of labour between national and private CLMS.

5. CONCLUSIONS



The appraisal of existing literature has shown that, to date, little has been done to systematically map, review and compare existing CLMSs in the sub-Saharan agricultural sector. The responses to the online questionnaire have further demonstrated that these types of due diligence systems in supply-chains are fairly recent (the oldest systems were established in 2011) and not well researched. The present review has allowed to identify seven core components of a CLMS and to provide detailed description for each one of them:

1. *Training and awareness-raising*
2. *Monitoring (observation)*
3. *Identification and data collection*
4. *Response: withdrawal, referral and remediation*
5. *Tracking*
6. *Third party verification*
7. *Partnerships*

Certain terms, often used in this context such as “monitoring”, “visit” or “tracking” that have shown to bear different meanings according to the context, have been ‘unpacked’ and defined. Wherever possible, best practices have been highlighted.

In most cases, a cost-effectiveness analysis of those best practices and the different components of the systems reviewed has not been possible. The lack of information on the costs, either due to difficulties in breaking them down or due to their unavailability, was one of the main reasons for this

challenge. Another one, was the lack of evidence on the impact of CLMS activities, for example very little information was available on the number of identified children that were no longer in child labour as a result of the system’s intervention. Finally, the report presented two different sets of effectiveness criteria for CLMS found in the literature. One from the 2005 ILO Child Labour Monitoring Resources Kit and the other from the Cocoa and Chocolate Industry’s CocoaAction strategy. An analysis from the respondents’ answers to the CocoaAction effectiveness criteria showed that most systems do not track this type of information at all, or at least not in a format that would allow them to be comparable. The lack of common understanding of what ‘effective’ means in the context of CLMS and how such effectiveness shall be measured is therefore the main barrier to comparing the cost-effectiveness of different approaches and probably one of the most compelling findings of this review.

Based on the findings from the report, recommendations were made at three different levels: i) for any organisation setting up or managing a CLMS; ii) for the next phase of the effectiveness review, and iii) for the coordinated effort of the cocoa sector, specifically the CocoaAction strategy.

A first set of recommendations is addressed to any company and organisation setting up or designing a CLMS. These recommendations are not meant to be applied uniquely to the cocoa sector nor

Project-specific recommendations to implementers

- B. When implementing a CLMS, define an indicative list of key inputs (participation in a training and a field exercise, etc.) and outcomes (key competences, skills and information acquired) as minimum training requirements for monitors and ensure these are assessed before monitors begin their tasks.
- L. Define unified terms of reference with control points for third party verifications of CLMS.
- P. Simplify existing CLMS procedures/data collection process and integrate them into existing governance/management structures to increase cost-efficiency.

would they necessarily add value to the second phase of the CLMS Effectiveness Review but, based on the systems analysed in the course of this exercise, they were seen to be beneficial for all implementers.

Recommendations for the next phase of the effectiveness review are to be mainly addressed by

ICI, even though its ability to gather and analyse information will be dependent on the willingness of companies running CLMS to openly share data. ICI should liaise and work closely with WCF to ensure that approaches are aligned and that WCF's CocoaAction Coordination role is utilised to feed results from CocoaAction companies' CLMS into the second phase of the Effectiveness Review.

Recommendations for the 2nd round of the Effectiveness Review

- A. Using targeted KAP surveys (ex-post assessments), assess the respective impact of each type of awareness-raising intervention, for each target group and, where possible, establish the cost of each intervention to be able to determine their cost-effectiveness.
- C. Pool information from all CocoaAction companies on the beneficiaries per monitor ratio, their level of compensation, their means of transport (bike, motorbike, etc.), the average distance to the farmers.
- D. Compare identification/remediation rates according to the indicators described in recommendation C).
- F. Compare existing data collection tools and define a list of common questions and indicators used across different systems.
- J. Disaggregate results (e.g. the number of children once identified and no longer in child labour) according to the type of remediation support received and, wherever possible, match it with information on the household and community environment to identify the strategies that are most efficient in reducing child labour.
- O. Encourage companies to isolate the unit cost of different key components of their CLMS (at least each remediation intervention - especially those at household and individual model) to be able to determine and compare their cost-effectiveness.

Lastly, the Review pointed out significant discrepancies between different systems operated and some recommendations were made to the cocoa sector as a whole, though in particular to

CocoaAction companies, to align approaches, procedures and definitions and ensure that CocoaAction results emerging from different systems can be aggregated and compared.

**General
recommendations for
the cocoa sector and
CocoaAction**

- G. Agree on a unified procedure to identify cases of child labour based on existing national legislations and international conventions.
- H. Develop/adapt existing interview guides for monitors that encompass good practices in child labour identification (age verification techniques, etc.) and include a strong child-safeguarding component to become part of the mandatory training of all monitors.
- I. Gather legal requirements for the operation of a CLMS in Ghana and Côte d'Ivoire in a short guide to be shared with the whole cocoa sector.
- K. Define a unified procedure to declare that a once identified/assisted child is no longer in child labour and ensure that moves between those two categories can be captured by the different systems.
- M. Agree on a definition of what "covered" or "monitored by the system" means practically to allow for better comparison between systems.
- N. Review and refine the existing set of effectiveness criteria that is adapted to different CLMS and/or encourage companies in the sector to put in place data collection systems able to track them so that comparison between the effectiveness of different systems becomes possible.
- Q. Define roles and separation of labour between national and private CLMS.

ANNEX I - LITERATURE

1. Sevilla, Rafaek Munoz; 2014; *Independent Final Evaluation of the Project “Combating Child Labour in cocoa-growing communities in Ghana and Côte d’Ivoire” – Final Evaluation Report – DRAFT*; Hard Copy available at ICI Office in Geneva.
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3. ILO/IPEC; 2016; Creating a protective environment for children in cocoa growing regions of Soubré, Ivory Coast (PPP/Mars) – An independent evaluation by a team of external consultants. Hard Copy available at ICI Office in Geneva.
4. Sevilla, Rafaek Munoz; 2014b; *Independent Final Evaluation of the project “Towards CL free cocoa growing communities in CDI and GHA through an integrated area-based approach (CCP)” – Draft for Comments - Zero version*
5. ILO/Kukwaw; 2014; Review of the implementation of the GCLMS in the PPP Project and Cocoa Communities Project (CCP) Communities in Ghana – Draft Review Report. Hard Copy available at ICI Office in Geneva.
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18. ILO; 2010; Going the distance to stop child trafficking: Local vigilance committees. <http://www.ilo.org/ipeinfo/product/download.do?type=document&id=15435>
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ANNEX II – ONLINE SURVEY QUESTIONS

GENERAL INFORMATION

1. Organisation name:
2. Organisation's CLMRS Point of Contact (name and email address):
3. Brief description of the CLMRS (no more than 100 words – please fill a different form for each different system operated by your organisation):
4. Start date:

SCOPE OF THE SYSTEM

5. Country/ies in which the system is operational:
6. Year in which the system was established:
7. Main agricultural crop(s) in which the involvement of children is monitored and remediated by the system (multiple answers possible)

- Cocoa
- Coffee
- Tea
- Tobacco
- Cotton
- Other (specify)

8. What is the target population covered by the system:

- The members of a specific community
- The producers within a supply-chain / farmers' group
- The recipients of a particular programme (productivity enhancement, education, development initiative, etc.)
- Other (specify:)

9. What is the % of targeted community members/ producers/ programme recipients, etc. whose children are monitored by the system?
10. What is the number of community members/ producers/ programme recipients, etc. whose children are monitored by the system?
11. What is the number of children monitored or covered by the system?
12. What is the number of communities in which the system (whether operated through

the supply-chains or through community structures) monitors children?

13. For CLMRS that is organised through farmer organisations, how many farmer organisations are being monitored by the system?
14. In how many different administrative districts/ regions is the system operational?
15. What indicators, proxies, definitions, procedures, are used for the identification of child labour?
16. What types of child labour are monitored (i.e. hazardous work in cocoa, child labour in cocoa, overall child labour in agriculture, other forms of child labour, i.e. household chores)?
17. Does the system monitor other kinds of child protection issues (beyond child labour) that children might confront in a work setting, such as sexual abuse, physical abuse or emotional distress and trauma? If yes, which ones?
18. Does the system monitor children's school attendance?

AWARENESS-RAISING

19. Does the system provide awareness-raising on child labour/child protection/child rights at community-level?
20. If yes, how many hours of CL awareness-raising per year does the system deliver for the following groups:
 - At community level
 - At the farmers' group level
 - Individual level
 - Farm/household level
 - Other (specify :)
21. How is the awareness-raising done (radio messages, videos, community meetings, etc.)?

TRAINING

22. Are individuals in charge of the monitoring activities, data collection and child labour identification trained on child labour?
23. If yes, how many hours of training have those responsible for monitoring undergone?
24. Who performed the training?

25. Which primary training materials are used?
(Please include the source)

MONITORING

26. Does the system generate lists of all individual children monitored containing basic information such as name, age, address, household profile?
27. On average, how many monitoring visits/ contacts do community members/ producers/ programme recipients or their children receive per year?
28. How many farms are monitored per year by the system?
29. How many households are monitored per year by the system?
30. How are households/farmers selected for monitoring?
31. Which monitoring approaches are used, i.e. is every household in a selected community monitored? / Is every farm in every farm group monitored?
32. Who conducts the child labour monitoring?
33. The child labour monitoring (visit) is conducted (multiple location possible):
- Within households
 - On the farms and workplaces
 - In public places
 - Other (specify :)
34. What is the number of CL cases identified so far as a % of the total number of children currently monitored?
35. How does this % compare to known baselines in the region/country/supply-chain?
36. Is there any collaboration with other monitoring systems/committees in the community/region in terms of exchange of information or data?

FOLLOW UP AND REMEDIATION

37. What procedure or remediation follows the identification of a child labourer?
38. What is the average time taken for the follow-up to take place, once a case of child labour has been identified?

39. Does the system have a specific procedure to identify, remediate and potentially fast track cases of unconditional worst forms of child labour or other extreme cases of abuse (such as trafficking, prostitution, etc.) ?
40. If yes, please describe such procedure:
41. What is the % of all identified CL cases that have been followed-up (post-identification visit, interview, referral, etc.)?
42. What is the % of all identified CL cases assisted (through direct assistance or referral)?
43. Please list the main activities/actions used as remediation to identified children:

Type of remediation activities/actions for identified children	Number of children having benefited from this type of remediation activity/action since the establishment of the system
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	
6.	
7.	

44. Is there any collaboration with existing governmental, NGO or private entities on the remediation initiatives?
45. Who funds the remediation activities/ assistance?
46. What assessment/procedure is in place to declare that a child is no longer in child labour after the remediation activities/actions?
47. What is the % of assisted CL cases no longer in child labour (cocoa-related or other) after the remediation activities/actions?

COSTS

48. What is the average budget available for remediation/assistance per monitored child on average?

- 49. What are the estimated set-up costs of the system per child monitored / covered?
- 50. What are the ongoing annual running costs per child monitored?

- 51. What is the average cost per household for the running of the CLMRS?
- 52. What is the average cost per farm for the running of the CLMRS?

ENDNOTE

1. https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/CLMRS_Effectiveness_Review and see survey questions in Annex II
2. ILO; 2003; p.7.
3. ILO; 2003. ILO; 2005b.
4. ILO; 2005b; p.37. See also a more exhaustive list in Winrock; 2008; p.167.
5. ILO; 2007; p.11.
6. Winrock, 2008; p.162.
7. Winrock; 2008; p.167.
8. ILO/Kukwaw; 2014; pp 19, 21.
9. ILO/Kukwaw; 2014; p.46. This training was delivered by the National Programme for the Elimination of Child Labour in Cocoa NPECLC.
10. ILO; 2007; p.11.
11. Amongst other ILO; 2003. ILO; 2005. ILO; 2005b. ILO; 2007.
12. Vasques, Maria Joao; 2014; pp.29, 30. This list of awareness-raising methods is also mostly valid for the CCP as described in Vasques, Maria Joao; 2014b; pp.12 - 20. This list also reflects the type of awareness-raising methods listed by the respondents to the survey.
13. Supporting Children's Rights through Education, the Arts and the Media.
14. One specific example was given by a respondent in its answers to the online questionnaire: "In line with the oral traditions of the rural communities in Mozambique's tobacco growing areas, the supplier found a creative way for communicating the Labour Code. Drama groups visit the tobacco growing communities, singing and dancing the Labour Code to deliver the key messages of the Code's principles and standards, and reinforce the message of the field technicians."
15. ILO; 2003; p.5. See similar definition in Winrock; 2008; p.156.
16. Winrock; 2008; p.158.
17. ILO; 2005b; p.12. ILO; 2003; p.10. ILO; 2011; (Action Research, Uganda) p.73. See also response B 51 in the online survey responses.
18. Winrock; 2008; p.176.
19. Respondent 1 answer to the online survey.
20. ILO; 2003; p.5.
21. See at least Winrock; 2008; pp156 -159.
22. Please note that the target may well be the members of a farmers group or the population of a community and this is irrelevant to the area-based or supply-chain approach adopted. It merely suggests that whether the entry point of the CLMS is the community or the supply-chain, the monitors should be individuals that know the context well and come from the area.
23. ILO; 2007; p.10.
24. Winrock; 2008; p.159, p.171.
25. Winrock; 2008; p.162.
26. Anecdotal evidence based on ICI's operational experience in CLMSs in Côte d'Ivoire.
27. ILO/IPEC; 2016; p.xiii. See section XII. a) below.
28. ILO 2007; p.37.
29. ICI; 2012; p.14.
30. ILO/Kukwaw; 2014; p.49.
31. Sevilla, Rafeak Munoz; 2014; p.27.
32. ILO/IPEC 2010 Child Labour Monitoring System (Tanzania), Good practice document, p.2.
33. ILO, 2012, p.57.
34. Save the Children/Wessells; 2009; pp 16-17.
35. Save the Children/Wessells; 2009; pp16-17.
36. Winrock ; 2008 ; p.170.
37. See also Winrock; 2008; p.160.

38. ILO ; 2005b; p.57.
39. ILO; 2004; p.10.
40. ILO/IPEC 2011; p.73.
41. ILO; 2004; p.6. and Winrock; 2008; p.176.
42. Proportion of out of school children amongst children identified by the Child Labour Monitoring and Remediation System based on the more than 5,000 identified cases of child labour aged 5-17 years by July 2016.
43. Winrock, 20018, p.157.
44. See for example Winrock, 20018, p.160, 168, 170.
45. Response to the online survey.
46. ILO; 2005b; p.43.
47. Response to the online survey.
48. Winrock; 2008; p.159.
49. ILO; 2005b; p.44.
50. Winrock; 2008; p.161.
51. According to the 2005 ILO Guidelines for Developing Child Labour Monitoring Processes (page 2), “The monitoring and follow-up activities are ongoing: they are repeated on a regular basis.”
52. ILO; 2003; p.6.
53. See row 48.
54. Winrock, 2008, p.160.
55. ILO ; 2007 ; p.9.
56. Vasques, Maria Joao; 2014; p.53.
57. Response to the online survey. It is to be noted that, as also described in the Tulane report, a high percentage of children attending school are considered child labourers through their engagement in hazardous activities, considered to be the worst forms of child labour.
58. Vasques, Maria Joao; 2014; p.53.
59. Answer to the online survey.
60. ILO; 2007; p.13.
61. ILO; 2005b ; p.17, pp 60-63.
62. ILO; 2005b; p.28.
63. ILO; 2005b; p.32.
64. Winrock; 2008 ; p.162.
65. ILO; 2005b; p.28.
66. ILO; 2007; p.25.
67. WCF; 2016; p.22.
68. Winrock; 2008; p.172.
69. This doesn't however give any recommendation as to whether the interviews should be conducted on the farm, at household level or anywhere else.
70. ILO; 2005b; p.89.
71. Winrock, 2008 ; p.162.
72. ILO ; 2005b ; p.89.
73. ILO ; 2005b; p.32
74. ILO; 2007; p.13. and ILO; 2005b; p.46. Winrock; 2008; p.170.
75. ILO ; 2005b ; p.90.
76. ILO; 2003; p.4.
77. Sevilla, Rafaek Munoz; 2014; Vasques, Maria Joao; 2014; ILO/IPEC; 2016 and the response matrix from the consultation.
78. United Nations; 2015
79. ILO ; 2005b ; pp 33, 44, 50
80. ILO; 2003; p.5. ILO ; 2005b ; p.56.
81. ILO; 2005b ; p.56.

82. Vasques, Maria Joao; 2014; p.53.
83. Vasques, Maria Joao; 2014; p.34.
84. Respondent 1 answer to the online survey.
85. ILO; 2005b; p.27, 59.
86. See above.
87. ILO; 2007; p.12.
88. ILO; 2007; p.13.
89. ILO; 2005b; p.67-68.
90. ILO; 2005b; p.12.
91. Specific - Measurable - Achievable - Realistic - Time-related.
92. WCF; 2016; p.73. Please note that this list may evolve.
93. Vasques, Maria Joao; 2014; p.20: The overall amount of funds spent with direct support to children amount to 11,055.43 USD for 877 children assisted in GHA. This gives an average remediation amount of 11.1 USD/child. When taken into account, the CAP development that benefited an additional 655 children brings the total spent on remediation to 23,522.68 USD for 1,527 children i.e. a total of 15.4 USD per child
94. Vasques, Maria Joao; 2014; p.33: The overall amount of funds spent with direct and indirect support to children amounts to 58,890 USD for 2,160 assisted in CDI, resulting in an average remediation amount of 27.3 USD/child
95. From the information available in the PPP project reports, the district and community-based running and set-up costs (thus excluding remediation costs) of the GCLMS in Ghana varies from 12,141 USD to 13,842 USD per
96. ILO; 2005b; p.12.
97. Sevilla, Rafaek Munoz; 2014; p12.
98. *"Now, if one indulges in a simple projection taking into account the NAWA region with its four departments, of these four, let us consider just the department of Méagui, which includes on its own no less than 1,500 village communities. If SOSTECI just had to completely cover the villages of this small department, we would reach an amount of about 100 million CFA (180,000 USD) per month for bonuses and 1.2 billion CFA annually. This excludes the strengthening that the levels where encoding tasks, that is to say the sub-prefectures, the department and the central level should have. This just for one of the four departments of one region, the NAWA, among the 30 regions that encompasses Cote d'Ivoire."*
99. ILO/IPEC; 2016; p.33.
100. Vasques, Maria Joao; 2014; p.12.
101. Sevilla, Rafaek Munoz; 2014; p.20.
102. Sevilla, Rafaek Munoz; 2014; p.25.
103. ILO/Kukwaw; 2014; p.viii.
104. Sevilla, Rafaek Munoz; 2014; p.22.
105. Sevilla, Rafaek Munoz; 2014b; p.22.
106. ILO 2007; p39.
107. ILO/IPEC; 2016; p.xiii.
108. ILO; 2015; p.16.
109. Save the Children/Wessells; 2009; pp 16 - 17.
110. Sevilla, Rafaek Munoz; 2014; p.13; p.28.
111. Sevilla, Rafaek Munoz; 2014; p.31.
112. Sevilla, Rafaek Munoz; 2014; p.26.
113. Sevilla, Rafaek Munoz; 2014; p.31.
114. Sevilla, Rafaek Munoz; 2014; p.31.
115. Vasques, Maria Joao; 2014; p.11.
116. ILO; 2007.



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