



GUIDANCE MATERIAL #3

RURAL EMPLOYMENT

Incorporating decent rural employment in the strategic planning for agricultural development

Incorporating decent rural employment in the strategic planning for agricultural development

MARCH 2016

PILOT VERSION FOR FIELD-TESTING

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Acronyms

AGS	Rural Infrastructure and Agro-Industries Division (FAO)
AIDS	Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome
ARD	Agriculture and rural development
AU	African Union
BDS	Business Development Services
CELAC	Community of Latin American and Caribbean States
CFS	Committee on World Food Security
CPI	Consumer price index
CSO	Civil Society Organization
CSR	Corporate social responsibility
DRET	Decent Rural Employment Team
DRE	Decent rural employment
DWCP	Decent Work Country Programmes
ECOSOC	Economic and Social Council of the United Nations
ESD	Economic and Social Development Department (FAO)
ESMG	Environmental and Social Management Guidelines (FAO)
ESP	Social Protection Division (FAO)
ESS	Statistics Division (FAO)
FAB	Food and Agriculture Business
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FFS	Farmer field schools
FIP	Fisheries and Aquaculture Policy and Economics Division (FAO)
FIRA	Aquaculture Branch (FAO)
FIRO	Fishing Operations and Technology Branch (FAO)
FLS	Family Life Survey
FMM	Multipartner Programme Support Mechanism
GDP	Gross domestic product
HBS	Household budget survey
HIES	Household income and expenditure survey
HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus
ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
ICSE	International Classification by Status in Employment
IDP	Internally displaced person
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
ILFS	Integrated Labour Force Survey (United Republic of Tanzania)
ILO	International Labour Organization
ILS	International labour standards
IPEC	International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour
IPM	Integrated pest management
ISIC	International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities
IUF	International Union of Food, Agricultural, Hotel, Restaurant, Catering, Tobacco and Allied Workers Associations
IVM	Integrated vector management
JFFLS	Junior Farmer Field and Life School
KILM	Key indicators of the labour market

LAC	Latin America and the Caribbean
LEG	Legal Office (FAO)
LEGN	Development Law Service (FAO)
LFS	Labour force survey
LGA	Local government authority
LIC	Low-income country
LPR	Low pay rate
LSMS	Living standards measurement study
LSMS-ISA	Living Standards Measurement Study–Integrated Surveys on Agriculture
M&E	Monitoring and evaluation
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MoA	Ministry of Agriculture
MoL	Ministry of Labour
MOU	Memorandum of understanding
MSME	Micro, small and medium-sized enterprises
NEET	Not in Employment, nor Education or Training
NGO	Non-governmental Organization
NRC	Climate, Energy and Tenure Division
NSDP	National Strategic Development Plan (Cambodia)
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OSH	Occupational safety and health
OSP	Office of Strategy, Planning and Resources Management (FAO)
POs	Producers' organizations
PPP	Public-private partnership
PRA	Participatory rural appraisal
PSIA	Poverty and Social Impact Analysis
RAI	Responsible Agricultural Investment
RRA	Rapid rural appraisal
SDGs	Sustainable development goals
Sida	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
SNA	System of National Accounts (United Republic of Tanzania)
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
TCI	Investment Centre Division (FAO)
TOR	Terms of reference
TVET	Technical and vocational education and training
UN	United Nations
UN DESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNDAF	United Nations Development Assistance Framework
UNDAP	United Nations Development Assistance Plan
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNRISD	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development
WB	World Bank
WCA	World Census of Agriculture
WIND	Work Improvement in Neighbourhood Development

Glossary

LET'S SPEAK THE
SAME LANGUAGE!

Agriculture: Agriculture corresponds to divisions 1–5 of the International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities (ISIC, revision 3) and includes forestry, hunting and fishing, as well as cultivation of crops and livestock production (FAOSTAT).

Agricultural development: Agricultural development refers herein to the process that creates the conditions for the fulfilment of the agricultural potential in terms of growth, rural poverty reduction and food and nutrition security. FAO has defined sustainable agricultural development as “the management and conservation of the natural resource base, and the orientation of technological change in such a manner as to ensure the attainment of continued satisfaction of human needs for present and future generations. Sustainable agriculture conserves land, water, and plant and animal genetic resources, and is environmentally non-degrading, technically appropriate, economically viable and socially acceptable”.¹

Agriculture development interventions: This term is used herein to refer to agricultural policies, strategies and programmes.

Agricultural workers: An “agricultural worker” is any person engaged in agriculture, whether as a wage-earner or as a self-employed person (e.g. tenant, sharecropper or small owner-occupier), including farmers, fishers, hunters, herders and pastoralists.

Child labour: Child labour is work that harms children’s well-being and hinders their education, development and future livelihoods. A child is any person under 18. Child labour concerns work for which the child is either too young – work done below the required minimum age (14 or 15 in most countries) – or work which, because of its detrimental nature or conditions, is altogether considered unsuitable for children and is prohibited. Not all activities carried out by children are child labour that needs to be abolished. Some activities may stimulate children’s development as they allow children to acquire skills and contribute to their survival and food security. These activities can be beneficial as long as they are not hazardous, are not undertaken for long hours and do not interfere with school and learning and children’s right to leisure.

Decent work: Decent work has been defined by the ILO and endorsed by the international community² as “productive work for women and men in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity”.³ It is productive work that delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families; better prospects for personal development and social integration; freedom for people to express their concerns, to organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives; and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men.⁴ Decent work is a universal and indivisible objective, based on fundamental values and principles.

1 FAO. 1988. *Report of the FAO Council, 94th Session, 1988*. Rome.

2 ECOSOC Ministerial Declaration (2006), corresponding ECOSOC Resolutions (2007/2 and 2008/18) and ECOSOC Ministerial Declaration (2012).

3 ILC87. *Report of the Director-General: Decent work*. ILO.

4 ILO. 2006. *Decent Work FAQ: Making decent work a global goal*. Geneva.

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

Decent rural employment (DRE): To facilitate the operationalization of the decent work concept to rural areas, and the agricultural sector in particular, FAO developed an applied definition of DRE.⁵ The definition emphasizes six priority dimensions that are crucial to achieving decent employment in rural areas, irrespective of whether rural workers are covered in labour legislation at national level or relevant ILO Conventions are ratified by the country. In particular, FAO specifies that any activity, occupation, work, business or service performed by women and men, adults and youth, for pay or profit, in rural areas can be considered decent if it at least:

- respects the core labour standards as defined in ILO Conventions, and therefore: a) is not child labour; b) is not forced labour; c) guarantees freedom of association and the right to collective bargaining and promotes the organization of rural workers; and d) does not entail discrimination at work on the basis of race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction, social origin or other;
- provides an adequate living income;
- entails an adequate degree of employment security and stability;
- adopts minimum occupational safety and health (OSH) measures, which are adapted to address sector-specific risks and hazards;
- avoids excessive working hours and allows sufficient time for rest; and
- promotes access to adapted technical and vocational training.

Employment: Employment is work performed for others in exchange for pay or profit.⁶

Green jobs: This term is a generic reference to direct employment created in different sectors of the economy and through related activities that reduces the environmental impact of those sectors and activities, and ultimately brings it down to sustainable levels. This includes “decent” jobs that help to reduce consumption of energy and raw materials, decarbonize the economy, protect and restore ecosystems and biodiversity, and minimize the production of waste and pollution.⁷

Rural workers: The term “rural workers” is defined in Article 2 of the Rural Workers’ Organisations Convention, 1975 (No. 141) as “any person engaged in agriculture, handicrafts or a related occupation in a rural area, whether as a wage-earner or as a

5 FAO. 2015. Factsheet on understanding decent rural employment (available at <http://www.fao.org/3/a-bc270e.pdf>).

6 Resolution I on Statistics of Work, Employment and Labour Underutilization (Resolution I), adopted at the 19th International Conference of Labour Statisticians, identifies five mutually exclusive forms of work, which are distinguished on the basis of the intended destination of the production (own final use or use by others) and the nature of the transaction (monetary or non-monetary transactions, and transfers), as follows: a) own-use production work comprising production of goods and services for own final use; b) employment work comprising work performed for others in exchange for pay or profit; c) unpaid trainee work comprising work performed for others without pay to acquire workplace experience or skills; d) volunteer work comprising non-compulsory work performed for others without pay; e) other work activities (such as unpaid community service and unpaid work by prisoners).

7 ILO, 2011. *Assessing green jobs potential in developing countries: A practitioner’s guide*.

self-employed person such as a tenant, sharecropper or small owner-occupier". This guidance document adopts this definition and therefore uses the term "rural workers" to cover two main categories of workers:

1. rural wage-earners, including full-time, seasonal and casual wage workers, as well as workers receiving some form of "in-kind" payment; and
2. self-employed rural workers, including both employers (with employees) and own-account workers (without employees), and therefore owner-occupier farmers and tenant farmers, as well as sharecroppers and nomads. "Contributing family workers", who are more often women and youth, are included in the self-employment category, as per ICSE-93 groups.⁸

Strategic planning: Strategic planning is used herein to refer to the process of setting policy goals, determining strategies and programmes to achieve the goals, and mobilizing resources to execute them. The development of agricultural development strategies or agricultural sector-wide programmes are examples of strategic planning processes.

Vulnerable or disadvantaged rural workers: In this guidance document, vulnerable or disadvantaged rural workers include: small farmers, fishers, hunters, herders and pastoralists; child labourers and adolescents (15–17); informal agricultural and other wage workers, including seasonal and casual workers; micro and small (informal) entrepreneurs; migrant workers; landless people; indigenous people; refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs); demobilized soldiers; people infected and affected by HIV and AIDS; the elderly and the disabled; and in particular women and youth in the above categories.

Work: Any activity performed by persons of any sex and age to produce goods or to provide services for use by others or for their own use. Such activity is defined as "work" irrespective of its formal or informal character or its legality.

Working poor: The working poor are those individuals who are: 1) employed and 2) living in households whose income or consumption levels fall below a poverty threshold. The ILO distinguishes between:

- the extreme working poor (< USD1.25/day);
- the moderate working poor (USD1.25–2/day);
- the near poor (USD2–4/day);
- developing middle-class workers (workers living in households with per capita consumption of USD4–13/day); and
- developed world middle class and above (workers living in households with per capita consumption > USD13/day).⁹

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

⁸ International Classification by Status in Employment (ICSE) (available at <http://laborsta.ilo.org/applv8/data/icsee.html>).

⁹ ILO, KILM 18. Poverty, income distribution, employment by economic class and working poverty (available at http://www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/research-and-databases/kilm/WCMS_422457/lang--en/index.htm).

Overview

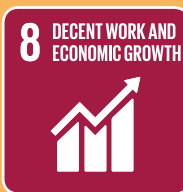
Rationale

Decent work is enshrined in international law as a **human right** to which every person is entitled as a means of personal development and socio-economic inclusion.¹⁰

At the 2005 World Summit of the United Nations General Assembly, heads of state and government committed to take further action to promote decent work. In particular, they agreed “to make the goals of full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people, a central objective of our relevant national and international policies as well as our national development strategies, including poverty reduction strategies, as part of our efforts to achieve the Millennium Development Goals.”¹¹ In 2012, the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations (ECOSOC) strongly reaffirmed these objectives in a ministerial declaration, expressing deep concern at the ongoing adverse impacts of the world financial and economic crisis.¹²



The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), in articles 6–8, provides a legal basis for the right to work and associated rights at work, such as the right to just and favourable conditions of work and the right to form trade unions.



“Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all.”

In the **2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development**, Goal 8 of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) specifically refers to decent work.

These commitments acknowledge that decent work is fundamental for sustainable development. In particular, in rural areas, lack of gainful employment opportunities and poor employment quality often result in poverty. There remains much to do to improve work conditions and opportunities for the unemployed, the underemployed and all those whose job does not provide a sustainable livelihood. Globally, about eight out of ten working poor (workers who live on less than USD1.25/day) live in rural areas and are engaged in vulnerable employment in the informal economy, particularly in agriculture.¹³ They are typically landless labourers, marginal producers and contributing family workers, including farmers, fishers, hunters, herders and pastoralists.

¹⁰ The Universal Declaration of Human Rights guarantees everyone “the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment” (Article 23). The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) recognizes “the right of everyone to the opportunity to gain his living by work” (Article 6), “the right to fair wages and equal remuneration for work of equal value without distinction of any kind” (Article 7), “the right to form trade unions and join the trade union of his choice” and “the right to strike” (Article 8).

¹¹ United Nations General Assembly Resolution 60/1, 16 September 2005.

¹² ECOSOC. 2012. Annual Ministerial Review, Ministerial Declaration: Promoting productive capacity, employment and decent work to eradicate poverty in the context of inclusive, sustainable and equitable economic growth at all levels for achieving the Millennium Development Goals. Previous relevant declarations and recommendations on this topic are ECOSOC (2006) Ministerial Declaration and the corresponding ECOSOC Resolutions 2007/2 and 2008/18.

¹³ ILO. 2012. *Global Employment Trends 2012: Preventing a deeper job crisis*. Geneva.

This guidance document is a response to country demands to the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) in recent years for more **concrete guidance** on how to make **agricultural development more sensitive to employment needs**. By developing the agricultural sector, it will be possible to absorb new entrants in the labour market, reduce rural poverty and improve working conditions in rural areas. Yet, agricultural development policies, strategies and programmes often lack explicit employment objectives and they do not monitor spill-overs on job creation, livelihood diversification and inclusive business development. When employment *creation* is an explicit priority, the *quality* of rural jobs tends to be overlooked. Displacement of workers and job losses, casualization and informalization of work arrangements, child labour in agriculture, as well as increased time burdens for women not compensated by adequate social protection systems, are only some of the risks to monitor and avoid (FAO, 2014).¹⁴



Several studies¹⁵ provide empirical evidence of the causal link of employment and decent work with economic performance, demonstrated in particular for the manufacturing and services sector. Increased efforts are required to analyse such linkages in developing countries, especially in agriculture and rural areas.

This guidance document addresses in particular two urgent needs: to **create more rural jobs** for rural people and to **improve the quality of existing jobs** in rural areas. These two priorities are interlaced and the agricultural sector can contribute to – and benefit from – them both. They may be synthesized in the concept of **decent rural employment (DRE)**, for which an applied definition is provided in Box 1. The concept of “decent work” was formulated by the International Labour Organization (ILO) in 1999 as “productive work for women and men in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity”. Within the broader Decent Work Agenda for rural areas, the promotion of DRE, or in simpler terms work opportunities in rural areas that guarantee adequate pay or profit as well as the respect of people’s rights at work, is a widely acknowledged and urgent requirement.

Scope

This guidance document aims to assist FAO Members in incorporating DRE priorities in the design of agricultural development interventions, across the different agricultural subsectors and their respective value chains. While the focus is on agricultural development, many of the proposals are also relevant for broader rural development interventions, as well as national development and poverty reduction strategies.

The document is specifically designed for nationwide strategies and large sector-wide programmes. It does not aim to support the design of small-scale or technical cooperation projects. However, many of its suggestions could also be adapted for smaller projects, depending on their purpose and scope.

¹⁴ FAO. 2014. *Promoting economic diversification and decent rural employment towards greater resilience to food price volatility* (available at <http://www.fao.org/docrep/019/i3574e/i3574e.pdf>).

¹⁵ See studies looking at the impact of specific employment dimensions, such as length of labour contract and tenure stability, or the role of shared profit and management on productivity of manufacturing firms (Yao, 1997; Conyon & Freeman, 2002; Auer et al., 2004; Ortega & Marchante, 2010) in Ayenew, H.Y., Estruch, E., Sauer, J., Abate-Kassa, G., Schickramm, L. & Wobst, P. (2016, forthcoming). *Decent rural employment and agricultural production efficiency in sub-Saharan Africa: A stochastic multi-output distance function approach*. Rome, FAO and Germany, Technical University Munich.

Users

This guidance document is principally for **policy-makers and staff responsible for agricultural strategic planning and programme development**. It mainly targets staff in the ministry responsible for overall planning and the ministry responsible for agriculture and rural development and its subsectors (hereinafter referred to as MoA). It also addresses other public or private institutions (including Civil Society Organizations [CSOs]) which are or should be involved in strategic planning for agricultural and rural development, such as employers', producers' and workers' organizations active in the various agricultural subsectors of crop cultivation, livestock production, forestry, and fisheries and aquaculture.

Given the focus on employment, this guidance document is also useful to staff in the ministry responsible for labour issues (hereinafter referred to as MoL), which is typically responsible at national level for mainstreaming decent work across the different sectors. Finally, it also aims to inspire a broader development audience with an interest in employment issues.

Rapid Guide

There follows a **Rapid Guide** to the guidance document based on the phases of the strategic planning process:

- **Is this document relevant for you?** helps the reader assess the relevance of the document for her/his work.
- **Getting started** steers the reader to the document sections where she/he can find clarifications on terminology and on the relevance of DRE integration in the different phases of the strategic planning process.
- **Checklists for integrating DRE** provides four checklists for integrating DRE in each phase of the strategic planning process, indicating where to find guidance in the document.
- **When should we integrate employment considerations?** describes the four phases of a regular strategic planning processes and the added value of integrating DRE considerations in each of them.

The main text of the document provides overall guidance. Within the text there are boxes, figures and tables containing examples and technical advice. The annexes at the back provide further detailed information, including an annotated list of DRE indicators.

LEGEND FOR THE SYMBOLS USED:



Further information and interesting resources



Useful tips



Issues that need attention and/or further action

Is this document relevant for you?

- ▶ in the **ministry responsible for planning** or in the **ministry responsible for agriculture**.
- ▶ **responsible for agricultural strategic planning** and sector-wide programme development.

This document is **very relevant** for you: you are in the **main target group**.

Take a close look at **all sections** of the document, taking account of the planning phase you are in.

Follow all four checklists for DRE mainstreaming in this Rapid Guide.

- ▶ in the **ministry responsible for labour issues**.
- ▶ in a **public or private institution involved in strategic planning for agricultural and rural development** (e.g. you belong to an employers', producers' or workers' organization active in rural areas and in the various agricultural subsectors).

This document is **thematically relevant** for you.

While the ministries of planning and agriculture usually coordinate the process of strategic planning in the agricultural sector, you should also be a key partner in that process.

The four checklists for DRE mainstreaming in this Rapid Guide are not designed for you.

Nevertheless, you can **find interesting arguments and tips** to support your collaboration with the ministries of planning and agriculture in the strategic planning for agricultural development.

You may **navigate the document** as you prefer, taking account of the planning phase you are in.

- ▶ in an agricultural or rural development institution, but you are **not involved in strategic planning** (e.g. you are responsible for developing a small technical project).
- ▶ a development practitioner **interested in DRE issues**.

Some sections of this document are **possibly relevant** for obtaining further knowledge on DRE issues in agriculture.

You may **navigate the document** as you prefer.

Pay particular attention to the **WHY** section.

YOU ARE

Getting started

	WHERE TO GO
<p>You are looking for DRE arguments relevant to the agricultural sector.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 12 WHY ▶ page 33 Goal 8 of the SDGs ▶ page 12 Box 2. The added value of integrating DRE in agricultural development interventions ▶ page 15 Box 3. Main decent work deficits in rural areas ▶ page 18 Box 4. Links between DRE and the four dimensions of food security ▶ page 66 Annex 1. Main international standards (binding and voluntary) relevant for decent work in agriculture and rural areas
<p>You are not clear about the terminology used in this guidance document.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 6 Box 1. FAO's applied definition of decent rural employment (DRE) ▶ page VIII Glossary
<p>You are not sure which phases of strategic planning are relevant for DRE integration.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 7 When should we integrate employment considerations?

Box 1. FAO's applied definition of decent rural employment (DRE)

In contributing to the global Decent Work Agenda, FAO's Strategic Framework prioritizes the promotion of decent rural employment, with a particular focus on youth and women. Decent rural employment is any activity, occupation, work, business or service performed for pay or profit by women and men, adults and youth residing in rural areas that fulfils the following criteria:

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

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

When should we integrate employment considerations?

The short answer is: **throughout the strategic planning process!** An employment lens needs to accompany the process from the very beginning, including the initial baselines. Subsequently, employment must be considered when selecting target beneficiaries, choosing strategies and deciding indicators for monitoring success.

This guidance document identifies entry points and provides practical advice to incorporate DRE throughout the main phases of strategic planning. **The main phases of a regular strategic planning process are illustrated in Figure 1.**

Figure 1. Main phases of the strategic planning process



1. The problem and stakeholder analysis answers the question: **Where are we now?**

- The **problem analysis** is the starting point when assessing the employment-related bottlenecks for agricultural development and the current prospects for reducing or solving them. This phase helps identify: the main vulnerable groups from an employment point of view; to what extent an improvement in working conditions and prospects is functional to agricultural development; and where other sector strategies and social protection interventions should get involved.
- The **stakeholder analysis** enables the mapping of all DRE-relevant stakeholders and their respective roles and responsibilities, including respective power relations.

2. The definition of the desired impacts and beneficiaries answers the question: **Where do we want to be?**

- This phase is crucial for integrating DRE as it defines the overarching objectives, as well as target beneficiaries, geographical areas and sectors.

3. The development of the results chain and choice of strategies and programmes answers the question: **How will we get there?**

- This phase entails the definition of the strategies and programmes necessary to achieve the impacts. DRE should be integrated in this phase to define specific DRE-related outcomes and outputs, and/or to maximize the employment effects of agricultural strategies and programmes. At this stage, the intervention team needs to forecast what institutional and partnership arrangement or organizational change is necessary to promote DRE more effectively.

4. The development of the M&E system, including the choice of the indicators, answers the question: **How do we know if we are on track to achieve the results?**

- In this phase, the result chain is reconfirmed and the monitoring system put in place, including the specification of indicators, targets and means of verification. DRE must be reflected to increase visibility and consolidate policy commitments.

Checklist for integrating DRE

CHECKLIST

...for conducting a DRE-enhancing problem and stakeholder analysis

<input type="checkbox"/> Key rural employment stakeholders beyond the MoA (e.g. MoL and the ministry responsible for industry and trade) have been involved in the initial consultations.	<p>▶ page 21 HOW <u>Phase 1. Execution of problem and stakeholder analysis – Applying a DRE lens</u></p> <p>▶ page 21 <u>1.1 Identify and involve key DRE stakeholders in the initial consultations</u></p>
<input type="checkbox"/> The stakeholder analysis includes both agricultural and employment stakeholders, and briefly assesses their role in promoting DRE, including capacities, existing conflicts and partnerships.	<p>▶ page 22 <u>1.2 Assess the roles and institutional capacities of both agricultural and employment stakeholders in the detailed stakeholder analysis</u></p> <p>▶ page 22 <u>Box 5. Main stakeholders with a potential role in DRE promotion</u></p>
<input type="checkbox"/> The problem analysis takes into account the employment-related data and information available and, if insufficient, requires dedicated background assessments on DRE.	<p>▶ page 23 <u>1.3 Address DRE issues in the problem analysis</u></p>
<input type="checkbox"/> Existing DRE-related policy, institutional and legal frameworks (and their enforcement in practice) have been reviewed.	<p>▶ page 23 <u>1.3 Address DRE issues in the problem analysis</u></p> <p>▶ page 25 <u>Box 7. Main steps for a rapid context analysis for DRE</u></p>
<input type="checkbox"/> Employment stakeholders have been involved as far as possible in the problem analysis, including groups of rural workers typically disadvantaged in participating in social and policy dialogue (e.g. small-scale producers, women and youth groups, associations of informal workers).	<p>▶ page 23 <u>1.3 Address DRE issues in the problem analysis</u></p> <p>▶ page 22 <u>Box 5. Main stakeholders with a potential role in DRE promotion</u></p>
<input type="checkbox"/> Employment-related dimensions or causes of agricultural development problems are explicit in the problem tree of the intervention, giving priority to violations of fundamental labour rights (e.g. forced and child labour).	<p>▶ page 23 <u>1.3 Address DRE issues in the problem analysis</u></p> <p>▶ page 24 <u>Box 6. DRE questions to guide the problem analysis</u></p> <p>▶ page 27 <u>Table 1. Employment challenges for agricultural development: Causes, effects and solutions</u></p>
<input type="checkbox"/> The problem and stakeholder analysis have shed light on the DRE potential of the intervention.	<p>▶ page 23 <u>1.3 Address DRE issues in the problem analysis</u></p>

CHECKLIST

...for integrating DRE in the desired impacts and beneficiaries

<input type="checkbox"/> The promotion of more and better jobs in rural areas has been explicitly included among the desired impacts of the intervention, especially if major employment problems have emerged from the problem analysis.	<p>▶ page 32 HOW <u>Phase 2. Definition of desired impacts and beneficiaries – Prioritizing DRE</u></p> <p>▶ page 32 <u>2.1 Make DRE explicit in the intervention's impact</u></p> <p>▶ page 33 <u>Box 8. Example of an agricultural strategy in South Africa with employment-related considerations integrated into its vision</u></p>
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<input type="checkbox"/> The intervention plans to contribute to DRE-relevant government goals and international commitments.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 32 2.1 Make DRE explicit in the intervention's impact ▶ page 33 Box 9. Examples of global, regional or national commitments on DRE
<input type="checkbox"/> Employment vulnerabilities are explicitly used among the selection criteria for the final beneficiaries.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 35 2.2 Consider employment vulnerabilities when selecting the intervention beneficiaries
<input type="checkbox"/> Some of the most vulnerable and disadvantaged groups of rural workers are explicitly listed among the final beneficiaries, while women and youth issues are cross-cutting.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 35 2.2 Consider employment vulnerabilities when selecting the intervention beneficiaries ▶ page 36 Table 2. Most disadvantaged or vulnerable groups of workers in rural areas and common challenges faced
<input type="checkbox"/> Information on decent work deficits and on the intervention potential for DRE has been used to select target sectors, geographical areas or value chains.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 35 2.2 Consider employment vulnerabilities when selecting the intervention beneficiaries

CHECKLIST

...for integrating DRE in the results chain and choosing strategies and programmes

- ▶ [page 38](#) **HOW**
Phase 3. Development of results chain and choice of strategies and programmes – Developing a DRE-inclusive results chain

<input type="checkbox"/> The theory of change of the intervention explicitly articulates the creation of more and better jobs in rural areas among the expected results.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 38 3.1 Adopt a DRE-inclusive Theory of Change for agricultural development ▶ page 39 Box 10. Example of an agricultural policy integrating DRE-specific results in the United Republic of Tanzania ▶ page 42 Figure 2. Generic DRE Theory of Change
<input type="checkbox"/> The different employment effects, positive and negative, of different potential strategies and programmes are taken into account, including for the most vulnerable groups.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 44 3.2 Include DRE in the criteria for the selection of strategies and programmes ▶ page 73 Annex 2. DRE-relevant ex ante impact assessments
<input type="checkbox"/> The strategies and programmes finally retained have expected positive impacts on the quantity and quality of rural jobs; or, in case there is a risk of negative effects, mitigation strategies are clearly formulated.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 44 3.2 Include DRE in the criteria for the selection of strategies and programmes ▶ page 44 Box 11. Decent work in FAO Environmental and Social Management Guidelines
<input type="checkbox"/> Recognized good practices and approaches that have worked in similar contexts for promoting DRE are identified and proposed for replication/adaptation under the intervention.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 46 3.3 Pursue an integrated approach for DRE promotion ▶ page 49 Table 4. Strategic options for DRE in the three Rural Worlds ▶ page 51 Box 12. Useful repositories of DRE-related good practices
<input type="checkbox"/> Strategic partnerships are foreseen to increase effectiveness on DRE promotion (e.g. between the MoA and the MoL or between the public and the private sector, including producers' organizations).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 46 3.3 Pursue an integrated approach for DRE promotion ▶ page 47 Table 3. Examples of DRE-enhancing actions under the four pillars of the Decent Work Agenda ▶ page 51 Box 13. Linking social protection and DRE promotion for inclusive agricultural growth ▶ page 52 Table 5. DRE-relevant aspects commonly addressed in other policies relevant for rural development

<input type="checkbox"/> Needed organizational changes to pursue DRE are adequately planned.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 46 3.3 Pursue an integrated approach for DRE promotion ▶ page 54 Box 14. Examples of possible DRE-enhancing organizational changes in the ministry of agriculture
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CHECKLIST ...for integrating DRE in the M&E system

▶ [page 56](#) **HOW**
Phase 4. Development of M&E system – Monitoring DRE

<input type="checkbox"/> The M&E plan of the intervention includes some DRE-specific indicators and targets, covering both the quantitative and qualitative aspects of employment.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 56 4.1 Choose DRE-relevant indicators and targets ▶ page 57 Table 6. List of possible DRE indicators by main area of intervention and level of result
<input type="checkbox"/> Indicators and targets are disaggregated by sex and age as relevant.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 56 4.1 Choose DRE-relevant indicators and targets
<input type="checkbox"/> Specific targets are set for at least some of the population groups typically facing the most serious decent work deficits (e.g. youth, women, migrants, indigenous people, casual wage workers and/or disabled people).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 56 4.1 Choose DRE-relevant indicators and targets
<input type="checkbox"/> The M&E plan foresees the use of both quantitative and qualitative information on DRE.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 60 4.2 Develop a detailed M&E plan to address DRE information needs ▶ page 76 Annex 3. Gathering data and information on DRE Table A. Main global databases on DRE-related data; Table B. Main country-level sources of DRE-relevant statistical data; Table C. Most commonly used qualitative methods for analysis; Table D. Main technical requirements for DRE-related surveys
<input type="checkbox"/> DRE stakeholders, in particular the MoL, have been involved in the selection of indicators and are members of the monitoring enlarged task force.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 60 4.2 Develop a detailed M&E plan to address DRE information needs
<input type="checkbox"/> The intervention baseline collects employment data.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 60 4.2 Develop a detailed M&E plan to address DRE information needs ▶ page 76 Annex 3. Gathering data and information on DRE Table A. Main global databases on DRE-related data; Table B. Main country-level sources of DRE-relevant statistical data
<input type="checkbox"/> Mitigation strategies are put in place to face the eventual lack of sufficiently disaggregated data on DRE (e.g. a survey or qualitative study has been planned).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ page 61 4.3 Adopt mitigation strategies to face the lack of sufficiently disaggregated data on DRE ▶ page 76 Annex 3. Gathering data and information on DRE Table D. Main technical requirements for DRE-related surveys ▶ page 85 Annex 4. Annotated list of possible DRE indicators for agricultural development interventions



Why are employment considerations so central to agricultural development?

WHY?

Before incorporating decent rural employment (DRE) considerations into the strategic planning of agricultural development, you might ask WHY? **The answer to this question is summarized in Box 2** and the main points are explored below.

Box 2. The added value of integrating DRE in agricultural development interventions

- i. More and better jobs in rural areas, especially for rural youth, are essential to reduce poverty, given current population dynamics and structural transformation trends.
- ii. Decent rural jobs will enhance the performance and socio-economic sustainability of the agricultural sector.
- iii. More productive and stable jobs in rural areas will contribute to food security by improving peoples' livelihoods and access to food.
- iv. Improved working conditions in rural areas will enhance the compliance of agricultural production with international right-based standards as well as with social certifications.

i) More and better jobs in rural areas, especially for rural youth, are essential to reduce poverty, given current population dynamics and structural transformation trends.

Globally, 46 percent of the population live in rural areas. In particular, Africa and Asia remain mostly rural, with 60 and 52 percent of their respective populations residing in rural areas. Therefore, despite rapid urbanization, rural populations remain large: more than 3 billion people are projected to live in rural areas in 2050.¹⁶ At the same time, despite recent progress in poverty reduction, about 1 billion people continue to live in poverty (< USD2/day) and another 1 billion in extreme poverty (< USD1.25/day), as defined by the World Bank (WB).¹⁷ Some **80 percent of the world's extreme poor live in rural areas** where most are dependent on agriculture.



More and better jobs in rural areas directly contribute to SDG 1, "End poverty in all its forms everywhere."

Hence, the creation of more decent jobs for the rural poor is a priority. Employment is widely recognized as one of the main transmission channels through which growth and development

16 United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. 2014. *World urbanization prospects: The 2014 revision*. CD-ROM edition (available at <http://esa.un.org/unpd/wup/>).

17 WB. 2015. Povcalnet. Online analysis tool for global poverty monitoring (available at <http://iresearch.worldbank.org/PovcalNet/index.htm>). Last accessed November 2015. USD1.25/day and USD2.00/day refer to international poverty lines, with dollars measured in constant 2005 PPP dollars.

have a sustainable impact on poverty reduction.¹⁸ However, it is not only a question of how many jobs are available: jobs need to be “decent” to be good for development. According to the ILO, jobs must enable people to work under conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity.¹⁹ If rural jobs do not generate sufficient and stable incomes or, worse, if they disempower workers by violating fundamental human rights, employment will not lead to empowerment and sustainable livelihoods. Efforts have to date been insufficient. Agricultural workers suffer the highest prevalence of poverty; they are caught in vicious cycles of low productivity, seasonal unemployment and low wages; and they are particularly vulnerable to changing weather patterns.²⁰

More decent jobs are needed for **rural youth** in particular. In the developing world, working poverty remains far too prevalent among youth: nearly two-thirds of youth are found in a state of extreme, moderate or near poverty, with shares exceeding 90 percent in South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa (SSA).²¹ Poverty is typically associated with work in the informal economy (self-employed and casual wage labourers), especially in rural areas.²² A further challenge is the increasing numbers of youth seeking work. SSA, for example, has the youngest population in the world: over 60 percent of a total population of 960 million is below the age of 24. Moreover, given SSA's high fertility rates, this trend is forecast to continue over the coming decades (UN, 2015).²³ More generally, populations in many parts of the world are still young. Latin America and the Caribbean and Asia have smaller percentages of children than Africa owing to decreasing fertility rates, but similar percentages of youth aged 15–24 years (17 and 16 percent, respectively, compared with 19 percent in Africa). In total, these three regions are home to 1.1 billion young persons in 2015.²⁴ This creates an opportunity to benefit from a huge demographic dividend, provided that appropriate policies are put in place to train and then absorb the growing working-age population. In Africa, for example, over the next 15 years, almost 200 million rural youth are expected to enter the labour market.²⁵

While circumstances may vary across contexts and country income levels, **agriculture is an important source of employment** and income in the rural areas of most developing regions. Agriculture has therefore a major role to play in improving the employment prospects in rural areas, both as provider of employment opportunities in the sector and as driver of employment-intensive structural transformation processes. In SSA, for instance, the demand for food is increasing due to growing population, urbanization and rising household income. This rapidly growing demand creates opportunities

18 UNRISD. 2011. *Combating poverty and inequality: Structural change, social policy and politics*. Geneva. WB. 2007. *World Development Report 2008: Agriculture for development*. Washington, DC. WB. 2012. *World Development Report 2013: Jobs*. Washington, DC.

19 ILC87. *Report of the Director-General: Decent work*. ILO.

20 2014 Human Development Report (available at <http://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/hdr14-report-en-1.pdf>).

21 In 2013, more than one-third (37.8%) of employed youth (aged 15–24) in the developing world were poor (17.7% in extreme poverty at < USD1.25/day and 20.1% in moderate poverty at < USD2/day). Another 26.3% of employed youth were estimated to be in the near poor group (17% living on USD2–3/day, and 9.2% living on USD3–4/day). This means that in 2013 as many as 169 million youth are working but living on less than USD2/day. The number grows to 286 million if the near poor are included, thus measuring working poverty below USD4/day. (ILO. *World employment and social outlook 2015: The changing nature of jobs*. Geneva.)

22 ILO. 2015. *Global employment trends for youth 2015: Scaling up investments in decent jobs for youth*. Geneva.

23 UN. 2015. *World population prospects: 2015 revision*. New York.

24 UN. 2015. *World population prospects: 2015 revision*. New York.

25 Losch, B., Fréguin–Gresh, S. & White, E. 2011. *Rural transformation and late developing countries in a globalizing world. A comparative analysis of rural change*. Final Report of the RuralStruc Program, revised version. Washington, DC, WB.

for suppliers and suggests that there is a largely untapped reservoir of employment opportunities in agriculture. Across regions, the development of the post-harvest section of food value chains, including processing and retailing, could create many jobs: an increased demand for raw agricultural materials would have a direct positive effect on the high number of households involved in farming.²⁶ On a positive note, cross-country estimates show that GDP growth originating in agriculture is at least twice as effective in reducing poverty as GDP growth originating in other sectors.²⁷

Across developing regions, as the labour force moves out of agriculture, it is not automatically absorbed into formal employment in the industrial and service sector; there is not necessarily a shift to higher value-added activities with an increased level of labour productivity. In practice, a disproportionate number of workers move into the service sector and informal employment, where there is limited scope for sustained growth in productivity and improvement in incomes. Moreover, many low-income countries remain mainly agrarian, with limited economic diversification and industrialization. Agriculture accounts for a large share of the economy and employment in lower-income countries of Central America, South Asia, sub-Saharan Africa and other regions where poverty rates remain high.²⁸ Moreover, agriculture is expected to remain one of the main drivers of growth and the main source of employment for at least some decades. Most of the rural poor will therefore remain “trapped” in agriculture and the informal rural economy. For example, in SSA, it is predicted that over the next 10 years, no more than one in four youth will find a wage job, and **most young people will end up working where their parents do**, in family farms and household enterprises.²⁹ While only a fraction of smallholder farmers (between 10 and 30 percent) are likely to succeed as entrepreneurs (or commercial farmers) in competitive food chains,³⁰ the agricultural sector needs to be part of the solution.

However, agriculture cannot handle the employment challenge alone. In addition to farm jobs, there is significant potential for job creation in **rural non-farm economic (RNF) activities** around agrifood chains linked to sustainable agriculture, agribusiness development and related support services. Opportunities could be promoted in the enterprises that provide inputs and services to farmers, and in the downstream marketing and agroprocessing segments of agrifood chains. Value-adding activities may include sorting and grading, packaging and labelling, as well as chilling and cool chain operations. In general, RNF activities are becoming an important source of income for farm and other rural households, including the landless poor. While on-farm production is still a particularly important income source in SSA (40–70 percent of rural households earn more than three-quarters of their income from on-farm sources), in Asia and Latin America, a large share of the rural labour force is already working full- or part-time in non-agricultural jobs. Income gains at household level are often associated with a shift towards employment opportunities in the non-farm sector.³¹ Also, in the face of credit constraints, RNF activities affect the performance of agriculture by providing farmers with cash to invest in productivity-enhancing inputs.

26 FAO. 2014. *Developing sustainable food value chains – Guiding principles*. Rome. p. 20.

27 WB. 2007. *World development report 2008: Agriculture for Development*. Washington, D.C.

28 FAO. 2015. *The State of Food and Agriculture. Social protection and agriculture: Breaking the cycle of rural poverty*.

29 Filmer, D. & Fox, L. 2014. *Overview: Youth employment in sub-Saharan Africa*. Washington, DC, WB.

30 FAO. 2014. *Developing sustainable food value chains – Guiding principles*. Rome. p. 15.

31 FAO. 2012. *Decent rural employment for food security: A case for action*. Rome.

Furthermore, development of RNF activities in the food system (including agroprocessing, distribution and the provision of farm inputs) may increase the profitability of farming by increasing the availability of inputs and improving access to market outlets. In turn, better performance of the food system increases rural incomes and lowers urban food prices. Such economic diversification will need to build on strengthened rural-urban linkages to create additional job opportunities in trade, transportation and rural services.

More and better jobs in rural areas are needed to **curb distress migration of rural people**, particularly youth. Youth are increasingly migrating from rural to urban areas and abroad, and this contributes to the current migration crisis. Economic distress and lack of economic opportunities are among the main causes of migratory pressure. For example, the majority of Africa's migrants originate from rural areas and around one-third of all international migrants from developing countries are between 12 and 24 years of age. Recent data from the Gallup World Poll show that more than one in three youth in SSA would like to move permanently to another country.³² Labour migration makes a substantial contribution to growth and development in both source and destination countries (e.g. through workers' remittances). However, migration is often distress migration, undertaken because the individual and/or the family perceive that there are no other options for them to survive with dignity. Many rural-urban migrants end up in urban suburbs in economic systems characterized by jobless growth and the proliferation of slums. The promotion of decent jobs in rural areas of countries of origin – including through the use of remittances to promote jobs and development – is crucial if migration is to become an option rather than an obligation.

A snapshot of the main decent work deficits in rural areas is presented in Box 3.

Box 3. Main decent work deficits in rural areas

- **Working poverty:** Nearly 80% of the world's working poor live in rural areas.^a
- **Limited access to social protection:** Less than 20% of agricultural workers have access to basic social protection.^b
- **Gender-related discrimination:** Female wage workers in rural areas are more likely to hold informal, part-time, seasonal and/or low-paying jobs.^c
- **Child labour:** Almost 60% of the world's child labourers work in agriculture, which is equivalent to over 98 million children.^d
- **Hazards and workplace accidents:** Agriculture, which employs about 60% of workers in less developed countries, is one of the most hazardous sectors. Of the 321 000 fatal workplace accidents documented worldwide each year, about half occur in agriculture.^e
- **Pesticide poisoning:** Between 1% and 3% of agricultural workers worldwide suffer from acute pesticide poisoning, with adolescents disproportionately affected.^f
- **Working poverty among youth:** Over half of the world's youth – about 600 million young people in absolute terms – live in rural areas of developing countries,^g where they often struggle to access quality employment opportunities. This is one of the reasons why nearly two-thirds of youth globally are found in a state of extreme, moderate or near poverty, reaching over 90% in South Asia and SSA.^h

Sources: ^aILO. 2012. *Global employment trends. Preventing a deeper job crisis*. Geneva; ^bILO. 2011. *Food security through decent work*. Policy Brief. Geneva; ^cFAO, IFAD, ILO. 2010. *Gender and rural employment*. Policy Brief. Issues 1–7. Rome, FAO; ^dILO, IPEC. *Marking progress against child labour – Global estimates and trends 2000–2012*. Geneva; ^eILO. 2013. *Rural policy briefs – Promoting rural development through occupational safety and health*; ^fUNEP. 2004. *Childhood pesticide poisoning. Information for advocacy and action*; ^gBennel, P. 2007. *Promoting livelihood opportunities for rural youth, knowledge and skills for development*. Rome, IFAD; ^hILO. 2015. *Global employment trends for youth 2015: scaling up investments in decent jobs for youth*.

32 ILO. 2015. *Global employment trends for youth 2015: Scaling up investments in decent jobs for youth*. Geneva.

ii) Decent rural jobs can enhance the performance and socio-economic sustainability of the agricultural sector.

Investment in more productive and decent work will not only generate socio-economic benefits for society, but also results in improved performance of the agricultural sector. Some of the **causes of the underperformance** of the agricultural sector are employment-related and include:

- poor working conditions and lack of skills;
- use of unsustainable practices (e.g. child labour);
- underemployment and weak organization of the labour force;
- lack of regular employment contracts (resulting in neglect of OSH and insufficient investment in skills development and productive capacity); and
- gender and age inequalities in rural labour markets (restricting the mobilization of the full productive capacity of women and young workers).

It is essential to promote better job prospects in agriculture and food systems in order to **rejuvenate the agricultural sector** and harness young people's energy, ambitions and their capacity to innovate. The Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) region, for example, could benefit from a substantial demographic dividend, given that the population of working age (15–64 years) is larger than the dependent population (< 15 and > 64 years). Nevertheless, rural migration continues, as youth are prevented from fully developing their capacities and actively engaging in the local economy, especially in rural areas. Despite efforts to formalize work, there is still a high proportion of youth who are either unemployed or in informal employment. This represents a major challenge for labour markets in LAC, with 46.8 percent of workers informally employed in 2013.³³ Globally, current trends indicate that, due to the lack of incentives and opportunities and the drudgery of rural life, youth are increasingly turning their backs on agriculture and rural areas.³⁴ Small-scale agriculture is often viewed not as a desirable and economically viable livelihood option, but as a coping strategy in the absence of adequate social safety nets and alternative employment opportunities. Better job prospects and improved rural living conditions are essential prerequisites if youth are to decide to stay in rural areas.

Investing in decent jobs that guarantee an adequate degree of income, employment security and stability and/or access to social protection mechanisms along the life cycle is also crucial to **increase the resilience, labour productivity and investment capacities** of rural workers. At household level, decisions about how to allocate labour are a function not only of available opportunities, but also of the need to minimize the impact of shocks on livelihoods.³⁵ Shocks can undermine people's ability to seize opportunities and discourage them from investing in skills development or more environmentally sustainable practices. On the contrary, households tend to reduce expenditure on basic needs (e.g. education and health), disinvest in human capital (e.g. child labour) and sell important assets (e.g. cattle), with negative and irreversible impacts on the productive capacity of the household and the overall sustainability of production systems.

33 ILO. 2015. *World employment and social outlook 2015: The changing nature of jobs*. Geneva.

34 IFAD. 2011. Feeding future generations – Young rural people today, prosperous farmers tomorrow. Plenary panel discussion, 34th session of the Governing Council, Rome.

35 IFAD. 2011. *Rural poverty report*.

In synthesis, promoting decent jobs for all in rural areas will make a significant contribution to the performance and sustainability of the agricultural sector through at least three different channels:

- **Sustainable increase in agricultural productivity** (improving workers' skills, organization and working conditions; attracting youth to the sector and reducing the productivity gap of women; increasing incomes and therefore demand for products of higher value as well as rural workers' own investment in agriculture; fostering agriculture and livelihood diversification to reduce pressure on natural resources such as marine resources and forests).
- **Reduction of inequalities and social conflict** with improved targeting of the poorest and most vulnerable rural workers thanks to the inherent rights-based approach (eliminating violations of labour rights, improving wages, enhancing the redistributive effects of growth etc.).
- **Empowerment of rural producers and workers** as active contributors to agricultural and rural development (giving them dignity, skills and an enabling environment to encourage their active participation in the local economy).

iii) More productive and stable jobs in rural areas will contribute to food security by improving peoples' livelihoods and access to food.



Access to productive and gainful jobs directly contributes to SDG 2, “End hunger, achieve food security and improve nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture”.

Access to productive and gainful jobs is a necessary condition for sustainable food security. The rural poor often have very limited access to productive assets such as land or livestock. In short, for food and a living income, poor people's main asset is often their own labour.

Most rural workers produce food, making a direct contribution to food **availability**. At the same time, the income earned from their work determines their **access** to food. Further, workers' health and working conditions heavily impact on food **utilization**, especially in the case of women. Finally, the security and stability of people's jobs, as well as innovation and the empowerment of future generations, directly influence the **stability** of all the food security dimensions listed above. **Important links therefore connect DRE to each of the four dimensions of food security (see Box 4).**³⁶

³⁶ The definition of food security embodies four dimensions, namely: i) availability of food, which is a function of supply; ii) access to food, largely determined by purchasing power, market integration and physical access to markets, access to other assets like land, formal safety nets and informal coping strategies; iii) stability in food availability and access, through time; and iv) food utilization, which relies on sufficient energy consumption and a varied diet to provide required micronutrients. FAO. 2008. *An introduction to the basic concepts of food security* (available at <http://www.fao.org/docrep/013/a1936e/a1936e00.pdf>).

Box 4. Links between DRE and the four dimensions of food security

Availability. Farmers, fishers, hunters, herders, pastoralists and waged agricultural workers directly contribute to food production. Promoting more productive and sustainable jobs in the agricultural sector and throughout the food system will therefore increase food production in the local food systems. Additional investments are required: in education and skills development to sustainably increase agricultural labour productivity; in workers' organization and social dialogue to increase workers' commitment to productivity enhancements; and in harnessing the partially untapped potential of women and youth producers.

Access. The amount of income generated from work determines the amount and quality of food that workers and their families can purchase. With more secure working arrangements, households will gain in consumption stability and well-being.

Utilization. A decent work approach, by promoting safe work and protecting workers' health, also contributes to redress the vicious circle of low productivity, low wages, malnutrition, ill health and low working capacity. Efforts must be made to ensure that these potential positive effects on food utilization are not cancelled out by care deficits. Therefore, rural employment creation must be gender-aware, and adequate social protection and care services are required to reduce women's domestic and care burden.

Stability. Stable and secure jobs, associated with social protection mechanisms along the life cycle that compensate for existing instabilities (e.g. through social protection floors), contribute to food access stability. Diversification through jobs in the rural non-farm economy is also an increasingly important element of the risk management strategies of rural households.



FAO, 2012. [Decent rural employment for food security: A case for action](#)

Important links also exist between the **right to decent work** and the **right to adequate food**. The lack of decent jobs in rural areas seriously hinders the capacity of rural populations to enjoy their right to adequate food – generally understood as the right to feed oneself in dignity without compromising the enjoyment of other human rights. On the other hand, decent jobs favour stable and secure living incomes, resulting in more stable access to food. People are empowered to lift themselves out of poverty, directly contribute to agricultural and rural development and claim their labour rights through participation in social and policy dialogues (e.g. through informal organizations, producers' organizations and cooperatives).³⁷ Investments in the life and employment skills of the rural poor and rights-based employment interventions, such as India's Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, can provide an employment safety net for the rural poor, contributing to households' self-reliance in the procurement of food.

iv) Improved working conditions in rural areas will enhance the compliance of agricultural production with international right-based standards as well as with social certifications.

Decent work is a human right to which every person is entitled. Governments are therefore obliged to respect this right and guarantee its effective enjoyment by all human beings. Furthermore, multinational corporations are under increasing pressure from a variety of directions (e.g. shareholders, Non-governmental Organizations [NGOs], media and consumers) to ensure ethical conduct and practices within their supply chains. Respecting the rights of workers and local communities is also considered to be a valuable social insurance for the investment of corporations. Studies reveal when foreign investors choose

37 FAO. 2016 (Forthcoming). *The right to adequate food and the right to decent work: Joining forces in rural areas*.

where to invest, they rank workforce quality and political and social stability above low labour costs.³⁸ Finally, the promotion of decent work means that agricultural production is more likely to comply with social certifications (e.g. GlobalG.A.P. or Social Accountability standard SA8000) and export certifications.

Since 1919, the ILO has established and developed the international legal framework for decent work through a system of international labour standards (ILS).³⁹ ILS include standards specific to agriculture such as the Safety and Health in Agriculture Convention, 2001 (No. 184), as well as standards that apply to all workers in all sectors such as the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182). International human rights instruments that apply to all types of workers and forms of work also incorporate labour-related rights such as the rights to an opportunity to work, to just and favorable conditions of work, to form and join trade unions, to non-discriminatory access of women to employment opportunities, to protection against child labour and to access social security.

In addition, many voluntary instruments relevant to agriculture and rural development have been endorsed by the Committee on World Food Security (CFS), FAO and/or the ILO and provide further guidance for their respective Members. These standards include the Principles for Responsible Investment in Agriculture and Food Systems and the Voluntary Guidelines for Securing Sustainable Small-scale Fisheries in the Context of Food Security and Poverty Eradication. **For a list of binding and voluntary international labour standards relevant for rural areas, see Annex 1.**

Voluntary instruments, including those led by the private sector under responsible business conduct or corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives (e.g. the SAI platform), are becoming increasingly relevant for the promotion of decent work in rural areas. They have an important role, because national labour laws do not always protect rural workers. For example, workers may be excluded because of their employment status (e.g. casual or seasonal workers or smallholder farmers). When legislation does exist and is inclusive, it is not always easy to enforce, given the informal nature of most rural occupations and the inadequate or non-existent labour inspection in isolated and remote areas. Voluntary standards therefore contribute to the **dual approach** that needs to be adopted to **promote better jobs in rural areas**:

- Extend labour legislation to agriculture and related informal rural occupations.
- Introduce innovative solutions for promoting decent work in practice (e.g. through public-private partnerships [PPP] or multistakeholder monitoring mechanisms).

38 ILO. 2014. *Rules of the game: A brief introduction to international labour standards*. Geneva. p. 12.

39 The international labour standards are legal instruments drawn up by the ILO's constituents (governments, employers and workers) and setting out basic principles and rights at work. They are either Conventions, which are legally binding international treaties that may be ratified by member States, or Recommendations, which serve as non-binding guidelines. In many cases, a Convention lays down the basic principles to be implemented by ratifying countries, while a related Recommendation supplements the Convention by providing more detailed guidelines on how it could be applied. Recommendations can also be autonomous, i.e. not linked to any Convention. For more information, see the ILO introduction to <http://ilo.org/global/standards/introduction-to-international-labour-standards/lang-en/index.htm>.



How do we incorporate decent rural employment (DRE) considerations in each planning phase?

HOW?

This section provides practical guidance for incorporating DRE considerations in the strategic planning of agricultural interventions. The four subsections correspond to the four phases of the strategic planning process.

Phase 1. Execution of problem and stakeholder analysis – Applying a DRE lens

This phase answers the question: **Where are we now?**



The standard process of strategic planning usually begins with a small team in the strategic planning (or similar) unit of the MoA. The team:

- identifies the main bottlenecks jeopardizing the performance of the sector and the potential interventions to address them;
- consults the key stakeholders relevant to the planning process; and
- conducts detailed problem and stakeholder analysis focusing on the main problems identified.

It is vital to look into employment issues at this stage to be able to mainstream DRE into the development of an agricultural intervention. Mainstreaming DRE in this phase of strategic planning entails the following steps:

- Involve key DRE stakeholders in the initial consultations (1.1)
- Assess the roles and institutional capacities of both agricultural and employment stakeholders in the detailed stakeholder analysis (1.2)
- Assess DRE issues in the problem analysis (1.3)

1.1 Involve key DRE stakeholders in the initial consultations

- ▶ **Involve key DRE stakeholders (e.g. MoL) in the initial consultations.** Following identification of the developmental problem to address, the strategic planning unit of MoA usually conducts rapid consultations before engaging in more detailed problem and stakeholder analysis. While often informal and internal to the ministry, this phase is nevertheless fundamental



The Ministry of Labour is a powerful ally given its mandate on labour issues and decent work mainstreaming.

as it defines the intervention team that will be engaged in the planning process. Include key DRE stakeholders now to ensure their subsequent involvement in the identification and prioritization of problems and implementation of interventions. Key DRE stakeholders at this stage are: MoL; MoA units responsible for extension services and agrifood value chains; the ministry responsible for industry and trade; and, if needed, development partners (e.g. FAO and the ILO) promoting decent work in the rural economy.

1.2 Assess the roles and institutional capacities of both agricultural and employment stakeholders in the detailed stakeholder analysis

► **When carrying out the detailed stakeholder analysis, include an assessment of the roles and institutional capacities of both agricultural and employment stakeholders in promoting DRE.** Following the initial consultations, the intervention team usually identifies the main groups and institutions with a significant interest or role in the intervention, and assesses their respective interests, relative power, strengths and weaknesses. Inclusion of DRE stakeholders in the analysis allows the intervention team to:

- leverage them in the implementation of the programme;
- promote partnerships that are relevant for DRE promotion; and
- address conflicts in the intervention design.

It is important to assess the interests and capacities of both agricultural and employment stakeholders with respect to DRE, examine inherent conflicts and/or compatibilities (e.g. with the interests of poor people), and explore how different stakeholders perceive trade-offs (e.g. labour rights and skills development vs increased labour costs). Identify existing partnerships or overlapping mandates related to DRE (e.g. between MoA, MoL and the ministry responsible for social affairs), as well as the level of coordination between ministries (e.g. labour, agriculture, rural development) and between the public and the private sector, including workers and producers' organizations (POs). **The main stakeholders with a potential role in DRE promotion are listed in Box 5.** Whether or not to include them in the detailed stakeholder analysis depends on the specific country context and on the scope of the planned intervention.

Box 5. Main stakeholders with a potential role in DRE promotion

- Ministries responsible for agriculture and its subsectors (MoA), labour (MoL), industry and trade, social affairs, gender, youth, education, and technical and vocational training (TVET), and respective local government authorities (LGAs).
- Private sector, including large foreign and domestic investors, small and medium agro-enterprises and their organizations, and main producers' organizations (POs).
- Trade unions and other organizations of vulnerable or disadvantaged rural workers, including informal workers' organizations.
- Development partners (e.g. FAO, ILO, IFAD, IOM, UNIDO).
- Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs), training centres, microfinance institutions.
- Research institutions, universities and think tanks active in rural employment, agriculture and rural development topics.

1.3 Address DRE issues in the problem analysis

- ▶ **Maximize involvement of employment stakeholders in the detailed problem analysis.** Once the analysis has identified the employment-related problems relevant for agricultural development and the intervention being planned, they are organized into a **problem tree**. Whether multistakeholder consultations or bilateral meetings are planned, employment stakeholders should be involved at this stage to get their views on relevant employment-related problems and opportunities that agricultural stakeholders could overlook.

During the consultations, bear in mind that some employment issues may emerge more easily than others. Agricultural stakeholders tend to acknowledge issues of employment creation and the enabling environment for entrepreneurship rather than issues related to rights at work. The overall concept of DRE continues to face resistance, partly because it embodies delicate topics such as forced or child labour. Many rural stakeholders do not fully recognize how important decent jobs are for increasing agricultural productivity and ensuring the sustainability of agrifood systems. There may be resistance to changes to the status quo based on the perception that DRE approaches are not economically viable in low-productivity and stagnant sectors. Questions may be raised such as: Does the application of labour standards further disincentivize investments and private sector development? To what extent is it possible to guarantee alternative livelihoods for families whose income also depends on unpaid children's work? Multistakeholder and inclusive consultations are important for avoiding confrontation and creating a conducive environment for issues related to rights at work to emerge.



Collect evidence on DRE issues before important policy dialogue events to guarantee more inclusive multistakeholder consultations and preempt confrontations.

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In addition to the main stakeholders with a mandate or role in decent work promotion in rural areas (e.g. ILO, MoL and the private sector), it is important to map the most vulnerable and typically under-represented groups from an employment point of view and to hear their representatives. These groups include: small-scale producers; agricultural wage workers in the informal economy; micro and small rural enterprises (especially those linked to food production and agriculture); women and youth; and other specific groups (e.g. child labourers).

- ▶ **Specify the employment-related causes of agricultural problems as well as the intervention potential to address them.** In particular, the problem analysis needs to identify:
 - specific DRE-related challenges and opportunities linked to the intervention being planned (e.g. main decent work deficits, poor skills of rural workers);
 - effects on different population groups in rural areas, in particular which groups may be more exposed to employment-related risks (e.g. job loss, increased workload and child labour occurrence, limited access to finance and consequent inability to seize opportunities); and
 - DRE-related constraints to agricultural development that can be eliminated or reduced through the specific intervention being planned and should therefore be prioritized.

Box 6. DRE questions to guide the problem analysis

- Are we consulting representatives of vulnerable and disadvantaged rural workers, including the main producers' and workers' organizations? Are we consulting an employment specialist?
- Are we assessing labour-related constraints to agricultural production and productivity (e.g. skills, access to productive resources including labour, time constraints)?
- Are we adequately capturing the problems faced by different groups of rural workers, according to the specific circumstances? (e.g. men and women; adults, youth and children; small-scale producers and waged agricultural workers; workers in different subsectors and their respective value chains; migrant workers and indigenous people)?
- Are we addressing causes related to poor national capacities (e.g. capacity in MoA to address issues related to labour, employment and entrepreneurship; financial capacity)?
- Do we have sufficient information about the existing policy, institutional and legal frameworks related to DRE and their enforcement in practice? (This consideration is important to define the nature of an eventual problem of exclusion, e.g. Are agricultural workers not protected by national legislation? Is there a problem of lack of inspection and enforcement of labour standards in rural areas?)
- Have the consultations for the problem analysis given us an idea of which causes are easier/more difficult to address? Which are already evolving positively? Which already receive support through national policies and strategies and development partners?



ILO NORMLEX database brings together information on international labour standards, including ratification information and comments on implementation by country. It provides indication of the main decent work deficits in a specific country and how governments address them.

DRE guiding questions for the problem analysis are listed in Box 6.

It is very important to define clearly the employment-related causes of agricultural problems to guide the development of the intervention strategy. An explicit cause (e.g. low level of workers' skills causes low productivity) increases focus on a specific strategy. **Employment-related causes of common agricultural problems are listed in Table 1.** Consider causes at organizational level (e.g. internal policies, procedures, frameworks) and at

enabling environment level (e.g. legislation, policies, power relations) – for example, weak capacity of MoA or MoL to support the enforcement of OSH standards in rural informal settings. Remember to address constraints related to both supply and demand of labour.

Supply constraints include:

- low level of skills of agricultural workers;
- ageing of agricultural farmers;
- inadequate information about location and availability of jobs; and
- limited access to land and capital.

Demand constraints include:

- slow economic growth;
- poor public and private investments;
- limited opportunities for diversification; and
- insufficient or deteriorating natural resources (e.g. declining fish stocks) and competition over their use.

► **Include a rapid context analysis of DRE (i.e. collection of existing employment and decent work assessments, as well as DRE-related policy, programmatic and legal frameworks).**

A context analysis on DRE for the area of implementation of your intervention may already exist. If not, carry out a desk review to:

- examine recent socio-economic analyses and extract employment information;
- identify relevant employment statistical indicators from national or international databases; and
- conduct a rapid analysis of the main existing employment-related national programmes and the labour-related policy and legal frameworks in order to understand what is in place and what is not.



Invest in a DRE value chain assessment or in broader agricultural sector assessments to inform the problem analysis. It may be done in collaboration with MoL and key workers' and employers' organizations. Assessments can be used to collect baseline data to measure future progress of the intervention.

Further guidance on the steps to follow is provided in Box 7.

Box 7. Main steps for a rapid context analysis for DRE (Time needed: 1 week)

1. Extract DRE-relevant information from recent national socio-economic analyses or DRE-related international databases:

- Report identified decent work deficits in the sector or specific value chains (e.g. child labour and forced labour, gender discriminations, distress migration of youth, poor skills of rural workers, precarious and hazardous work) or problems related to labour demand (e.g. private sector underdeveloped, there are not enough jobs) and labour supply (e.g. uneducated workers, shortage of workers in peak periods).
- Check international databases (e.g. [ILO database of Decent Work Country Profiles](#); [UN Country Teams](#); [ILO's country profiles on OSH](#); [Understand children work \(UCW\) reports](#); [NORMLEX](#)).

2. Select key employment statistical indicators from national or international databases:

- Create a table of background data (age- and sex-disaggregated if available) on: rural poverty and working poverty in rural areas (how many people are active/employed in rural areas); employment in agriculture; share of small-scale producers and wage workers in agriculture; informal/formal employment in agriculture/rural areas; child labour rate in agriculture.
- Refer to Annex 3, Table A, for a list of global databases of DRE-related data.

3. Conduct a rapid desk review of national DRE policies, strategies, legal frameworks and programmes:

- Assess how the existing agricultural policies, strategies and main programmes address employment issues (e.g. explicit or implicit priority? dedicated lines of action and programmes? specific focus on groups of rural workers? which ones?).
- Verify the relevance for rural employment/agriculture of: national employment (or youth employment) policies, strategies and main programmes; child labour policies, strategies and main programmes; other main strategies or programmes that might be directly linked with employment in agriculture (e.g. OSH policy, gender policy, MSME policy).
- Consider legal frameworks (e.g. employment-related acts and regulations and how they apply to rural areas and the agricultural sector in particular).

Rural labour market information may be weak or poorly disaggregated. In this case, it may be useful to conduct a dedicated age- and gender-sensitive survey or qualitative study, which would also be valuable for collecting baseline data for measuring future progress of the intervention. The intervention team can carry out the analysis, ideally with inputs from an external rural employment specialist. Government authorities can receive support from FAO and ILO technical specialists present in country or regional offices. **For further guidance on DRE-related surveys, see Annex 3, Table D.**

- ▶ **Give due priority to violations of fundamental labour rights.** Such violations refer to: denial of the right to freedom of association (the right to form and join trade unions) and of the right to collective bargaining; existence of forms of forced labour, including human trafficking, bonded or debt labour; occurrence of child labour, especially in its worst forms; and discrimination on grounds of race, age, gender, political opinion, religion, caste, nationality, or ethnicity. Assess carefully whether or not the intervention operates in a value chain where children are frequently engaged (e.g. on plantations, processing plants or in family farming) or where there have been reports of child labour or forced labour.
- ▶ **Use the problem analysis to collect information on the intervention potential.** Prioritize the DRE-related constraints to agricultural development that can be eliminated or reduced through the intervention being planned. Consider, in particular, opportunities for:
 - employment creation;
 - improvement of working conditions; and
 - inclusion of excluded groups.

The analysis should identify exactly where the major decent work deficits and employment untapped potential are in the agriculture and food system (or in the specific subsectors and value chains). Consider that opportunities and needs in the various agricultural subsectors (including crop cultivation, livestock production, forestry, fisheries and aquaculture) are interrelated to varying degrees and at different administrative, institutional, policy and geographic levels.



FAO. 2014. Tool for conducting a context analysis on DRE at country level. Developed for FAO's programmes on DRE, the tool supports the implementation of an analysis of the policy framework in which organizations and individuals involved in DRE promotion operate.

ILO. 2011. Assessing Green Jobs Potential in Developing Countries: A Practitioner's Guide. The document provides a step-by-step guide to estimating "green" employment potential, including in the agricultural sector.

ILO. 2009. Green job assessment in agriculture and forestry sector of Bangladesh. This is an example of a specific green job country assessment.

Table 1. Employment challenges for agricultural development: Causes, effects and solutions

Frequent problems affecting agricultural development	Potential employment-related causes	Potential effects on livelihood strategies/coping mechanisms of the rural poor and agricultural development	Potential employment-related solutions
<p>Low productivity of agricultural producers and other workers, particularly women and youth</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Most rural people work as self-employed or contributing family workers in small-scale agriculture and informal microenterprises with limited access to productive resources, including agricultural inputs and mechanization - Workforce with low education levels and poor access to extension services or to technical and vocational training opportunities - Poor working conditions, including poor OSH, associated with general poor health and nutrition of rural workforce resulting from limited access to health care, spread of malaria or HIV and AIDS - Use of child labour as a cheap substitute for adult labour - Excessive work burden of female agricultural producers and workers owing to combination of productive and reproductive work,⁴² making it more difficult for them to engage in productive activities - Gender and age inequalities in access to productive resources, training and extension, and labour markets aimed at livelihood diversification 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Low earnings, rural poverty, people unable to earn adequate living incomes⁴³ and buy adequate food for themselves and their families - Gender- and age-related inequalities (e.g. high rates of poverty for women and youth) - Need to work excessive hours, engage children in child labour, migrate or sell assets to make ends meet or react to shocks, further reducing productive capacity - Distress out-migration of rural youth - Poor capacity of small farmers and microenterprises to invest, grow and engage in commercial farming - Suboptimal production levels for the agricultural sector as a whole 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Skills development, including in entrepreneurship - Programmes to improve OSH in small-scale farming and micro and small rural enterprises (including informal businesses) - Sustainable agriculture and value chain development interventions investing in increasing overall labour productivity, including in small-scale farming and among women and youth - Support to the economic diversification of the rural economy and to the management of economic mobility - Social support services to reduce women's work burden - Initiatives to prevent and eliminate child labour in agriculture

40 Reproductive work entails child-bearing/rearing responsibilities, domestic tasks and community work carried out by women and necessary to guarantee the maintenance and reproduction of the current and future labour force. Reproductive work is usually unpaid.

41 Adequate living income refers to the remuneration needed for a worker to provide his/her family with a basic, but decent, lifestyle that is considered acceptable by the society in which he/she resides at its current level of economic development.

Frequent problems affecting agricultural development	Potential employment-related causes	Potential effects on livelihood strategies/coping mechanisms of the rural poor and agricultural development	Potential employment-related solutions
<p>Predominance of subsistence farming, not upgrading into commercial agriculture</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lack of skills, including entrepreneurial and managerial skills among small farmers and contributing family members - Low level of organization among producers - Lack of gainful non-farm jobs or regular wage jobs in agricultural value chains - Informal employment relationships and poor social protection systems, leaving a large proportion of the poor population uninsured against income shocks, less capable of avoiding and managing investment risk and trapped in agriculture as a safety net 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Suboptimal production levels for the agricultural sector as a whole - High rates of vulnerable employment and working poverty, excluding producers and their contributing family members from social security schemes or from safety and health, maternity and other labour protection legislation - Poor local markets for agricultural products, due to low demand, especially for local products and higher value products 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Promotion of responsible investments in the agricultural sector, to boost the investment capacity of smallholders and prioritize the right to food and work - Strengthening of POs and promotion of inclusive business models, including responsible contract farming and outgrower schemes - Establishment of incubators and training for youth agripreneurs, mobilizing youth energy to improve the management of small farms as enterprises - Social protection interventions increasing the resilience of small producers and their capacity to save and invest
<p>Poor availability of skilled labour, or skills not matching rural labour market needs</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Low level of education of rural people and limited access to technical and vocational training - Poor labour market information systems - Low wages and incomes preventing workers from making desired investments in skills development - Women’s excessive work burden, gender-blind extension and education systems for rural people (e.g. few female extensionists), and sociocultural norms discouraging women from engaging in skills development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Inability to leave unskilled low-pay jobs, particularly women and youth - Low labour productivity in agriculture - Failure, limited growth and poor investments of SMEs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Skills development and skills anticipation - Job search and placement services in rural areas - Gender- and age-sensitive extension and education systems
<p>Natural resources becoming degraded – in particular, land, fisheries and water – and growing competition for their use</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Few opportunities for livelihood diversification, resulting in continued pressure on natural resources - Poor environmental skills of farmers - Limited availability of “green jobs” in rural areas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Degradation of natural resources - Increased climate-related risks for farmers - Oversupply and consequent underemployment in certain seasons (e.g. in fishing during closed seasons) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Skills development for green jobs (e.g. sustainable agriculture practices) - Programmes for green entrepreneurship - Provision of incentives to transfer labour to different segments within a value chain or between sectors

Frequent problems affecting agricultural development	Potential employment-related causes	Potential effects on livelihood strategies/coping mechanisms of the rural poor and agricultural development	Potential employment-related solutions
Ageing of agricultural workers and farmers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Drudgery of rural life and poor working conditions in agriculture, resulting reluctance of young people to stay in rural areas - Lack of incentives for young people in families already working in agriculture to remain in the sector 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Distress out-migration of rural youth - Increased pressure on urban informal labour markets - Labour supply constraints in rural areas increasing women's work burden and child labour - Future sustainability of food production at risk 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Enhancement of the decent job creation potential of MSMEs and family farms, to retain young generations in food value chains (e.g. improving management to make it more rewarding for youth) - Pilot intergenerational land transfer programmes
Insufficient labour supply at peak times, particularly in agriculture (e.g. for weeding, harvesting)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Migration of male workers, resulting from limited job availability in rural areas and absence of social protection mechanisms - Lack of labour market information systems matching labour demand and supply for seasonal agricultural work - High incidence of work-related illness, injuries and death causing temporary or prolonged absence from work, due to lack of information and means to prevent hazards and risks, as well as poor use of protective equipment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Suboptimal production levels - Increased women's work burden and child labour 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Skills development and skills anticipation - Employment services tailored to rural areas, providing information about the labour market and job search assistance and placement services - Schemes for circular migration in agriculture - Promotion of OSH in rural areas
Widespread poverty for workers in the sector and rural people in general	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Low earnings of workers, particularly women and youth, because of low productivity, underemployment, lack of respect of national minimum wage, worker exploitation, and low workers' unionization and bargaining power - No employment opportunities and income in certain seasons (e.g. off-season, period of migration in fisheries and closed seasons, or as a result of adverse weather) - Development generating insufficient regular⁴³ jobs, resulting in agriculture used as a safety net - Exploitation of child labourers/migrants-contributing family workers as cheap labour, forcing down wages - Lack of social protection mechanisms, increasing the vulnerability of rural people to shocks (e.g. death or illness of income earner, crop failure) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Poor demand and dynamism of local rural economies, export dependency and risks associated with floating food prices - Immediate and long-term health effects on children - Vicious cycle of poverty perpetuating throughout generations - Violence, conflict and destitution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Minimum wage policies, enhancement of workers' unionization and bargaining power - Public-private partnerships for the adoption of living wages in specific value chains - Support to MSMEs and livelihood diversification - Sustainable agriculture and value chain development interventions, increasing rewards and income stability for rural workers, including small-scale farmers - Initiatives to prevent and eliminate child labour and exploitation of migrants in agriculture

42 Regular employees are employees with stable contracts, which oblige the "employer" to pay regular social security contributions and/or are subject to national labour legislation. See ICSE-93 Resolution concerning the International Classification of Status in Employment.

Frequent problems affecting agricultural development	Potential employment-related causes	Potential effects on livelihood strategies/coping mechanisms of the rural poor and agricultural development	Potential employment-related solutions
<p>Child labour and children in hazardous work</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lack of decent jobs for adults and poor social protection with the result that child labour is the only option to guarantee household food security, for example, when household is subject to shock (e.g. death or illness of income earner, crop failure). - Uneducated parents, resulting in lack of awareness of the hazards that children may face and the consequences on their health, safety and morals - Cultural expectations regarding children, work and education - Lack of relevant quality education in rural areas - Weak national legislation prohibiting child labour, particularly in rural areas and the agricultural sector, exacerbated by poor inspection 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Immediate and long-term health effects on children - Interference with children's education, disinvestment in human capital - Vicious cycle of poverty perpetuating throughout generations - Low labour productivity in small-scale farming - Inability to access export markets due to poor compliance with standards for socially sustainable production 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Child labour prevention and elimination programmes - Multistakeholder partnerships to enhance the respect of core labour standards also in informal settings - Improvement of national legislation and private standards to protect the labour rights of agricultural workers, including farmers (e.g. promotion of principles for responsible agricultural investments) - Gradual movement towards formalization
<p>High incidence of occupational diseases or accidents</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Hazardousness of the agricultural sector - Lack of information and means to prevent hazards and risks and poor use of protective equipment - Lack of compliance of machinery, equipment and hand tools used in rural areas with recognized international safety and health standards - Poor labour inspection in rural areas, due to informality, remoteness and limited application of labour standards and regulations - Lack of social protection, resulting in poor access to health services (e.g. lack of preventive measures and treatment leading to chronic illness) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Low labour productivity - Work-related illness, injuries and death causing temporary or prolonged absence from work - Labour shortages/labour supply constraints 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Promotion of OSH in rural areas - Improvement of OSH in small-scale farming and micro and small rural enterprises (including informal businesses)

Phase 1. Additional resources on how to apply a decent rural employment lens to problem and stakeholder analysis

ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

EU. 2004. [Project Cycle Management Guidelines](#).

FAO. 2003. Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis (SEAGA) Programme. [Tools for incorporating Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis into Agricultural Policy and Practice](#).

FAO. 2011. [Social analysis for agriculture and rural investment projects. Gender and youth checklists for focus group discussions](#).

FAO. 2012. [Decent rural employment for food security: A case for action](#).

FAO. 2013. [Understanding and integrating gender issues into livestock projects and programmes. A checklist for practitioners](#).

FAO. 2013. [Guidance on how to address decent rural employment in FAO country activities. List of concrete actions and tools to address decent work in rural areas](#).

FAO. 2014. [Tool for conducting a context analysis on DRE at country level](#).

FAO Country profiles of employment-related gender inequalities: [Ghana](#); [Malawi](#); [United Republic of Tanzania](#).

IFAD. 2008. [A Sourcebook. Institutional and organizational analysis for pro-poor change: meeting IFAD's millennium challenge](#).

ILO. 2008. [Toolkit for Mainstreaming Employment and Decent Work – Country Level Application Checklists to detect main employment and decent work aspects](#).

ILO. 2010. [Project design manual. Stakeholder and problem analysis](#).

ILO. 2011. [Assessing Green Jobs Potential in Developing Countries: A Practitioner's Guide](#).

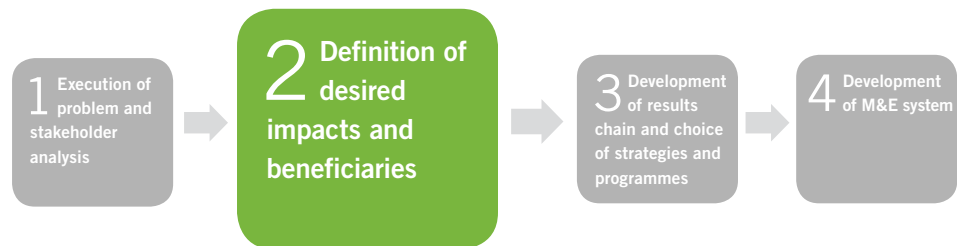
ILO. 2012. [Employment analysis Methodological guide](#).

OXFAM. 2013. [Labour rights in UNILEVER'S supply chain. From compliance towards good practice](#).

UNIDO. 2011. [Pro-poor Value Chain Development: 25 guiding questions for designing and implementing agro-industry projects. 5 questions for social analysis of value chain](#).

Phase 2. Definition of desired impacts and beneficiaries – Prioritizing DRE

This phase answers the question: **Where do we want to be?**



Following the identification of problems and main vulnerable groups in Phase 1, the intervention team develops its **vision** for the development of the agricultural sector (or subsector or specific value chain, depending on the intervention). Its next step is to define the desired impacts and final beneficiaries.

Mainstreaming DRE in this phase of strategic planning entails the following steps:

- Make DRE explicit in the intervention's impact (2.1)
- Consider employment vulnerabilities when selecting the intervention beneficiaries (2.2)

This phase is often very informal and the decisions taken are frequently implicit or only mentioned in generic terms in the introduction of policies, strategies and programmes. However, in this phase, strategic choices are made that affect the remaining phases of planning. To build a robust and inclusive Theory of Change for agricultural development, employment priorities need to be made explicit at this stage.

2.1 Make DRE explicit in the intervention's impact

- ▶ **Consider making full employment and decent work promotion in rural areas an explicit desired impact of the intervention.** Most agricultural interventions aim to contribute to agricultural growth, environmental sustainability and, ideally, to food security and rural poverty reduction. Decent and gainful jobs can help achieve all these desired impacts, although the extent of the DRE issues may vary depending on country context and income level. To facilitate the planning process, it is important to identify the desired intermediate effects on employment creation or working conditions. For example, avoid broad statements, such as “The programme will contribute to improve the food security of the population.” Instead, specify, “The programme will contribute to increasing the rural population's access to food, with particular focus on women and youth, through more productive and gainful jobs in the agricultural sector.” An interesting example of an agricultural strategy guided by a DRE vision is the Forestry 2030 Roadmap in South Africa (**see Box 8**).
- ▶ Make explicit references to DRE-relevant government goals and international commitments (**see Box 9**).

BOX 8. Example of an agricultural strategy in South Africa with employment-related considerations integrated into its vision

South Africa, *Forestry 2030 Roadmap (Forestry Strategy 2009–2030)* (p. 20)

Vision: “We aspire to be a vibrant, profitable, sustainable and growing forest sector, which significantly contributes to the country’s economic growth, employment, poverty eradication and transformation in South Africa.”

Principles: The vision is based on broad principles incorporating **employment issues:**

- Forests and forest resources are national assets.
- Policy formulation and implementation promote democratization.
- Forest management planning promotes sustainable use, development and conservation of forest resources.
- Forests are protected from negative effects of fire, pests, diseases and alien invader plants.
- **Development is people-driven with attention to gender equity.**
- Water resources are scarce.
- Forestry is a competitive and value-adding sector.
- Land tenure of forest areas are clearly defined, recognized and secure.
- Cultural, ecological, recreational, historical, aesthetic and spiritual sites and services supplied by forests are maintained.
- **Forest development and management promote the advancement of persons or categories of persons previously disadvantaged by unfair discrimination.**
- **Decent employment conditions are required.**

Box 9. Examples of global, regional or national commitments on DRE

Global commitments on DRE:

- International child labour reduction commitments as defined in the Global Action Plan (2006) for eliminating the worst forms of child labour by 2016, reiterated by the 2010 **Roadmap for achieving the elimination of the worst forms of child labour by 2016.**
- **SDG 8:** “Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all.” Particularly relevant for DRE are the following targets:
 - 8.2 Achieve higher levels of economic productivity through diversification, technological upgrading and innovation, including through a focus on high-value added and labour-intensive sectors.
 - 8.3 Promote development-oriented policies that support productive activities, decent job creation, entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation, and encourage the formalization and growth of micro, small- and medium-sized enterprises, including through access to financial services.
 - 8.5 By 2030, achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value.
 - 8.6 By 2020, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training.
 - 8.7 Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour, including recruitment and use of child soldiers, and by 2025 end child labour in all its forms.
 - 8.8 Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment.

→

Box 9. cont.

- 8.9 By 2030, devise and implement policies to promote sustainable tourism that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products.
- 8.10 Strengthen the capacity of domestic financial institutions to encourage and expand access to banking, insurance and financial services for all.
- 8.b By 2020, develop and operationalize a global strategy for youth employment and implement the Global Jobs Pact of the International Labour Organization.

Regional commitments on DRE:

- In **Africa**, the Malabo Declaration, adopted at the 23rd African Union (AU) Summit, formalizes the AU commitments to poverty reduction and youth employment creation. See “Commitment to Halving Poverty by the year 2025, through Inclusive Agricultural Growth and Transformation”, in particular: “We resolve to ensure that the agricultural growth and transformation process is inclusive and contributes at least 50% to the overall poverty reduction target; and to this end we will therefore create and enhance the necessary appropriate policy, institutional and budgetary support and conditions: a) to sustain annual agricultural GDP growth of at least 6%; b) to establish and/or strengthen inclusive public-private partnerships for at least five (5) priority agricultural commodity value chains with strong linkage to smallholder agriculture; c) to create job opportunities for at least 30% of the youth in agricultural value chains; d) to support and facilitate preferential entry and participation for women and youth in gainful and attractive agri-business opportunities.”
- In **Latin American and the Caribbean**, the CELAC Plan for Food and Nutrition Security and the Eradication of Hunger 2025 is a regional commitment to eradicate poverty and guarantee food security and nutrition. It has four main pillars: 1) Coordinated strategies for food security through national and regional public policies; 2) Timely and sustainable access to safe, adequate, sufficient and nutritious food for all people; 3) Nutritional wellness for all vulnerable groups; and 4) Ensuring stability of production and timely response to natural and manmade disasters. Pillar (2) explicitly prioritizes the promotion of decent jobs in rural areas and youth involvement in family farming.

National commitments on DRE:

- In the **United Republic of Tanzania**, the Second National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP II or, in Kiswahili, Mkukuta II, 2011–15) includes specific decent work goals. One of the three broad outcomes of the strategy is “Employment opportunities for all, including women and youth”. Specific DRE targets are defined: 1.2.1. Income poverty incidence reduced (national: from 33.6% in 2007 to 24% [MDG 19.3%] in 2015; rural areas: from 37.6% in 2007 to 26.4% [MDG 20.4%] in 2015); Working poverty reduced (from 36% in 2007 to 20% in 2015); Unemployment and underemployment reduced (unemployment from 10% in 2008 to 5% by 2015).
- In **Costa Rica**, the National Development Plan Alberto Cañas Escalante 2015–18 makes explicit commitments to decent employment promotion. The “generation of more and better jobs” is one of its national objectives, and there is a Work and Social Security strategy placing emphasis on youth and women’s employment and entrepreneurship. The main objectives are: a) Increase the employability of the working age population, promoting employment generation as a mechanism for social inclusion; b) Safeguard the enforcement of labour legislation and labour rights; c) Reduce child and adolescent labour and its worst forms in Costa Rica.
- In **Cambodia**, the National Strategic Development Plan (NSDP) 2014–18 aims to promote employment opportunities, enhance living standards and reduce poverty. Its expected results include: “create more jobs for people, especially for youth” (p. 105). The NSDP has four main strategies: a) Promotion of the agriculture sector; b) Private sector development and employment; c) Capacity-building and human resources development; and d) Development of physical infrastructure. In the agricultural sector, one of the priority policies is the promotion of farmers’ capacities in modern farming practices, farm diversification and aspects of finances and markets.

2.2 Consider employment vulnerabilities when selecting the intervention beneficiaries

- ▶ **Include “working poverty”, “unemployment” and other decent work deficits in the selection criteria for the final beneficiaries.** Specific population groups in rural areas face glaring decent work deficits. Select these groups among the final beneficiaries of an intervention to help improve their employment situation and therefore their potential contribution to agricultural development. State explicitly the employment-related challenges they face. **The main employment-related challenges faced by different groups of rural workers are listed in Table 2.**
- ▶ **Consider information on decent work deficits and on the intervention potential for DRE to select target sectors, geographical areas or value chains.** Apply DRE criteria in the geographical or sectoral targeting of an intervention to help guarantee both feasibility and sustainability. Civil society, governments and the private sector recognize that, for long term profitability, enterprises (and the value chains in which they operate) need to be inclusive, taking into account environmental and social sustainability criteria. Indeed, DRE is a key determinant of inclusive development, pro-poor economic growth and poverty reduction. For a given industry, consider:
 - employment intensity and employment creation potential;
 - known decent work deficits (e.g. in terms of labour conditions); and
 - percentage of employed women and youth involved (gender and age equality).

Ideally, first identify the desired impacts and final beneficiaries (e.g. women-headed small farms); then use this information to select the target sectors and geographical areas to ensure that the **intervention:**

- is **relevant** to the final beneficiaries (e.g. operates in sectors or areas where there are high shares of women-headed small farms);
- reaches a sector or **area with potential for decent work improvements** (e.g. where at the moment women’s productivity is low owing to decent work deficits, such as women’s lack of skills, poor entrepreneurial capacity, and excessive work burden); and
- is in a **position to promote decent work conditions** for the target beneficiaries (e.g. MoA can directly increase women’s skills through extension services and also partner with social protection institutions to provide care services in rural areas and therefore reduce women’s time constraints).



ILO, GIZ. 2015. Guidelines for value chain selection: Integrating economic, environmental, social and institutional criteria.

The guidelines include clear criteria and a set of tools to aid in the selection process. Potential users of these guidelines are development practitioners, governments and private sector initiatives, who wish to make informed decisions about the sectors and value chains requiring intervention for market development.

Table 2. Most disadvantaged or vulnerable groups of workers in rural areas and common challenges faced

Groups of rural workers	Common challenges
Small-scale producers (including peasants, herders, fishers, aquaculture farmers, pastoralists)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Low productivity and poor working conditions - Physically demanding and strenuous work - Exposure to health and safety risks often without awareness or preventive measures - Incomes below the poverty line - Multiple job-holding to make a living - Lack of technical and entrepreneurial skills - Limited access to adapted credit and other financial services - Informality, excluding workers from social security schemes or maternity benefits and other labour protection legislation - Lack of insurance against income shocks - Lack of organization and of collective bargaining and representation rights
Micro and small entrepreneurs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Poor access to financial services and land as collateral - Overregulation and bureaucracy, discouraging enterprise formalization - Inadequacy, unreliability and high cost of utilities and infrastructure (power and water) - Difficulty diversifying markets and sourcing from smallholders (e.g. because of inconsistent quality, volume or non-timely delivery) - Lack of competitiveness - High cost of certification fees
Wage agricultural workers (especially informal, seasonal and casual workers)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Employment under low paid seasonal or casual arrangements, necessity of multiple job-holding to earn a living - Little or no access to social protection and trade unions - Lack of attention from policy-makers and employment statistics - High degree of income insecurity due to lack of economic opportunities
Rural migrant workers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - High levels of abuse and exploitation - Employment under low paid seasonal or casual arrangements - Poor access to social protection
Rural women in above categories	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - As producers and more often contributing family workers, productivity constrained by various forms of discrimination (e.g. reduced access to land, inputs and other productive resources, markets, extension services) - Limited freedom, inability to participate in associations and poor voice in cooperatives and POs (e.g. often no female representation in POs governance and management functions) - As wage workers, pay inferior to that of men for equivalent jobs and comparable levels of education and experience, and part-time, seasonal and/or low-paying jobs more frequent - Lack of job security and social protection (e.g. maternity leave), additional gender-based discrimination when pregnant or as mothers - Additional risks and hazards in the workplace (e.g. exposure to sexual harassment), especially when working during pregnancy or maternity - Heavy work and time burdens due to competing demands of productive and reproductive responsibilities

Groups of rural workers	Common challenges
Youth in above categories	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lack of technical and entrepreneurial skills - Difficult access to land and other productive resources, finance, adapted training etc. - Lack of job prospects in rural areas, resulting in migration to urban centres - Low visibility, given their frequent role as contributing family workers in subsistence agriculture - Engagement in vulnerable own-account, casual or seasonal wage work in the informal economy with low pay, low job security and no social protection - Labour force participation rates for young women lower than for young men in many regions, often reflecting cultural traditions and social norms - Lack of voice, poor organization - Poor targeting by development initiatives
Children in above categories	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - High risk of involvement in child labour, including the worst forms of child labour (e.g. hazardous work in the agricultural sector) - Lack of voice

Phase 2. Additional resources on how to prioritize DRE in the definition of desired impacts and beneficiaries

ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

FAO. 2012. [Decent rural employment for food security. A case for action.](#)

ILO. 2009. [Guide to the new Millennium Development Goals Employment indicators: including the full decent work indicator set \(available at \[http://ilo.org/empelm/what/WCMS_114244/lang--en/index.htm\]\(http://ilo.org/empelm/what/WCMS_114244/lang--en/index.htm\)\).](#)

ILO. 2009. [Value Chain Development for Decent Work. A guide for development practitioners, government and private sector initiatives.](#)

ILO, GIZ. 2015. [Guidelines for value chain selection: Integrating economic, environmental, social and institutional criteria.](#)

ILO Portal on [Decent Work and the 2030 Agenda for sustainable development.](#)

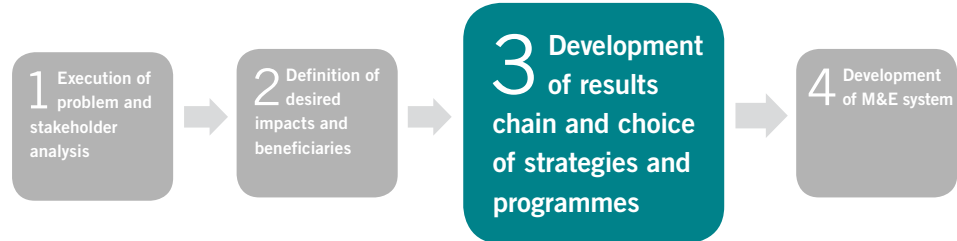
UN. [Sustainable Development Goals.](#)

UNRISD. 2011. [Combating Poverty and Inequality: Structural Change, Social Policy and Politics.](#)

WB. 2012. [World Development Report 2013. Jobs are a cornerstone to development.](#)

Phase 3. Development of results chain and choice of strategies and programmes – Developing a DRE-inclusive results chain

This phase answers the question: **How will we get there?**



Growth does not automatically lead to more and better employment. Explicit targeting of DRE objectives in agricultural interventions contributes to the quality of agricultural development.

Having defined the overall desired impacts and final beneficiaries, the intervention team specifies the results which will contribute to the impacts. The problem tree can be turned into an **objective tree** to visualize exactly what needs to be achieved in order to solve the problems. Once the results are visualized, the different strategies to attain them are considered.

Mainstreaming DRE in this phase of strategic planning entails the following steps:

- Adopt a DRE-inclusive Theory of Change for agricultural development (3.1)
- Include DRE in the criteria for selection of the specific strategies and programmes (3.2)
- Pursue an integrated approach for DRE promotion (3.3)

3.1 Adopt a DRE-inclusive Theory of Change for agricultural development

► **Identify explicit DRE results.** The rationale for a DRE-inclusive Theory of Change is discussed in depth in the section on “Why are employment considerations so central to agricultural development?”. The main conclusion is that to achieve healthy and inclusive agricultural development, more and better jobs are needed in rural areas. This is especially true for economies characterized by large rural populations and slow industrialization, but it applies to some extent to all developing regions. In particular, if the problem analysis reveals that employment-related problems (e.g. low labour productivity, poor working conditions, excessive work burden of women, child labour) are an important constraint to agricultural development, the intervention team should identify subsequent DRE results. Identify explicit DRE results or dimensions along the results chain (not automatically embedded in agricultural development results) in order to:

- highlight employment dimensions (if employment is mentioned only in generic terms as a crosscutting issue, it risks being overlooked); and
- support the monitoring of budget resources allocated to employment objectives.

An interesting example of a policy putting DRE at the centre is the Tanzanian National Agricultural Policy (see Box 10).

Box 10. Example of an agricultural policy integrating DRE-specific results in the United Republic of Tanzania

United Republic of Tanzania, National Agricultural Policy, 2013 (p. 20)

The United Republic of Tanzania's Second National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP II or, in Kiswahili, Mkukuta II, 2011–15) identifies the drivers of growth to contribute to employment and decent work. They include agriculture, based on its potential to: generate income; unlock human capital by reducing food and nutrition insecurity; and create productive and decent employment for all, especially women and youth and disadvantaged groups.

Enacting the NSGRP vision, the *Tanzanian National Agricultural Policy (2013)* includes a section on Employment and Decent Work in Agriculture. The Policy recognizes the main DRE challenges affecting agricultural development and identifies policy priorities:

- Up-to-date age- and sex-disaggregated information on employment and labour-productivity-related issues in rural areas.
- On-farm and non-farm rural activities as engines of growth and innovation, and attractive in terms of jobs for both women and men, in line with decent work concepts.
- Junior Farmer Field and Life Schools (JFFLS) and young farmers' associations.
- Capacity to address child labour in agriculture.
- Awareness on the benefits of productive youth employment and child labour prevention in agriculture.
- Business models that provide opportunities for small-scale producers towards aggregation of produce and developing two-way linkages, targeting in particular rural women and youth.
- A labour and legal enforcement framework for protection of workers and employers in the agricultural sector and the informal rural economy.
- Employment and decent work in agriculture mainstreamed and integrated into agricultural sector development strategies and programmes.

In general, a **minimum agenda for DRE** should include the following objectives:

- **Boost job demand in rural areas.** Support the creation of more jobs – independent and waged, farm and non-farm – in the formal high-productivity rural sector while taking into account environmental sustainability concerns (e.g. promoting sustainable value chain development to support growth of small and medium rural enterprises and agro-industries; raising the demand for domestic goods and services to expand domestic production).
- **Enhance rural labour supply.** Increase the employability of the rural work force, so they can access more productive and diversified employment opportunities in rural areas, shift sectors or subsectors, or migrate and commute under fair and informed conditions (e.g. investing in education and training to improve skills; improving labour market information systems and job placement services).
- **Improve working conditions in existing occupations.** Improve the employment situation of the bulk of the workforce (including most small producers) who will remain in agricultural and informal activities in the short to medium term (e.g. linking employment, agriculture and social protection policies; improving coverage of rural workers under ILS and national legislation and ensuring enforcement in rural areas; highlighting diversification opportunities for production or processing; encouraging technological and social innovations; promoting responsible agricultural investments and business models, including responsible contract farming; enhancing the organization of informal rural workers, including producers, to better engage in social and policy dialogue).

In the formulation of DRE-relevant results, the intervention team should ask itself the questions below:

- **At impact level:** Are we planning for DRE-related impacts on the lives of poor rural people? Do the target groups include small-scale producers and agricultural wage workers? Do women and youth receive specific attention? If employment is a desired impact, is it explicitly stated in the impact formulation? Which vulnerable groups facing decent work deficits are targeted?
- **At outcome level:** Are we planning for employment-related organizational or institutional changes to happen? Improving the enabling environment for agricultural development to boost the creation of decent jobs in rural areas could represent an outcome in itself (e.g. increased delivery of extension services on OSH) or one dimension of a more general outcome (e.g. enhanced systems for data collection on agriculture and food security, including on labour dimensions, such as ageing of producers, child labour, working conditions). The choice – between a dedicated outcome on employment and employment issues reflected in another outcome – depends on the problem analysis conducted and on the strategies prioritized.
- **At output level:** Is employment reflected among the outputs delivered by the intervention? The intervention team can decide to include specific DRE-related outputs (e.g. enhanced capacities of extension officers on entrepreneurship support or OSH) or to mainstream DRE in other outputs (e.g. inclusion of decent work topics in general training for extension officers).

► **Guarantee an inclusive multistakeholder process for the identification of results.** It is important to moderate power dynamics among unequal stakeholders to guarantee effective participation. Organizations representing vulnerable workers' rights (e.g. POs and women's groups) do not always have a strong voice in policy dialogue. The intervention team can facilitate participation in various ways:

- collection of evidence to develop a business case for DRE;
- establishment of coalitions prior to consultations;
- recruitment of a professional facilitator experienced in consensus-building for sensitive issues; and
- provision of support to weaker groups to engage in negotiations.

For example, MoL and development organizations (e.g. FAO, ILO, IOM, IFAD, UNIDO) could be invited to provide quantitative evidence, analysis, case studies and good practices to inform evidence-based policy decisions. In the medium and long term, in order to guarantee truly inclusive policy dialogue, agricultural sector line ministries should develop ways to engage in regular dialogue with MoL, POs and workers' organizations, and to make these methods of dialogue known. POs and workers' organizations should also invest in improving coordination and representativeness within the sector and strengthening knowledge and policy capacity in the area of DRE.

► **Identify DRE-specific risks and assumptions.** Although risks and assumptions may be overlooked when developing the results chain, it is crucial to identify them, as they provide insights about the feasibility of a strategy and the need for mitigation measures. Examples of risks include sudden changes in the external environment, crisis or violent conflict which destabilize the country and make employment priorities less urgent; or a reduction in resources to extension services and local government authorities (LGAs) with a key role in the multistakeholder approaches needed for promoting decent work in rural areas.

Examples of assumptions are that POs are willing to foster women and youth inclusiveness or that parents and communities support the education of children.

► **Visualize the DRE elements of your Theory of Change for agricultural development.**

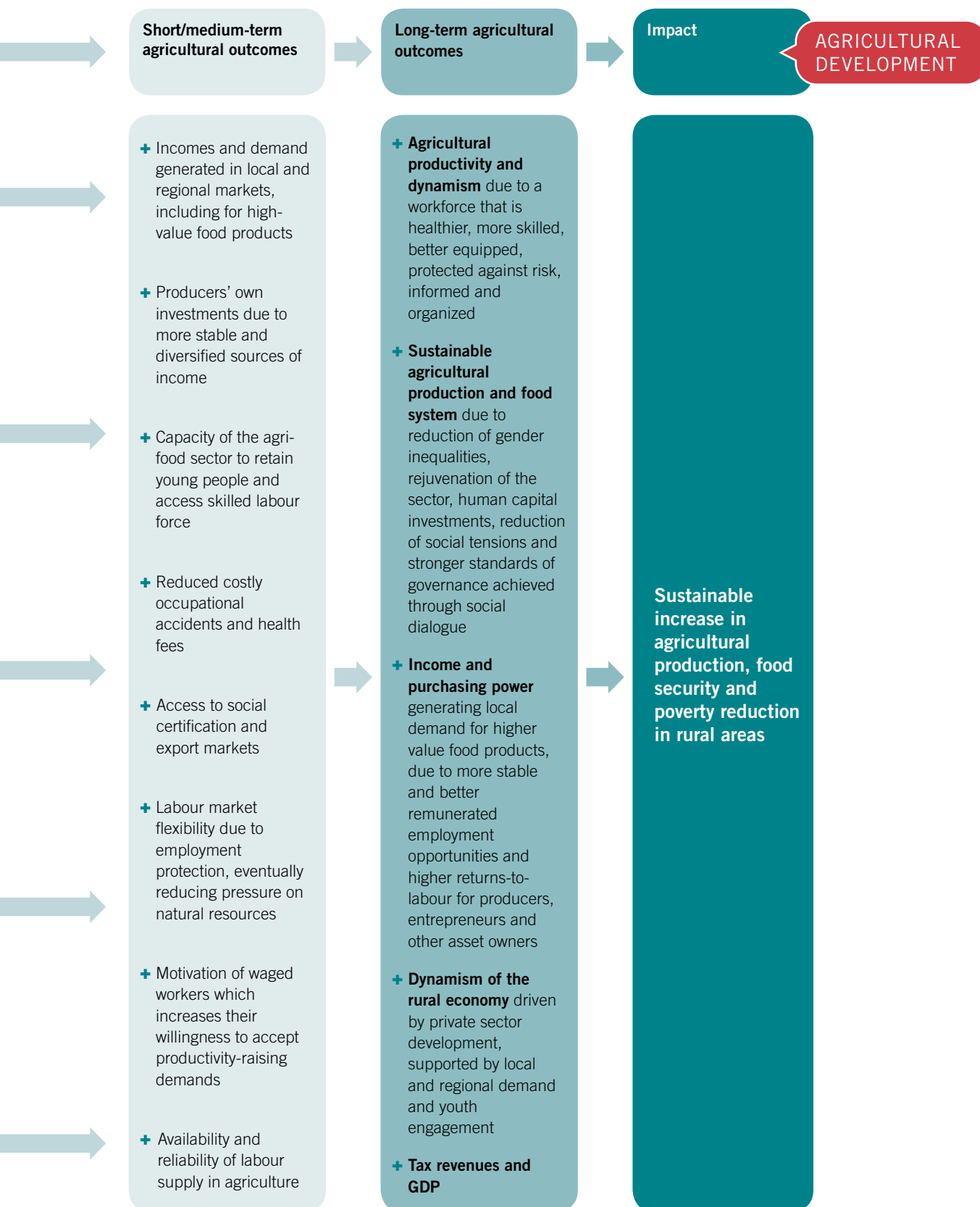
A graph can visualize the changes that employment-centred interventions would bring about in terms of agricultural development and their sequence (from short to long term). **Figure 2 presents a generic DRE Theory of Change**, moving from the four pillars of the Decent Work Agenda to agricultural development, food security and poverty reduction. Promoting DRE along the four pillars of the decent work agenda contributes to more inclusive agricultural development by setting in motion **investment, multiplier and progress/equity loops**:

- **Increased opportunities for gainful paid and self-employment** in rural areas result in increased income spending and savings, which set in motion multiplier and investment loops in the rural economy, with greater investment by rural households in education, health and training.
- **Increased labour productivity** and return on assets (profits) for micro, small and medium-sized agro-enterprises (MSMEs) and asset owners (including smallholders) results in reinvested profits and savings, which set in motion an investment loop with a positive impact on agricultural development and food production. Increased spending by this group creates multiplier loops; while their increased awareness of social responsibility and labour standards generates progress/equity loops.
- **Improved wages** (due to increased labour productivity and improved social dialogue) result in: increased spending (including on higher-value agricultural products which in turn increases agricultural productivity), which sets in motion a multiplier loop; and increased investment by rural households in education, health and training, generating a progress loop.
- **Enhanced livelihoods diversification, employment formalization and stability, and access to social protection** all produce income stability, which drives investment, multiplier and progress loops.
- **Improved application of labour standards** in rural areas and higher standards of governance achieved through social dialogue result in increased protection, empowerment and satisfaction of rural workers and increased reliability of labour supply (contributing to MSME development), setting in motion a progress loop with reduced distress migration, labour shortages and turnover.
- **Increased awareness of the role of public actors** in promoting better working conditions and greater tax revenues due to increased formalization and business development result in increased public expenditure in rural areas and an improved public regulatory role (e.g. funding of social protection programmes, promotion of responsible agricultural investments), setting in motion a progress loop.

Elements of this generic DRE Theory of Change may be integrated in the specific Theory of Change of your agricultural intervention. Finally, remember that the effective relationship between DRE and agricultural development also depends on broader rural development advancements. Particularly relevant for DRE are private sector development and economic diversification, increased investments in agri-food chain development, and increased access of the rural population to education and health services as well as to social protection.

Figure 2. DRE Theory of change





3.2 Include DRE in the criteria for the selection of strategies and programmes

► **Consider the employment effects of all the alternative strategies contemplated.**

Independently of whether explicit employment results are included in the result chain, it is important to take into account the employment effects of all strategies under consideration. Employment is widely recognized as an important transmission channel⁴³ through which policy reforms may have an impact on stakeholders, especially on the poorest. Any policy reform or sectoral programme that affects the structure of the labour market (e.g. demand for labour, particularly in sectors employing the poor) is likely to affect the welfare of low-income households. The effect may be on both quantity (number of jobs) and quality (e.g. level of wages and type of contracts). Effects can be positive (e.g. more jobs) and/or negative (e.g. worsening working conditions, higher rates of child labour). **More information and resources on how to conduct DRE-relevant *ex ante* impact assessments are provided in Annex 2.**

► **Consider the DRE-related risks associated with implementation of the alternative strategies contemplated.** It is essential to identify these risks and determine how to manage them. FAO’s vision for sustainable food and agriculture affirms that “agriculture that fails to protect and improve rural livelihoods and social well-being is unsustainable”.⁴⁴ The main DRE risks associated with agricultural and rural

development interventions are related to:

- job displacement;
- increased inequality and vulnerability;
- worsening of labour conditions; and
- violation of labour rights.



Decent employment is widely recognized as one of the missing links between growth and poverty reduction.

For an outline of FAO’s approach to environmental and social management, see Box 11.

Box 11. Decent work in FAO Environmental and Social Management Guidelines

In 2015, FAO adopted Environmental and Social Management Guidelines (ESMG) to guide the environmental and social screening of all its projects. Decent work is a dedicated Environmental and Social Standard, namely ESS 7.

Standard 7 on “Decent Work” requires all FAO projects to:

- promote direct action to foster decent rural employment;
- promote fair treatment, non-discrimination and equal opportunity for all workers;
- protect and support workers, particularly disadvantaged and vulnerable categories of workers; and
- promote the application of international labour standards in the rural economy, including the prevention and elimination of child labour in agriculture.

43 The WB approach to Poverty and Social Impact Analysis (PSIA) considers five main transmission channels through which policy reforms can be expected to have an impact on various stakeholders: employment; prices (production, consumption and wages); access to goods and services; assets; and transfers and taxes (see http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTPSIA/Resources/490023-1121114603600/12685_PSIUsersGuide_Complete.pdf).

44 FAO. 2014. *Building a common vision for sustainable food and agriculture – Principles and approaches* (available at <http://www.fao.org/3/content/919235b7-4553-4a4a-bf38-a76797dc5b23/i3940e.pdf>).

► **Give important weight to strategies with positive impacts on the number and quality of rural jobs.** There will inevitably be trade-offs to consider, in particular between creating more jobs and increasing the quality of existing jobs, or between labour-intensive approaches and labour-saving technologies to reduce women's work burden. DRE interventions can improve the quality of rural jobs and reduce drudgery – for example, by improving the application of ILS in rural areas (e.g. minimum wage) or fostering youth access to mechanization. However, they can also reduce the demand for labour – for example, by increasing the cost of labour or creating incentives to adopt capital-intensive techniques.

These trade-offs need to be contextualized, but they should never be made at the expense of respecting, protecting, and promoting human rights. This guidance document assumes that the respect of human rights, including labour rights, and the reduction of rural poverty are priorities for the sustainability of agriculture and food systems. Therefore, no trade-off should compromise the fact that **all jobs should always guarantee a minimum set of decent standards**, including a living income. Governments must find or facilitate the most adequate mitigation strategies, in collaboration with the private sector and civil society, to complement employment qualitative (high standards) and quantitative (full employment) objectives. In general, empirical studies have shown that a focus on productivity can strengthen the complementarities between the different dimensions of decent work (e.g. by ensuring that wage increases are linked to increases in labour productivity).⁴⁵ However, strategic planners should also look attentively at non-productivity factors that cause workers to have low earnings, such as the practice of middlemen or landlords of taking away part of workers' incomes, and the practice of using worker indebtedness to induce compliance with very low wages. In the medium to long-term, laws and regulations should be introduced to support workers' stronger bargaining power.⁴⁶

Also, trade-offs do not necessarily involve a dichotomist choice between more jobs or better jobs. For example, investments in the sustainable intensification of agriculture and the competitiveness of MSMEs and POs may bring productivity gains to improve labour efficiency (e.g. mechanization), leading in turn to job losses. On the other hand, mechanization can also generate non-farm employment opportunities for young people and women (e.g. as service providers). Usually, increased productivity in agriculture feeds into growth and generation of economic opportunities in the labour-intensive, non-tradable, rural non-farm sector, including food processing and retailing. On-farm labour demand could also increase as new varieties and irrigation allow farmers to double- and even triple-crop the land. In Africa, for example, thanks to land and water endowments and an expanding youth labour force, farms can grow in number, size and productivity without displacing labour.⁴⁷

45 See also: International Institute for Labour Studies. 2006. *Pedagogical materials on decent work*. Geneva. Anker, R. *et al.* 2003. Measuring decent work with statistical indicators. In ILO. 2003. *International labour review*, Vol. 142, No. 2, Geneva.

46 UN. 2007. The employment imperative. Report on the World Social Situation 2007, Chapter IV, New York.

47 Filmer, D. & Fox, L. 2014. *Youth employment in sub-Saharan Africa*. Africa Development Series. Washington, DC, WB.

In many SSA countries with good success rates in poverty reduction, per-worker GDP (gross domestic product) in agriculture grew in areas with a stable or growing workforce. On this basis, it is necessary to question the reduction of surplus labour in agriculture as a means to achieving productivity increase and poverty reduction.⁴⁸

Furthermore, in addition to trade-offs, many **potential complementarities** exist between DRE actions, for example:

- increased employment security raises motivation among workers and increases productivity; and
- reduced turnover increases workers' ability to learn more on the job and makes productivity-raising and modernization demands more acceptable.

3.3. Pursue an integrated approach for DRE promotion

► **Adopt an integrated approach: first, across core functions (e.g. capacity development and knowledge generation); second, along the four pillars of the Decent Work Agenda.** To guarantee a successful approach, large-scale or sector-wide interventions should aim for integrated solutions where DRE-related capacity development, institutional support, knowledge generation and partnerships work in synergy (e.g. increasing youth skills without also facilitating their access to markets and credits may result in failure).

In concrete terms, all major agricultural development interventions (e.g. agricultural development strategies or large-scale investment programmes) should comprise and budget for the following **recommended DRE core activities**:

- **DRE assessments**, focusing – when appropriate – on a specific DRE subtopic (e.g. child labour) or value chain.
- DRE-related **capacity development** activities, relating to:
 - both quantitative and qualitative aspects of work;
 - both the public and the private sector (including POs and LGAs); and
 - both employment stakeholders (e.g. MoL, labour inspectors) and agricultural stakeholders (e.g. MoA, extension services).
- Specific activities to support **youth engagement** in agricultural development (e.g. skills development; entrepreneurship support; access to finance, land, productive tools and markets; group cooperation).
- Specific activities to support **women's economic empowerment** and reduce gender inequalities (e.g. skills development; entrepreneurship support; access to finance, land, productive tools, markets and support services [child care] and group cooperation).

48 FAO. 2012. *Decent rural employment for food security: A case for action*, p. 11. See also: Binswanger. 1986. In DFID (2004) *Agriculture, growth and poverty reduction*. Dewbre, J., Cervantes-Godoy, D. & Sorescu, S. 2011. *Agricultural progress and poverty reduction: Synthesis report*. OECD Food, Agriculture and Fisheries Working Papers, No. 49, OECD Publishing. Upton, M. & Otte, J. 2004. *Pro-poor livestock policies: Which poor to target?* Research Report, DFID (available at http://www.dfid.gov.uk/r4d/PDF/Outputs/Livestock/PPLPrep-ipalp_targetgroups.pdf).

- Specific activities to **improve labour conditions** in the agricultural sector, prioritizing child labour prevention and elimination, OSH, the situation of migrants, and the conditions of casual and seasonal workers.
- Specific activities to **improve the institutional and policy environment** for decent work promotion in agriculture (e.g. development of OSH regulations, integration of a decent work section in an agricultural policy under review).

In addition, it is important to ensure **integration among the four decent work pillars**. The Decent Work Agenda comprises a range of priorities that rest on the four pillars established by the ILO, namely: employment creation and enterprise development (Pillar I); social protection (Pillar II); standards and rights at work (Pillar III); and governance and social dialogue (Pillar IV). The four pillars are inevitably linked and inseparable: it is vital to create synergies among them. Understandably, each specific intervention will reflect national and local situations, taking account of different levels of development and national capacity. The scope of an intervention might also be very specific. However, this should not compromise the integrated nature of decent work. **For examples of DRE actions that could be included in agricultural strategies and programmes along the four pillars of the Decent Work Agenda, see Table 3.**

Table 3. Examples of DRE-enhancing actions under the four pillars of the Decent Work Agenda

Pillar of the Decent Work Agenda	DRE actions
Employment creation and enterprise development (Pillar I)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Enhance access of women and youth to productive resources, information, finance, adapted technology and training to successfully manage their own activity or start an enterprise - Support MSMEs to become established and formalized, and to access markets, training, financial services and other productive assets - Support the rural poor, including youth and women, to access markets and agrifood value chains under fair and decent conditions (e.g. promoting group cooperation and collective action by smaller value chain actors; supporting youth in business plan development for acquisition of machinery for new formal service enterprises, such as transport manufacturing, maintenance and repair services; developing agribusiness incubation centres for promoting start-ups of college graduates/skilled youth as young agripreneurs; integrating decent work considerations in contract farming law and regulations) - Link incentive structures for investments in agriculture to jobs (number and quality of created jobs) and to skills upgrading of the local labour force (e.g. integrating decent work considerations into the government screening tools for new investments) - Promote and/or implement employment-creation and diversification programmes in rural areas, particularly for youth and women (e.g. green jobs initiatives, rural ecotourism, investment in labour-intensive rural sectors, such as rural infrastructure, voucher schemes to stimulate demand for Business Development Services [BDS] delivered by youth/women-led rural business etc.) - Implement gender and age-sensitive TVET programmes that teach employment-relevant technical and business skills and are associated to entrepreneurial support or job placement services - Improve the management of rural labour migration, by enhancing employment opportunities in rural areas to avoid distress rural out-migration and at the same time enabling informed labour mobility, tailoring the specific needs of women and youth migrant workers

Pillar of the Decent Work Agenda	DRE actions
Social protection (Pillar II)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Foster productivity-enhancing social protection schemes (e.g. cash transfers) and development-oriented public work programmes in rural areas - Foster the adoption of OSH standards for the rural workforce, including promotion of safer technology and practices for small-scale and commercial agriculture (e.g. integrated pest management [IPM] through extension support services and farmer field schools [FFS] networks) - Promote better conditions of work and employment, in particular with respect to maternity protection and working hours (e.g. through private voluntary standards, social farming initiatives) - Support the adoption of labour-saving technologies and care services to reduce women’s work burden and for poor households in HIV- and AIDS- (or other diseases) affected areas
Standards and rights at work (Pillar III)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Support socially responsible agricultural production for small producers and MSMEs, seeking to reduce gender- and youth-based discrimination and to promote responsible business conduct (e.g. through educational campaigns, adoption of private standards, strengthened collaboration between extension workers, social workers and labour inspectors on workers’ rights) - Prevent and eliminate child labour through awareness-raising, multistakeholder control mechanisms, incentives linked to providing social protection and livelihood alternatives for poor households - Protect adolescents who have reached the minimum working age (14–15 years) but not yet the age of 18 years from abuse and hazardous work (e.g. through legal frameworks and private sector standards), while helping them obtain education, skills development and adapted employment opportunities - Revise, adopt and enforce legislation to give legal effect to international standards and their applicability to rural areas (e.g. revise restrictive regulations on POs and informal economy workers’ associations, enforce legislation on contract of employment, employment security and OSH in rural enterprises) - Analyse prevailing labour contractual arrangements in the informal economy, worst forms of child labour and situations of discrimination
Governance and social dialogue (Pillar IV)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Support organizations and networks of producers and workers in the informal rural food economy, and foster their inclusiveness with regard to youth and women - Promote collective agreements in the agricultural sector - Support the regular representation of the rural poor, including women and youth, in social dialogue and policy dialogue through their organizations - Empower the rural poor, particularly those most disadvantaged (e.g. women and youth), to engage in local decision-making and governance mechanisms

- ▶ **Select DRE interventions adapted to your specific rural context.** The selection of DRE actions should be context-specific, depending on the national, regional and local socio-economic factors prevailing where a given intervention takes place (e.g. demographic aspects, income level, patterns of rural and agricultural transformation, subsectoral specificities, gender norms). A useful tool is the **classification of the three Rural Worlds proposed by Vorley (2002) (see Table 4).**

Table 4. Strategic options for DRE in the three Rural Worlds⁴⁹

<p>Rural World 1</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - minority of agricultural producers - access to capital, organization, information and infrastructure - large farmers and entrepreneurs - often export-driven, well connected - primarily men 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Formal market regulation/ oversight - Vertical/value chain market governance - Responsible inclusive business models - Improved social dialogue and engagement of rural wage workers 	<p>Making modern food value chains more inclusive and responsive to the rights of rural workers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Enforcement of labour laws by the public sector and labour conditions oversight among suppliers - Fair trading legislation - Awareness-raising and political dialogue for voluntary standards for responsible business conduct/responsible agricultural investments - Support for producers' organizations to join responsible contract farming operations and smallholder outgrower schemes
<p>Rural World 2</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - majority of smallholders and micro and small entrepreneurs - locally oriented - might have access to land - not formally organized in the market, likely to trade with the informal sector - income partially derived from off-farm waged work - low level of capitalization and poor integration with downstream food businesses - subject to declining terms of trade and economic subordination to agribusiness - state institutions and modern agrifood business usually inaccessible 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Upgrades in the informal market - More productive smallholder farming - Organization of workers and producers - Horizontal market governance - Innovation and business development - Reduction of gender and age-based inequalities, including in access to land and other productive resources - Increased opportunities for livelihood diversification or alternative employment 	<p>Sustainably upgrading the bulk of rural producers and entrepreneurs for them to contribute to increase labour demand and the dynamism of the rural economy:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Upgrading of the informal sector, including measures and incentives for formalization - Agricultural sector and value chain support, including development of proximity services for small producers - Support to livelihoods diversification and non-farm employment linked to food value chain development (e.g. in rural services) - Investments in employment-intensive physical infrastructure, such as local market spaces and in local processing, warehousing and storage - Supporting small producers and rural entrepreneurs in accessing finance/ capital, land and markets (e.g. through quotas in public procurement, inclusive business models) - Technical and capacity development support for producers' organizations and groups of informal rural workers - Strengthening of extension support to entrepreneurship and business development services in rural areas, especially for youth and women - Support to diversification and management of rural migration/ remittance use - Labour legislation relevant for rural areas and its enforcement, and adoption of labour standards in practice also in informal settings (e.g. through private standards) - Child labour prevention and reduction, especially of the worst forms of child labour

49 Vorley, B. 2002 (adapted). *Sustaining agriculture: Policy, governance, and the future of family-based farming*. A synthesis of the *Collaborative research project policies that work for sustainable agriculture and regenerating rural livelihoods*. IIED, London. Vorley, B., Cotula, L. & Chan, M. 2012 (adapted). *Tipping the balance: Policies to shape agricultural investments and markets in favour of small-scale farmers*. IIED Research Report. IIED and Oxfam (available at <https://www.oxfam.org/en/grow/policy/tipping-balance>). The classification of the three Rural Worlds proposed by Vorley provides a powerful frame to consider the DRE policy priorities in different rural contexts. The opportunities and channels for reducing rural poverty and ensuring food security through agricultural development interventions differ according to which of the three Rural Worlds an intervention is addressing. Distinguishing between them can help focus results and strategies for a given desired impact. However, planners should also avoid stereotyping households as pertaining to one Rural World only. In particular, policies need to reflect the different realities of rural women and men, adults and youth. Thus, a household may have Rural World 1 characteristics if looked from the angle of the male head of household, but his wife may have Rural World 3 characteristics (little land or few other assets in her own name, working as unpaid labour on her husband's farm). It is crucial to take account of these complexities in the design of integrated and pro-poor interventions.

Main characteristics	DRE-related policy priorities/results	Examples of DRE actions
<p>Rural World 3</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - heterogeneous group, dominated by indigenous farming, pastoral groups, landless workers, tenant farmers, wage labourers and female- or youth-headed households - focus on subsistence - limited access to productive resources - often landless - unskilled and uneducated - livelihoods diversified into mixtures of off-farm work, temporary migration and agriculture - dependent on low-waged, “casual” family labour 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Improved rural labour markets and working conditions, in both subsistence agriculture and rural wage employment - Education and healthcare - Social protection coverage - Secured rights to land and natural resources - Reduction of gender and age-based inequalities 	<p>Improving the resilience of the poorest, through social protection, incentives to collective action, skills development and self-employment support:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Investments in education and health care - Skills development, adapted for women and youth, and linked to financial linkages and entrepreneurial support or job placement services - Employment creation (e.g. through targeted public employment guarantee programmes) - Generation of social mobilization, institution building and empowerment of the rural poor, through self-help groups linked to bigger collective groups - Increased access to assets (land/finance) for livelihood resilience, particularly for the most disadvantaged, including women and youth - Support to entrepreneurship development, including for establishment of micro and small enterprises in the local service sector, especially for women and youth - Establishment of social protection floors, cash transfer programmes - Child labour prevention and reduction, especially of the worst forms of child labour - Support for set up of labour legislation relevant for rural areas and innovative partnerships to promote labour standards in practice, especially with regard to child labourers, youth, women, migrants and other disadvantaged groups

► **Adopt recognized good practices and successful approaches.**

- Prioritize and upscale relevant good practices already identified by your country or region.
- Consult technical specialists (FAO or ILO) in country or regional offices – they can provide additional support to identify the best solutions for a specific problem. In particular, FAO facilitates South-South and Triangular Cooperation to achieve food security, poverty reduction and sustainable agriculture.⁵⁰
- Refer to the **list of useful repositories of good practices or programme evaluation reports provided in Box 12.**

► **Foster partnerships to improve policy coherence and achieve results.** Agricultural development and employment interventions must be viewed in the context of broad economic and development policies (to which they are vertically linked) and in connection with other thematic policy areas (to which they are horizontally linked). An **integrated approach** – rather than single interventions and sectorial perspective – is required to achieve agricultural and DRE long-term objectives. The promotion of DRE is a continuum, requiring coherence between agricultural policy and all policy areas contributing to agricultural and rural development: employment, private sector/

⁵⁰ More information on South-South Cooperation at FAO is available at <http://www.fao.org/partnerships/south-south-cooperation/en/>.

enterprise development and trade, youth and women's development, social protection, migration and remittances, natural resources and ecosystem management, education and nutrition. Finally, some problems must be tackled in combination to have an impact. For example, the development of youth's entrepreneurial skills will not guarantee access to good quality jobs without the enhancement of the enabling environment for business development in rural areas and the implementation of integrated programmes for youth entrepreneurship support (e.g. supporting youth access to finance and productive resources). Likewise, reduction of overcapacity in one specific subsector may need a concerted strategy to transfer labour to different segments within a value chain or even between sectors. The importance of **linking DRE with social protection interventions is outlined in Box 13**, while an overview of the most frequent **DRE implications of different policy areas is provided in Table 5**.

Box 12. Useful repositories of DRE-related good practices

- WB. [Impact evaluation repository](#).
- Abdul Latif Jameel Poverty Action. [Evaluations database](#) (labour markets and agriculture are among the sectors of the database).
- [Youth Employment Inventory](#).
- [Impact Evaluation Repository](#).
- FAO. 2011. [Good socio-economic practices in modern bioenergy production](#).
- FAO. 2012. [Good practices in building innovative rural institutions to increase food security](#).
- YUNGA, FAO, CTA, IFAD. 2104. [Youth and Agriculture: Key Challenges and Concrete Solutions](#).
- ILO platform on [good practices on youth employment](#).
- ILO Taqem. [Impact research for youth employment](#).
- ILO. [Good practices database – Labour migration policies and programmes](#).
- ILO. 2014. [Compendium of good practices on addressing child labour in agriculture](#).
- ILO. 2011. [Good practices In labour inspection: the rural sector with special attention to agriculture](#).

Box 13. Linking social protection and DRE promotion for inclusive agricultural growth

“Social protection programmes can work as a cushion for basic needs of the rural poor as they promote access to food and to basic consumption needs and can also enhance human capital and rural investments. There is strong evidence that social protection increases the workforce's options, and that many beneficiaries shift time previously dedicated to casual agricultural wage employment of last resort to own-farm work or non-farm employment.

This is particularly the case for social assistance programmes that are tax financed, transfers that serve a “social assistance” function, reducing the incidence or depth of chronic poverty. The most common programmes are: (1) unconditional transfers, i.e. programmes that distribute cash or vouchers, or are in-kind (such as food), without anything required of the recipient; (2) conditional transfers, which may otherwise be identical to unconditional transfers except in that they require recipients to meet some specified conditions, typically to improve the human resources of their children; (3) public works programmes, also referred to as cash- or food-for-work, or guaranteed employment programmes, which require beneficiaries to work to create or maintain household or community assets.”

Extract from: FAO. 2015. *The State of Food and Agriculture. Social protection and agriculture: breaking the cycle of rural poverty*.

Table 5. DRE-relevant aspects commonly addressed in other policies relevant for rural development

Policy, strategy and related programmes	DRE-relevant aspects often supported
Employment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Rural employment creation - Enforcement of ILS for rural workers, in law and in practice - Reduction/prevention of the worst forms of child labour - Reduction of entry barriers for women's and youth participation in labour markets - Public work programmes - Setting and enforcement of a minimum/living wage in rural sectors/agriculture - Development of labour market information systems - Skills development for all, including rural people, in conjunction with the needs of the private sector - Information on labour rights to migrant workers and other disadvantaged groups
MSME and private sector development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Business development services in rural areas - Decent work conditions for wage workers in rural MSMEs - Entrepreneurship support for youth and women - Simplification of business registration procedures, taxation and other administrative barriers to promote formalization in rural areas - Support to rural MSMEs to comply with relevant certification schemes and codes of conduct to enable access to markets with higher returns and increased value addition - Skills development for rural sectors in conjunction with the needs of the labour market
Trade/Export	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Export promotion from agricultural sectors as driver of employment creation - Compliance with certification schemes, corporate social responsibility and quality standards to enable access to markets with higher returns and increased value addition
Youth development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Youth employment creation and entrepreneurship promotion - Skills development and employment information for rural youth - Youth empowerment to engage in policy and social dialogue
Social protection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Extension of social protection for rural workers, including in the informal sector - Improvements in health and education for rural workers, including through OSH, maternity protection, human capital accumulation for children, and reduction of child labour and women's work burden - Links between social protection (e.g. conditional cash transfers) and agricultural productivity/employment creation (e.g. through multiplier effect on local economy) - Public work programmes - Graduation from safety nets through employment and skills development
Migration and remittances	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Management of rural migration, reducing distress out-migration - Strengthening of financial institutions in rural areas to ensure the efficient transfer of remittances to rural areas, and to ensure that remittances can be effectively utilized and invested in agriculture and rural development - Financial literacy for remittance recipients' households to facilitate their investments in productive activities - Management of seasonal agricultural work programmes - Management of labour/migratory inflows needed to compensate for any labour shortages arising from the sustainable intensification of agriculture
Land	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Gender equality in access to and tenure of land - Youth access to land - Security of tenure under customary law for communities and individuals.

Policy, strategy and related programmes	DRE-relevant aspects often supported
Environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Employment creation potential of climate change adaptation and mitigation and of greener agriculture - Safeguards to guarantee that new green jobs will also be decent jobs (e.g. respect of core labour standards) - Environmental literacy among rural workers, including youth and women
Gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Gender equality in the rural labour market in terms of wages, representation, access to employment, training and productive resources, contractual segregation (i.e. seasonal, casual and part-time work) and occupational segregation (i.e. in low paid/skilled occupations) etc. - Economic empowerment of rural women through decent work/rural entrepreneurship - Support to women agricultural producers to increase productivity and access markets - Supportive measures (technologies, services) to reduce reproductive work burden of women and provide incentives for women's access to productive work and decent employment
Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Access to primary education, post-primary education, and technical and vocational education and training (TVET) for rural women/girls - Incorporation of agricultural and rural adapted entrepreneurial skills in TVET - Free and universal access to basic education in recognition of its usefulness in dis-incentivizing the worst forms of child labour
Nutrition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Links between improvement of working conditions (e.g. care facilities and breastfeeding/reducing women's work burden/reducing child labour in rural areas) and nutrition outcomes - School feeding programmes to improve school attendance rates and dis-incentivize the worst forms of child labour in rural areas - Links between malnutrition and labour productivity

Agricultural stakeholders should collaborate and share responsibility with both MoL and the private sector (e.g. POs, trade unions and other workers' organizations). Their roles may vary, but they are all responsible for pushing forward the DRE agenda:

- **States and governments** have the primary responsibility for achieving food security and nutrition and reducing rural poverty. They are also bound by international Conventions and other instruments relevant to labour rights. In particular, states:
 - need to foster an enabling environment for DRE in agriculture and food systems, implementing the appropriate safeguards (given that governments are responsible for legislation, policy, public administration and provision of public goods);
 - should promote the meaningful participation of relevant stakeholders in agricultural and food system policy-making (e.g. by establishing inclusive and equitable multistakeholder and multisectoral platforms); and
 - must address agricultural and food system workers' labour rights – in line with applicable ILS and in social dialogue with their respective organizations and employers – when formulating and applying labour laws.
- The **private sector**, including farmers, as the primary driver of economic growth and dynamism, has a major role to play in the creation of jobs and in the improvement of labour standards. In particular, the private sector:
 - must comply with national laws and regulations and any applicable international law, and act with due diligence to avoid infringing on human rights, including labour rights; and

- has a social responsibility in sustainable value chain development (demonstrated by the proliferation of private sector corporate social responsibility initiatives and standards) and should, therefore, involve and protect local communities (by investing in human and social capital and local economic development) to achieve commercial success (a stable social environment has added value and provides a climate for investment and trade).
 - **Small-scale producers** are the main investors in agriculture and play a vital role in sustainable food systems. In particular, they must comply with national laws and regulations, acting with due diligence to avoid infringing on human rights (e.g. hazardous forms of child labour in family farming).
 - **Producers' organizations** have a responsibility to: participate in policy, programme and monitoring processes related to agriculture and food systems; and strengthen the capacity of their members to defend their rights (e.g. labour rights) and access extension, advisory and financial services, education and training.
 - **Workers' organizations** have a key role in promoting and implementing decent work and engaging in social and policy dialogue for socially sustainable agriculture and food systems.
- **Timely plan any needed organizational change.** For a DRE-inclusive Theory of Change, it is likely that the responsible ministries and other relevant stakeholders will need to introduce some organizational changes. Employment was for a long time a secondary priority for agricultural stakeholders – indeed, the ILO's global call on decent work was launched “only” a decade ago and many organizations have yet to adapt to the DRE requirement. Organizational changes could involve mandate, structure, collaborations or budget allocations; time them carefully to support the implementation phase. Some **examples of DRE-relevant organizational changes for the ministry of agriculture are provided in Box 14.**

Box 14. Examples of possible DRE-enhancing organizational changes in the ministry of agriculture

- Make DRE promotion explicit in the vision/mission statement of MoA.
- Adopt a DRE-enhancing long-term strategy and operational plan.
- Engage in a formal partnership for DRE promotion (e.g. with MoL responsible for mainstreaming decent work across sectors).
- Become a member of a national committee relevant to DRE (e.g. national child labour steering committee).
- Create DRE regular posts, units and services.
- Engage in capacity development to strengthen staff skills and knowledge on DRE.
- Increase the allocating resources for DRE.

The example of Brazil:

In 2009, **Brazil** set up by decree an Interministerial Executive Committee for the National Decent Work Agenda. The *Ministério da Agricultura, Pecuária e Abastecimento* and the *Ministério do Desenvolvimento Agrário* are on the Committee. A dedicated subcommittee for the youth policy was also constituted to guarantee coordination for youth issues. The subcommittee coordinated the development of the National Agenda for Decent Work for Youth, presented in July 2011, in which DRE and the contribution of family farming are high priorities.

Phase 3. Additional resources on how to integrate decent rural employment in the results and strategy analysis

ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

CGIAR Research Program on Aquatic Agricultural Systems. Penang, Malaysia. In Higgins, K. & Turner, L. 2010. Tips and tools for Aid for Trade, inclusive growth and poverty reduction.

FAO. 2011. Social analysis for agriculture and rural investment projects. Manager's guide. Range of safeguard issues relevant to the agricultural sector for World Bank, ADB, AfDB and IDB.

FAO. 2013. Guidance on how to address decent rural employment in FAO country activities (Second Edition) and Quick reference.

FAO. 2014. Turning family farm activity into decent work.

FAO, 2016. Info Note 3: Social protection and decent rural employment.

FAO, 2016. Info Note 4: Reducing distress migration through decent rural employment.

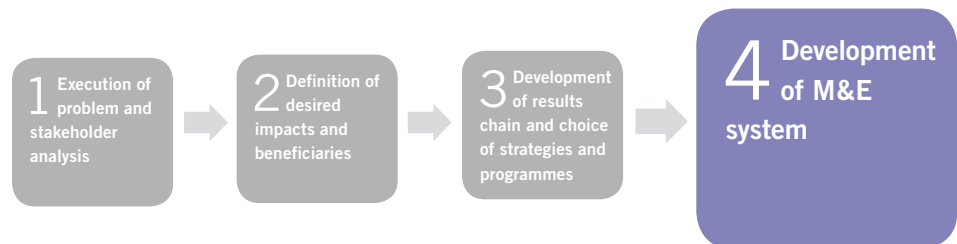
Filmer, D. & Fox, L. 2014. *Youth employment in sub-Saharan Africa*. Africa Development Series. Washington, DC, WB. Agricultural career paths for the future.

IFAD. 2008. A sourcebook. Institutional and organizational analysis for pro-poor change: meeting IFAD's millennium challenge.

Losch, B., Fréguin-Gresh, S. & White, E. 2011. Rural transformation and late developing countries in a globalizing world. A comparative analysis of rural change. Final Report of the RuralStruc Program, Revised Version. Washington, DC, WB.

Phase 4. Development of M&E system – Monitoring DRE

This entire phase answers the question: **How do we know if we are on track to achieve the results?**



The M&E system enables the intervention team to track results. It also supports critical reflection to eventually take corrective action and learning for future interventions.

It is fundamental to integrate DRE considerations in the M&E system to confirm the commitments manifested in the previous phases of strategic planning. In simple words, if job creation and decent work are a priority, they should also be a measure of success.

Mainstreaming DRE in this phase of strategic planning entails the following steps:

- Choose DRE-relevant indicators and targets (4.1)
- Develop a detailed M&E plan to address DRE information needs (4.2)
- Adopt mitigation strategies to face the lack of sufficiently disaggregated data on DRE (4.3)

4.1. Choose DRE-relevant indicators and targets

- ▶ **Involve labour stakeholders in the selection and monitoring of indicators and targets.** The key stakeholders need to agree on indicators and targets in order to create ownership. Ensure that the main agricultural stakeholders (MoA, POs, agribusinesses, extension services etc.) and labour stakeholders (MoL, ministries of gender and of social protection, labour inspection service, workers' organizations etc.) are involved and approve the set of indicators chosen.
- ▶ **Choose SMART indicators.** In general, indicators should be **specific** to the objective; **measurable** either quantitatively or qualitatively; **available** at an acceptable cost; **relevant** to the information needs of decision-makers; and **time-bound** (so that users know when to expect the objective or target to be achieved). DRE can be measured using indicators which are:
 - **quantitative** (number, percentage, rate or ratio); or
 - **qualitative** (compliance with, quality of, extent of or level of).
- ▶ **Include DRE-specific indicators.** DRE indicators should guarantee the assessment of both the quantitative aspects of employment creation (e.g. number of jobs created) and the qualitative improvements in working conditions (e.g. improvement in contract stability). The ILO has developed a full list of decent work indicators along the four pillars of the Decent Work Agenda,⁵¹ many of which are relevant to agriculture or rural

⁵¹ Decent Work Indicators; Concepts and definitions. Available at http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---integration/documents/publication/wcms_229374.pdf.

development interventions (e.g. indicators of working poverty, average real wages, precarious employment rate or child labour). **For a list of suggested DRE indicators for agricultural development interventions, see Table 6.** The list covers three main areas of intervention for DRE promotion:

1. Creation or upgrading of employment and entrepreneurship opportunities for rural people
2. Standards and rights at work for rural workers
3. Policy and institutional enabling environment for DRE

The list is not exhaustive, nor is it expected that all interventions use all indicators. Indicators at outcome and output level in particular will inevitably depend on the precise intervention planned and the specific context. Each intervention should prioritize or adapt the most useful indicators. Furthermore, it is important to consider employment-specific indicators jointly with indicators measuring other enablers of rural development (smallholder transition and value chain development, social protection, education, rural infrastructure, rural finance, industrial development, trade and business environment, agricultural research and extension, environmental sustainability etc.).

Additional notes on each indicator and the respective data sources are provided in **Annex 4**.

Table 6. List of possible DRE indicators by main area of intervention and level of result

Level of result ⁵³	DRE indicators ⁵⁴
Area of intervention 1: Creation or upgrading of employment and entrepreneurship opportunities for rural people	
Impact	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▼ Working poverty rate in rural areas ▲ Value of agricultural production per hectare/labour unit ▲ Average real wages in agriculture ▲ Youth employment, formal and informal ▼ Share of rural women working as contributing family workers ▼ Average age of small-scale producers and MSME owners
Medium-term outcome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▲ No. of (registered) MSMEs in rural areas ▲ Share of MSMEs supported by the intervention still operating or grown after 3 years ▲ No. of new decent rural jobs resulting (directly or indirectly) from the intervention ▲ Share of small-scale producers engaged in sustainable collective marketing agreements or other inclusive business models
Short-term outcome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▲ No. of MSMEs established under the intervention ▲ Share of small-scale producers supported by the intervention who adopted sustainable agricultural production practices ▲ Share of small-scale producers/MSMEs supported by the intervention who accessed productive resources (e.g. finance, land, inputs and markets) ▲ No. of poor rural people supported by the intervention finding a dependent decent job or establishing their own enterprise

Level of result ⁵³	DRE indicators ⁵⁴
Output	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▲ No. of poor unemployed or underemployed rural people supported by the intervention increasing their employment-related skills and employability ▲ No. of poor unemployed or underemployed rural people supported in job search by the intervention ▲ No. of small-scale producers/POs supported to sustainably increase productivity and commercialize production ▲ No. of rural MSMEs and POs supported to access BDS ▲ No. of service providers capacitated to support rural MSMEs ▲ No. of PPPs formalized among agricultural value chain stakeholders to foster youth employment creation ▲ No. of sustainable public work schemes initiated by the intervention
Area of intervention 2: Standards and rights at work for rural workers	
Impact	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▼ Child labour rate in agriculture ▼ Cases of fatal/non-fatal occupational injury in agriculture ▼ Gender wage gap in agriculture ▼ Casual workers in agriculture/rural sector (% of total employment)
Medium-term outcome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▲ Share of small-scale producers and other rural workers members of POs or workers' organizations/ trade unions and other community groups ▲ Ratio of adoption of minimum OSH measures in small-scale agricultural sector/rural MSMEs ▲ No. or share of supported rural households with children aged 5–11 in child labour that withdraw their children from work ▲ No. of rural children aged 5–17 removed from hazardous work
Short-term outcome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▲ Share of supported small-scale producers that adopted decent work-enhancing practices ▲ Share of supported MSMEs/POs introducing innovations to promote or monitor labour standards in practice ▲ No. of agrifood value chains with action plans in place to promote labour standards
Output	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▲ No. of producers'/workers' organizations strengthened or created ▲ No. of agricultural and rural stakeholders trained in decent work standards, including OSH, equality at work, women double work burden, child labour prevention ▲ No. of MSMEs/POs/small-scale producers' households supported to adopt voluntary standards/ certification for socially responsible agricultural production ▲ No. of local service providers trained and supported to develop labour-saving equipment ▲ No. of agrifood value chains supported to improve the application of labour standards in practice ▲ No. of agrifood value chains for which there is specific analysis of labour standards
Area of Intervention 3: Policy and institutional enabling environment for DRE	
Impact	As for areas of intervention 1 and 2
Medium-term outcome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▲ DRE integrated among strategic objectives of MoA ▲ No. of indicators on agriculture and rural labour markets monitored in labour market information systems ▲ Extent of ratification of ILO Conventions relevant for rural areas and the agricultural sector ▲ Coverage of agricultural workers in the provisions of national labour legislation ▲ Coverage and adequacy of labour inspection systems in rural areas ▲ Ratio (or number) of investment deals integrating decent work/protecting labour rights

Level of result ⁵³	DRE indicators ⁵⁴
Short-term outcome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▲ No. of new or revised agriculture and rural development (ARD) policies/strategies/programmes which include DRE-related results, indicators, budgets ▲ Adoption of national policy or guidelines for responsible agricultural investments or responsible business conduct along agricultural supply chains ▲ Adoption of DRE-enhancing national contract farming legislation ▲ Dedicated DRE focal points/staff in main agriculture-line ministries ▲ Existence of interinstitutional mechanisms for promoting DRE ▲ No. of mechanisms for improving OSH for agricultural workers, including workers in subsistence farming and rural micro and small informal enterprises ▲ No. of agricultural research centres generating knowledge on rural labour markets and decent work issues
Output	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▲ No. of policy-makers and planners in MoA, LGAs and main POs trained in incorporating DRE in strategic planning ▲ No. of staff of statistical departments trained in collection, dissemination and analysis of data on decent work in agriculture and rural areas ▲ No. of extension staff trained in DRE-enhancing agricultural technologies and practices ▲ No. of labour inspectors/extension staff trained in the application of ILS to rural areas ▲ No. of partnerships (e.g. PPP) formalized to promote DRE ▲ Assessment available of hazards and risks in agriculture and related action plan ▲ No. of research activities in agriculture dedicated to decent work

► **Make DRE target groups explicit and enhance disaggregation.** It is important to disaggregate indicators and targets by sex and age. In terms of age, the most relevant age groups are: children (5–17 years); adolescents (14/15–17);⁵⁴ youth (15–24 and/or 15–35);⁵⁵ adults 18–60); and elderly (≥ 60). Take into account producer size and any ethnicity-based specificities (e.g. indigenous people), as well as other possible inequalities in access, control and use of resources and productive assets (e.g. small producers vs medium producers). In particular, the indicators should help assess the effects of an intervention among target groups at a disadvantage in rural employment (youth, women, migrant workers, indigenous people, casual workers, persons with disabilities, landless workers, smallholders etc.).

52 Indicators of long-term outcome or impact measure the intervention's ultimate effects on DRE, either for the intervention beneficiaries or for the sector, region or country. Indicators of medium-term outcome measure the intervention's effects in terms of organizational and institutional changes that improve the enabling environment for DRE at sectoral or national level. Indicators of short-term outcome measure DRE-enhancing changes in behaviours as an effect of the intervention (e.g. beneficiaries adopting DRE-enhancing practices, policy-makers integrating DRE in policies and strategies). They should be easier and less costly to collect than long-/medium-term outcome indicators and can be used to enable correction of action. They can be indicators of access, use, adoption and satisfaction with the services provided by the intervention. Indicators of output measure the enhancement of awareness, knowledge or capacities related to DRE or the integration of DRE considerations in the goods and services delivered by the intervention.

53 Note: The arrows before each indicator, attest the direction of the desired change. However, they are to be considered separate from the actual indicators, which are, by definition, neutral.

54 Young people in the 15–17 age group already have the required minimum age (14 or 15 in most countries) to work but face additional challenges in accessing productive resources and services or joining representative organizations because of their status as minors. Many work in agriculture and are often exposed and vulnerable to health and safety hazards. Globally, about 47 million youth aged 15–17 are engaged in hazardous work. They account for 40% of all youth in employment and 28% of all child labour. This stage in their life is typically decisive in terms of transition from school to work and the likelihood of transitioning out of poverty. If subjected to any one (or more) of the above barriers during this critical period, young people may have difficulty accessing productive and decent employment and they risk becoming a lost generation.

55 The UN, for statistical consistency across regions, defines "youth" as persons between the ages of 15 and 24 years, without prejudice to other definitions by Member States. The African Youth Charter defines "youth" as "every person between the ages of 15 and 35 years".

- ▶ **Consider making explicit the employment dimensions of non-employment-specific indicators.** DRE-inclusive M&E does not translate necessarily into an increased number of indicators to include in the log frame. It is sometimes necessary to reformulate existing indicators (rather than create new ones) in alignment with your DRE-inclusive Theory of Change. For example, the indicator “Number of statistical reports on agro-industrial data produced and disseminated within three years of implementation” could be revised to clarify that the statistical reports should also include employment data. The indicator “Share of farmers in contract farming”, on the other hand, could include the qualifier “responsible”, specifying in the programme document that contract farming agreements will also be monitored in terms of their effects on working conditions, gender discrimination and child labour.

4.2. Develop a detailed M&E plan to address DRE information needs

- ▶ **Integrate DRE information needs and stakeholders in the detailed M&E plan.** The information on M&E included in the standard log frame usually looks into indicators, baselines, targets and means of verification. This is not always sufficient to support an adequate M&E system. It is advisable to develop a more detailed M&E plan containing additional information needs and specifying data-gathering methods, frequency and responsibilities. This is a general recommendation and does not apply only to DRE considerations. It is, nevertheless, crucial for the mainstreaming of employment issues, where information is often limited: building an M&E plan can help make information needs more transparent.
- ▶ **Always develop a baseline.** Measure each indicator prior to implementation of the intervention. A baseline provides benchmarks against which DRE changes can be monitored over time and evaluated. The information available on rural labour markets is often weak and not adequately disaggregated. Nevertheless, it is important to integrate existing information into the M&E plan, in consultation with statistical offices, agricultural statistics divisions and labour market observatories.
- ▶ **Use qualitative methods to gather information about the WHY and HOW.** The monitoring of indicators (quantitative or qualitative) is certainly a powerful tool for monitoring the size and magnitude of changes observed in the areas targeted by an intervention. However, “why” and “how” such changes (if any) took place often remains unclear. For example, an intervention’s Theory of Change may have predicted that offering jobs in the rural service sector to rural women would reduce poverty and improve nutrition, while the mid-term evaluation might later reveal that there is no positive effect on nutrition, in spite of women’s increased incomes. Carrying out a qualitative analysis of beneficiaries’ perceptions may be useful to explain the causes of an unexpected result (e.g. the increased time burden of women resulting in care deficits). Hence, in addition to the information necessary to monitor the indicators, the M&E plan should include further assessments to feed the broader information requirements of the M&E system. The risks and assumptions identified in the log frame may already indicate which additional aspects will require monitoring – whether to ensure the intervention’s success or to plan corrective action. In particular, you may want to gather critical DRE-related information, including:
 - the perceptions with regard to child labour, hazards and risks in agriculture;
 - the perceptions, needs and aspirations of rural youth;
 - the interest of and constraints faced by MSMEs in formalizing and guaranteeing minimum wages and other labour standards;

- the priorities and perceptions of POs' management and members with regard to women and youth inclusion; and
- the capacities of extension services and their familiarity with DRE.

► **Monitor effects on employment (regardless of whether your intervention has specific DRE results).** Results that are not specific to employment (e.g. agricultural intensification) may have positive or negative effects on employment (e.g. worsening of labour conditions, increased work burden for women, increased child labour). Considering the limited resources available for M&E, prioritize certain DRE effects and monitor these. Focus on the **violation of labour rights** – a widespread problem in the agricultural sector with major knowledge gaps. Relevant issues include:

- worst forms of child labour (e.g. hazardous child labour);
- forced labour and gender-related discriminations in the informal sector (inequalities in women workers' access to training and productive resources);
- OSH; and
- rights related to contracts, wages and living conditions for migrant and casual waged agricultural workers.

Given the enormous challenges faced by youth in accessing decent employment opportunities in rural areas, it is also important to monitor systematically the effects of agricultural development interventions on youth employment.

4.3. Adopt mitigation strategies to face the lack of sufficiently disaggregated data on DRE

► **Be prepared for the limited availability of DRE data and information and develop corresponding mitigation strategies.** Specific rural employment surveys are scarce in most low-income countries (LICs) and in developing countries in general. Most of the data available on rural employment come from: population censuses, which are low frequency (typically every 10 years); labour force surveys (LFS), which are relatively scarce (especially in LICs); and – in the absence of these sources – household budget surveys (HBS), which collect only limited basic information on employment.⁵⁶ Similarly, agricultural surveys essentially focus on production and land, and not all countries collect information on labour.⁵⁷ The nature of rural labour markets – and of agricultural work in particular – gives rise to specific challenges, notably a **shortage of reliable information and data** in various areas:⁵⁸

- Rural work tends to be informal, precarious, casual and/or seasonal, and workers often hold multiple jobs, undertaking both farm and non-farm activities throughout the year. In such contexts, information on returns to labour (whether self- or wage employment, underemployment, and shares of paid/unpaid work) is largely missing, especially for small-scale agriculture.
- Job quality is not easy to measure precisely and data are not adequately captured. As a result, there is little information available on: underutilization of skills, multiple

56 FAO. 2015. ESS Working Paper No. ESS 15-10. Decent work indicators for agriculture and rural areas conceptual issues, data collection challenges and possible areas for improvement (p. 14).

57 See Agricultural census: employment-relevant information in supplementary modules, available at <http://www.fao.org/docrep/009/a0135e/a0135e05.htm#CH4>.

58 See ILO resources on rural statistics (available at <http://www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/statistics-overview-and-topics/rural-labour/lang-en/index.htm> and http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/--dgreports/--stat/documents/projectdocumentation/wcms_153119.pdf).

job-holding and excessive hours of work, informal recruitment practices and networks, and gender and age inequalities in the rural labour market; OSH; and other related quality aspects (e.g. access to social protection and social dialogue).

- Finally, there is a lack of information on specific issues, such as rural migrants and migration flows, occupational mobility, rural women and youth's time use, child labour, assets' ownership and control of resources.

While the past two decades have seen some progress in the collection of rural labour data, especially in terms of sex⁵⁹ and age disaggregated data in agriculture, there are still many gaps.⁶⁰

When labour market data are insufficient to draw clear conclusions about the employment situation in rural areas and if there are sufficient resources, it may be useful to carry out a survey. Attach a specific module to an already existing household-based survey, such as a household budget survey (HBS), labour force survey (LFS) or living standards measurement study (LSMS); alternatively, organize an ad hoc survey with a representative sample of the rural population. Survey results are fundamental for identifying the key challenges to be addressed in the M&E system. For **guidance on important technical requirements for a DRE survey, see Annex 3, Table D**. It is also recommended to conduct qualitative analysis on DRE (e.g. case studies on specific DRE priorities).

However, in the long term, strong national labour market information systems are needed, with information disaggregated by urban/rural location, age and sex, taking into account the specificities of rural areas. It is, therefore, essential that **developing countries and their development partners invest in:**

- **national strategies** for data collection; and
 - **national capacities** to produce and analyse timely and high-quality datasets.
- **Keep things manageable and simple.** An M&E system requires careful design and active maintenance. An M&E system that is overly complicated (due to the quantity and/or complexity of indicators and other information requirements) is costly and unlikely to be effective. Therefore, do not select too many indicators. Furthermore, minimize the costs of additional data collection by maximizing the use of secondary data relevant in terms of timing and population group (e.g. government records or data collected from non-governmental entities – either national or international). The final selection of indicators will inevitably depend on criteria such as data availability, frequency of collection, timeliness and quality.

59 The *Agri-Gender Toolkit* was developed as part of FAO's general support to strengthen the capacity of national statistics systems in the framework of the 2010 round of the World Programme for the Census of Agriculture. It is the product of a joint effort by the FAO Regional Office for Africa (FAORAF) and the FAO Statistics Division in Rome. The toolkit provides examples of questions and table formats for the collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated agricultural data. Among the items treated, some relate directly to employment, such as Access to productive resources, Production and productivity, and Labour and time use. Most questions relate to subsistence and commercial farming activities carried out in small-scale agricultural production given their predominance in most African countries.

60 The *FAO Statistics Division* (ESS) compiles time-series data to support rural policy formulation and analysis. Collaboration with the *ILO Bureau of Statistics* includes both methodological work as well as preparation of statistical datasets on rural and agricultural labour. The development of a structured agricultural labour statistics framework was a joint undertaking and is currently being populated with statistics from the ILO database of labour statistics (LABORSTA) and other international or national sources. Specifically, the *World Programme for the Census of Agriculture (WCA 2010)* recommends a modular approach and provides guidelines on modalities for the coordination of agriculture censuses with population censuses. Employment concepts have been amended in line with ILO standards to better reflect the structure of employment in rural areas. The approach proposed by FAO for the latest round of agricultural censuses is expected to further enhance the production and use of age- and sex-disaggregated agricultural data, and encourages countries to provide greater insight into the roles and responsibilities of men and women in agricultural production.

- **Consider using DRE as a specific evaluation criterion or as a dimension of broader impact assessments on income, assets and rural people empowerment.** Large-scale agricultural interventions may include completion or mid-term evaluations. The results included in the log frame (at both impact and outcome level) usually serve as a basis for developing possible evaluation questions. For example: Has the intervention managed to reduce child labour in agriculture in the targeted areas supported? Has the intervention managed to contain the ageing of the farming population by engaging youth in agriculture? Has the intervention managed to increase the productivity of women producers?

Including DRE as a specific evaluation criterion is useful in order to:

- measure the DRE-related changes planned in the log frame;
- understand the overall positive and negative employment effects of an intervention, including unintended ones (e.g. rural poverty reduction is not happening as expected; child exploitation in rural farming in the targeted areas has increased tremendously); and
- increase overall knowledge on rural labour markets and working conditions.



FAO. 2015. Handbook for monitoring and evaluation of child labour in agriculture. Measuring the impacts of agricultural and food security

The Handbook offers guidance and tools for assessing the impacts of agricultural and food security programmes and projects on child labour in family-based agriculture. It helps agricultural programmes to: incorporate child labour prevention or mitigation in the design stage; monitor their unintended or intended impacts on child labour; and evaluate their impacts on child labour in the programme area.

FAO. 2015. ESS Working Paper No. ESS 15-10. Decent work indicators for agriculture and rural areas. Conceptual issues, data collection challenges and possible areas for improvement

This paper assesses the relevance of concepts and indicators of decent work for rural areas and employment in agriculture. It proposes a selection of relevant indicators and options for their integration in existing national agricultural surveys, noting the main practical challenges and possible solutions.

Phase 4. Additional resources on making the M&E system more DRE-inclusive

ADDITIONAL
RESOURCES

- Coudouel *et al.* 2002. Poverty measurement and analysis, Washington, DC, WB.
- Johnson, M. & Flaherty, K. 2011. Strategic analysis and knowledge support systems for agriculture and rural development in Africa: Translating evidence into action. Food Security in Practice Technical Guide 6. Washington, DC, IFPRI.
- FAO. 2011. Social analysis for agriculture and rural investment projects: Managers Guide; Practitioners Guide; Field Guide.
- FAO. 2011. Including M&E in food security programme design: Minimum requirements.
- FAO. 2015. Handbook for monitoring and evaluation of child labour in agriculture Measuring the impacts of agricultural and food security.
- FAO. 2015. ESS Working Paper No. ESS 15-10. Decent work indicators for agriculture and rural areas conceptual issues, data collection challenges and possible areas for improvement.
- GDPRD, FAO and WB. 2008. Tracking results in agriculture and rural development in less-than-ideal conditions. A sourcebook of indicators for monitoring and evaluation.
- IDEAS. Website of the International Development Evaluation Association (IDEAS).
- IFAD. 2002. A guide for project M&E. Rome.
- IFAD. 2009. Evaluation manual, Methodology and Processes. Rome.
- ILO. 2012. Decent work indicators: concepts and definitions: ILO manual. First edition. Geneva.
- ILO. 2012. Decent work indicators in Africa. A first assessment based on national sources.
- Mayne, J. 2008. Contribution analysis: An approach to exploring cause and effect. ILAC Brief 16.
- Stern, E., Stame, N., Mayne, J., Forss, K, Davies, R. & Befani, B. 2012. Broadening the range of designs and methods for impact evaluation. Working Paper 38. London, Department for International Development.
- UNDG. 2011. Results-based Management Handbook.
- WB webpage on Type of data for monitoring poverty.



Annex 1

Main international standards (binding and voluntary) relevant for decent work in agriculture and rural areas

Rural-relevant international labour standards (ILS), by area covered ⁶²	
Freedom of association	Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87)
	Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98)
	Right of Association (Agriculture) Convention, 1921 (No. 11)
	Rural Workers' Organisations Convention, 1975 (No. 141), and Recommendation, 1975 (No. 149)
Forced labour	Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29)
	Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105).
Child labour	Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138)
	Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182).
Equality of opportunity and treatment	Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111)
	Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100)
Tripartite consultation	Tripartite Consultation (International Labour Standards) Convention, 1976 (No. 144), and Tripartite Consultation (Activities of the International Labour Organisation) Recommendation, 1976 (No. 152)
Labour inspection	Labour Inspection Convention, 1947 (No. 81), Protocol of 1995 to Convention No. 81, and Recommendation, 1947 (No. 81)
	Labour Inspection (Agriculture) Convention, 1969 (No. 129), and Recommendation, 1969 (No. 133)
Employment policy	Employment Policy Recommendation, 1964 (No. 122)
	Employment Policy (Supplementary Provisions) Recommendation, 1984 (No. 169)
	Human Resources Development Convention, 1975 (No. 142), and Recommendation, 2004 (No. 195)
	Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment (Disabled Persons) Convention, 1983 (No. 159)
	Job Creation in Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises Recommendation, 1998 (No. 189)
	Promotion of Cooperatives Recommendation, 2002 (No. 193)
	Employment Relationship Recommendation, 2006 (No. 198)
Wages	Minimum Wage Fixing Machinery (Agriculture) Convention, 1951 (No. 99), and Recommendation, 1951 (No. 89)
	Protection of Wages Convention, 1949 (No. 95)
Working time	Forty-Hour Week Convention, 1935 (No. 47), and Holidays with Pay Convention (Revised), 1970 (No. 132)

61 Adapted from ILO. 2012. *Empowering rural workers, employers and communities through International Labour Standards. Key issues and policy options to protect rural workers' rights, and enable them to contribute to rural development.*

Occupational safety and health (OSH)	Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 1981 (No. 155), Protocol of 2002 to Convention No. 155, and Recommendation, 1979 (No. 161)
	Promotional Framework for Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 2006 (No. 187)
	Safety and Health in Agriculture Convention, 2001 (No. 184), and Recommendation, 2001 (No. 192)
Social security	Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture) Convention, 1921 (No. 12)
	Sickness Insurance (Agriculture) Convention, 1927 (No. 25)
	Old-Age Insurance (Agriculture) Convention, 1933 (No. 36)
	Invalidity Insurance (Agriculture) Convention, 1933 (No. 38)
	Survivors' Insurance (Agriculture) Convention, 1933 (No. 40)
	Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102)
	Employment Injury Benefits Convention, 1964 [Schedule I amended in 1980] (No. 121)
	Social Policy (Basic Aims and Standards) Convention, 1962 (No. 117)
	Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183), and Recommendation, 2000 (No. 191)
	Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No. 202)
Migrant workers	Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97)
	Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143), and Recommendations
Seafarers	Maritime Labour Convention, 2006 (MLC)
Fisheries	Work in Fishing Convention, 2007 (No. 188) (not yet entered into force)
	Fishermen's Competency Certificates Convention, 1966 (No. 125)
Indigenous and tribal peoples	Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention, 1989 (No. 169)
Plantations	Plantations Convention, 1958 (No. 110) and Protocol of 1982 to the Plantations Convention, 1958
Tenants and sharecroppers	Tenants and Share-croppers Recommendation, 1968 (No. 132)

International Human Rights Instruments with labour-related provisions that apply to all rural workers

International Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Racial Discrimination (1966)

International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966)

International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966)

Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (1979)

Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989)

United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2006

United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (2007)

Main international voluntary standards relevant to agriculture and rural development which refer to decent work	
Standard	Relevant text
<p><u>Principles for Responsible Investment in Agriculture and Food Systems</u>, approved by the 41st Session of CFS (Committee on World Food Security) on 15 October 2014.</p>	<p>Principle 2. Contribute to sustainable and inclusive economic development and the eradication of poverty</p> <p>Responsible investment in agriculture and food systems contributes to sustainable and inclusive economic development and poverty eradication by:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> i. Respecting the fundamental principles and rights at work, especially those of agricultural and food workers, as defined in the ILO core Conventions; ii. Supporting the effective implementation of other international labour standards, where applicable, giving particular attention to standards relevant to the agrifood sector and the elimination of the worst forms of child labour; iii. Creating new jobs and fostering decent work through improved working conditions, occupational safety and health, adequate living wages and/or training for career advancement; iv. Improving income, generating shared value through enforceable and fair contracts, fostering entrepreneurship and equal access to market opportunities both on-farm and for upstream and downstream stakeholders; v. Contributing to rural development, improving social protection coverage and the provision of public goods and services such as research, health, education, capacity development, finance, infrastructure, market functioning, and fostering rural institutions; [...]
<p><u>Food and Agriculture Business (FAB) Principles, 2014</u> (in the frame of the UN Global Compact)</p>	<p>Principle 4. Respect human rights, create decent work and help communities to thrive</p> <p>Businesses should respect the rights of farmers, workers and consumers. They should improve livelihoods, promote and provide equal opportunities, so communities are attractive to live, work and invest in.</p>
<p><u>Voluntary Guidelines for Securing Sustainable Small-scale Fisheries in the Context of Food Security and Poverty Eradication</u>, endorsed by the Committee on Fisheries at its 31st Session in June 2014</p>	<p>Section 6. Social development, employment and decent work</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 6.6 States should promote decent work for all small-scale fisheries workers, including both the formal and informal sectors. States should create the appropriate conditions to ensure that fisheries activities in both the formal and informal sectors are taken into account in order to ensure the sustainability of small-scale fisheries in accordance with national law. [...] 6.10 States and small-scale fisheries actors, including traditional and customary authorities, should understand, recognize and respect the role of migrant fishers and fish workers in small-scale fisheries, given that migration is a common livelihood strategy in small-scale fisheries. States and small-scale fisheries actors should cooperate to create the appropriate frameworks to allow for fair and adequate integration of migrants who engage in sustainable use of fisheries resources and who do not undermine local community-based fisheries governance and development in small-scale fisheries in accordance with national law. States should recognize the importance of coordinating among their respective national governments in regard to migration of fishers and fish workers in small-scale fisheries across national borders. Policies and management measures should be determined in consultation with small-scale fisheries organizations and institutions. 6.12 States should address occupational health issues and unfair working conditions of all small-scale fishers and fish workers by ensuring that the necessary legislation is in place and is implemented in accordance with national legislation and international human rights standards and international instruments to which a State is a contracting party, such as the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) and relevant Conventions of the International Labour Organization (ILO). All parties should strive to ensure that occupational health and safety is an integral part of fisheries management and development initiatives. 6.13 States should eradicate forced labour, prevent debt-bondage of women, men and children, and adopt effective measures to protect fishers and fish workers, including migrants, with a view to the complete elimination of forced labour in fisheries, including small-scale fisheries. 6.14 States should provide and enable access to schools and education facilities that meet the needs of small-scale fishing communities and that facilitate gainful and decent employment of youth, respecting their career choices and providing equal opportunities for all boys and girls and young men and women.

- 6.15 Small-scale fisheries actors should recognize the importance of children's well-being and education for the future of the children themselves and of society at large. Children should go to school, be protected from all abuse and have all their rights respected in accordance with the Convention on the Rights of the Child.
- 6.16 All parties should recognize the complexity that surrounds safety-at-sea issues (in inland and marine fisheries) and the multiple causes behind deficient safety. This applies to all fishing activities. States should ensure the development, enactment and implementation of appropriate national laws and regulations that are consistent with international guidelines of FAO, the ILO and the International Maritime Organization (IMO) for work in fishing and sea safety in small-scale.
- 6.17 States should recognize that improved sea safety, which includes occupational health and safety, in small-scale fisheries (inland and marine) will best be achieved through the development and implementation of coherent and integrated national strategies, with the active participation of the fishers themselves and with elements of regional coordination, as appropriate. In addition, safety at sea of small-scale fishers should also be integrated into the general management of fisheries. States should provide support to, among other things, maintenance of national accident reporting, provision of sea safety awareness programmes and introduction of appropriate legislation for sea safety in small-scale fisheries. [...]

FAO Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries,
adopted on
31 October 1995
by the FAO
Conference

6 - General principles

- 6.13 States should, to the extent permitted by national laws and regulations, ensure that decision making processes are transparent and achieve timely solutions to urgent matters. States, in accordance with appropriate procedures, should facilitate consultation and the effective participation of industry, fishworkers, environmental and other interested organizations in decision making with respect to the development of laws and policies related to fisheries management, development, international lending and aid.
- 6.17 States should ensure that fishing facilities and equipment as well as all fisheries activities allow for safe, healthy and fair working and living conditions and meet internationally agreed standards adopted by relevant international organizations.

8 - Fishing operations

- 8.1.5 States should ensure that health and safety standards are adopted for everyone employed in fishing operations. Such standards should be not less than the minimum requirements of relevant international agreements on conditions of work and service.
- 8.1.7 States should enhance through education and training programmes the education and skills of fishers and, where appropriate, their professional qualifications. Such programmes should take into account agreed international standards and guidelines.
- 8.2.5 Flag States should ensure compliance with appropriate safety requirements for fishing vessels and fishers in accordance with international conventions, internationally agreed codes of practice and voluntary guidelines. States should adopt appropriate safety requirements for all small vessels not covered by such international conventions, codes of practice or voluntary guidelines.
- 8.2.8 Flag States should promote access to insurance coverage by owners and charterers of fishing vessels. Owners or charterers of fishing vessels should carry sufficient insurance cover to protect the crew of such vessels and their interests, to indemnify third parties against loss or damage and to protect their own interests.
- 8.2.9 Flag States should ensure that crew members are entitled to repatriation, taking account of the principles laid down in the "Repatriation of Seafarers Convention (Revised), 1987, (No. 166)".
- 8.3.2 Port States should provide such assistance to flag States as is appropriate, in accordance with the national laws of the port State and international law, when a fishing vessel is voluntarily in a port or at an offshore terminal of the port State and the flag State of the vessel requests the port State for assistance in respect of non-compliance with subregional, regional or global conservation and management measures or with internationally agreed minimum standards for the prevention of pollution and for safety, health and conditions of work on board fishing vessels.
- 8.4.1 States should ensure that fishing is conducted with due regard to the safety of human life and the International Maritime Organization International Regulations for Preventing Collisions at Sea, as well as International Maritime Organization requirements relating to the organization of marine traffic, protection of the marine environment and the prevention of damage to or loss of fishing gear.

The International Code of Conduct on Pesticide Management, 2014

Vulnerable groups means persons that include pregnant and nursing women, the unborn, infants and children, the elderly, HIV/AIDS affected people and, when subject to high exposure to pesticides over the long term, workers and residents.

- 3.6 Pesticides whose handling and application require the use of personal protective equipment that is uncomfortable, expensive or not readily available should be avoided, especially in the case of small-scale users and farm workers in hot climates.
- 3.9 All stakeholders, including farmers and farmer associations, IPM/IVM researchers, extension agents, crop consultants, food industry, manufacturers of biological and chemical pesticides and application equipment, PCOs, public health workers, environmentalists and representatives of consumer groups and other public interest groups should play a proactive role in the development and promotion of IPM/IVM.

In establishing pesticide production facilities of a suitable standard in developing countries, manufacturers and governments should cooperate to:

- 5.5.2 take all necessary precautions to protect workers, bystanders, nearby communities and the environment.

Governments should:

- 6.1.1 introduce the necessary policy and legislation for the regulation of pesticides, their marketing and use throughout their life cycle, and make provisions for its effective coordination and enforcement, including the establishment of appropriate educational, advisory, extension and health-care services, using as a basis FAO and WHO guidelines and, where applicable, the provisions of relevant legally binding instruments. In so doing, governments should take full account of factors such as local needs, social and economic conditions, levels of literacy, climatic conditions, availability and affordability of appropriate pesticide application and personal protective equipment;
- 6.1.2 as recommended by the International Partnership for Cooperation on Child Labour in Agriculture introduce legislation to prevent the use of pesticides by and sale of pesticides to children. The use of pesticides by children in a work situation should be included in National Hazardous Work Lists for children under ILO Convention No. 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour in countries which have ratified it;
- 6.1.3 approve and implement legislation to regulate the advertising of pesticides in all media to ensure that it is in line with the conditions of registration as regards label directions and precautions, particularly those relating to proper maintenance and use of application equipment, appropriate personal protective equipment, special precautions for vulnerable groups and the dangers of reusing containers

Pesticide industry should:

- 5.2.4.6 (make every reasonable effort to reduce risks posed by pesticides by) using containers that are not attractive to or easily opened by children, particularly for domestic use products;
- 11.2.12 ensure that advertisements do not contain any visual representation of potentially dangerous practices, such as mixing or application without sufficient protective clothing, use near food or use by or in the vicinity of children.

Tripartite Declaration of Principles concerning Multinational Enterprises and Social Policy, adopted by the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, 2006

Employment promotion

[...]

13. With a view to stimulating economic growth and development, raising living standards, meeting manpower requirements and overcoming unemployment and underemployment, governments should declare and pursue, as a major goal, an active policy designed to promote full, productive and freely chosen employment.
14. This is particularly important in the case of host country governments in developing areas of the world where the problems of unemployment and underemployment are at their most serious. In this connection, the general conclusions adopted by the Tripartite World Conference on Employment, Income Distribution and Social Progress and the International Division of Labour (Geneva, June 1976), and the Global Employment Agenda (Geneva, March 2003) should be kept in mind.
15. Paragraphs 13 and 14 above establish the framework within which due attention should be paid, in both home and host countries, to the employment impact of multinational enterprises.

(continued)

16. Multinational enterprises, particularly when operating in developing countries, should endeavour to increase employment opportunities and standards, taking into account the employment policies and objectives of the governments, as well as security of employment and the long-term development of the enterprise. [...]
18. Multinational enterprises should give priority to the employment, occupational development, promotion and advancement of nationals of the host country at all levels in cooperation, as appropriate, with representatives of the workers employed by them or of the organizations of these workers and governmental authorities.
19. Multinational enterprises, when investing in developing countries, should have regard to the importance of using technologies which generate employment, both directly and indirectly. [...]
20. To promote employment in developing countries, in the context of an expanding world economy, multinational enterprises, wherever practicable, should give consideration to the conclusion of contracts with national enterprises for the manufacture of parts and equipment, to the use of local raw materials and to the progressive promotion of the local processing of raw materials. [...]

Equality of opportunity and treatment

21. All governments should pursue policies designed to promote equality of opportunity and treatment in employment, with a view to eliminating any discrimination based on race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction or social origin. [...]

Security of employment

[...]

25. Multinational enterprises equally with national enterprises, through active manpower planning, should endeavour to provide stable employment for their employees and should observe freely negotiated obligations concerning employment stability and social security. [...]

Training

29. Governments, in cooperation with all the parties concerned, should develop national policies for vocational training and guidance, closely linked with employment. This is the framework within which multinational enterprises should pursue their training policies.
30. In their operations, multinational enterprises should ensure that relevant training is provided for all levels of their employees in the host country, as appropriate, to meet the needs of the enterprise as well as the development policies of the country. Such training should, to the extent possible, develop generally useful skills and promote career opportunities. This responsibility should be carried out, where appropriate, in cooperation with the authorities of the country, employers' and workers' organizations and the competent local, national or international institutions.
31. Multinational enterprises operating in developing countries should participate, along with national enterprises, in programmes, including special funds, encouraged by host governments and supported by employers' and workers' organizations. These programmes should have the aim of encouraging skill formation and development as well as providing vocational guidance, and should be jointly administered by the parties that support them. Wherever practicable, multinational enterprises should make the services of skilled resource personnel available to help in training programmes organized by governments as part of a contribution to national development.[...]

Wages, benefits and conditions of work

33. Wages, benefits and conditions of work offered by multinational enterprises should be not less favourable to the workers than those offered by comparable employers in the country concerned.
34. When multinational enterprises operate in developing countries, where comparable employers may not exist, they should provide the best possible wages, benefits and conditions of work, within the framework of government policies. These should be related to the economic position of the enterprise, but should be at least adequate to satisfy basic needs of the workers and their families. [...]
35. Governments, especially in developing countries, should endeavour to adopt suitable measures to ensure that lower income groups and less developed areas benefit as much as possible from the activities of multinational enterprises.

Minimum age

36. Multinational enterprises, as well as national enterprises, should respect the minimum age for admission to employment or work in order to secure the effective abolition of child labour and should take immediate and effective measures within their own competence to secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour as a matter of urgency.

Safety and health

37. Governments should ensure that both multinational and national enterprises provide adequate safety and health standards for their employees. [...]

38. Multinational enterprises should maintain the highest standards of safety and health, in conformity with national requirements, bearing in mind their relevant experience within the enterprise as a whole, including any knowledge of special hazards. [...]

See also sections on: Freedom of association and the right to organize, Collective bargaining, Consultation, Examination of grievances, Settlement of industrial disputes.

Other relevant voluntary instruments

Voluntary Guidelines to Support the Progressive Realization of the Right to Adequate Food in the Context of National Food Security (FAO Council, 2004)

ILO Code of practice on safety and health in forestry work (1998)

ILO Guidelines for labour inspection in forestry (2005)

ILO Guidelines for port State control officers carrying out inspections under the Work in Fishing Convention 2007, No. 188 (2011)

FAO Technical Guidelines on Aquaculture Certification (COFI, 2011)

FAO, the Model Code of Forest Harvesting Practices (1996)

FAO, the Code of Practice for Forest Harvesting in Asia-Pacific (1999)

FAO, the Regional Code of Practice for Reduced-Impact Forest Harvesting in Tropical Moist Forests of West and Central Africa (2003)

FAO/ILO/IMO, Code of Safety for Fishermen and Fishing Vessels, Parts A and B (revised 2005)

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

Annex 2

DRE-relevant *ex ante* impact assessments

Purpose

Assessing the expected employment impacts of a policy, strategy or programme can be part of broader socio-economic impact analysis. Such analyses are typically conducted *ex ante*, to predict the impacts before a policy or programme is implemented, thereby generating evidence to inform policy dialogue and decision-making.

Process

The first step of an impact assessment is a qualitative analysis of the likely impacts of an intervention. If such analysis highlights the possibility of significant employment impacts, a more detailed analysis is needed, choosing between qualitative and/or quantitative approaches and mixed methods, depending on the possibility of quantifying the impacts and the availability of data.

If data do not exist or quantification is complex, then available options are:

- a. Pursue qualitative analysis, such as interviews, focus groups and case studies.
- b. Collect new quantitative data through tailor-made surveys. However, surveys are costly and can only monitor developments over time if regular updates are carried out.

DRE-guiding questions to include in an *ex ante* impact assessment

1. **Employment and enterprise creation, and labour market:** Does the intervention facilitate job and enterprise creation in rural areas? In which sectors? Does it lead directly to job losses? Can these job losses be compensated by other interventions under the programme or in related programmes? (e.g. Mechanization could lead to reduced work burden of women, but also job losses, which could be compensated through services provision of mechanized inputs.) Does it have negative consequences for particular groups of rural wage workers or self-employed? Does it affect particular age groups (e.g. youth, elderly)? Does it affect rural women more than or in a different way from men? Does it affect the demand for labour? Does it have an impact on the functioning of the rural labour market? (e.g. A policy can affect the functioning of the labour market by favouring concentration and therefore creating obstacles for small-scale producers and micro and small enterprises to compete.)
2. **Standards and rights related to job quality:** Does the intervention have an impact on the quality of rural jobs? Does it lead to an improvement or worsening of working conditions in rural areas and the agricultural sector in particular (including for agricultural producers)? Does it lead to an increase or reduction in child labour? Does it affect the access of rural workers or job seekers to vocational or continuous training? Will it affect workers' health, safety and dignity? Does the intervention affect workers' and employers' existing rights and obligations, in particular with regard to information and consultation, protection against dismissal and social security? Does it affect the protection of women and young people at work?

3. **Social inclusion and protection:** Does the intervention affect access to the labour market or transitions into/out of the labour market? Does it lead directly or indirectly to greater equality/inequality at work (e.g. by affecting costs of important services such as child care, health, training and education)? Does the intervention affect specific groups of individuals, enterprises, localities, the most vulnerable, the most at risk of poverty and decent work deficits, more than others?
4. **Gender equality, equal treatment and opportunities, non-discrimination:** Does the intervention guarantee equal treatment and equal opportunities for all? Does the intervention entail any different treatment of groups or individuals on the grounds of, for example, racial, ethnic or social origin, religion or belief, sex, age or sexual orientation? Does the intervention have a different impact on women and men? Does the intervention promote equality between women and men in accessing jobs?
5. **Youth inclusion:** Does the intervention affect the access of youth to the labour market and their engagement in the agricultural sector in particular? Does the intervention promote youth-friendly opportunities for jobs, training and entrepreneurship? Does it affect the protection of young people, and especially young women, at work?

Sources of information

organizations such as FAO, ILO, WB and OECD provide major sources of comparative data on agriculture and DRE at international/global level. However, there are significant data constraints concerning rural areas and informal settings, in particular:

- **Employment and labour market.** These effects are relatively easy to measure and data are made available through labour force surveys (LFS) and living standards measurement studies (LSMS). Nevertheless, availability depends on countries and tends to decrease at lower levels of disaggregation, for rural areas in particular and for specific age and sex groups.
- **Standards and rights related to job quality.** The ILO NORMLEX presents recent data on the application of international labour standards by countries, while the ILO NATLEX country profiles database provides information on national labour law. The ILO Decent Work Country Programmes (DWCP) can also provide useful insights into the current situation of labour standards in a given country. For rural areas, however, data tend to be scanty.
- **Social inclusion and protection.** This can be a difficult area owing to the multidimensional nature of both concepts. LFS, LSMS and HBS are the main sources of information.
- **Gender equality, equal treatment and opportunities, non-discrimination.** Official data sources often provide a breakdown by sex and age of main indicators (e.g. unemployment, education and poverty). Other data are more difficult to find (e.g. time use, access to productive resources, training or rural services).
- **Youth inclusion.** With the exception of main indicators, such as youth unemployment and underemployment rates, data are often scarce – especially for rural areas – and rarely disaggregated by sex or age.

If possible, disaggregate data and information by sex and main age groups (e.g. children 5–17; youth 15–24 and/or 15–35; adults 18–60; elderly \geq 61). More details on available data and information on DRE are available in Annex 3.

Resources on more complex approaches for *ex ante* impact assessment (e.g. for large-scale sectoral programmes)

Complex tools for *ex ante* impact assessment have been developed by various organizations. The choice of tool depends on the main requirements and focus of the assessment; in all cases, it must be tailored to the context.

- ILO Employment impacts using the Social Accounting Matrix (SAM). The case of Indonesia and Mozambique.
- ILO. 2013. Methodologies for assessing green jobs. Policy brief.
- OECD Poverty impact analysis (PIA):
 - PIA Matrix on Transmission channels and overall results by channel.
 - PIA Case Study Ghana. African Cashew initiative. 2010.
- World Bank website on Poverty and Social Impact Analysis (PSIA).
- World Bank, Integrating a child and youth focus into Poverty and Social Impact Analysis (PSIA):
 - Key Questions for Child-Focused PSIA.
 - Key Questions for Youth-Focused PSIA.
- Ecorys. 2010. Review of Methodologies applied for the assessment of employment and social impacts.
- OECD. 2007. Practical guide to ex ante poverty impact assessment.
- Crissman, C.C., Abernethy, K., Delaporte, A. & Timmers, B. 2013. A Practical Guide for Ex-ante Impact Evaluation in Fisheries and Aquaculture.
- UNDP. 2012. Human development impact assessment of trade policy: A Toolkit.

Annex 3

Gathering data and information on DRE

Most common national sources of quantitative information (data) on labour: integrated multi-topic household surveys (e.g. LSMS, Family Life Surveys [FLS]); agricultural censuses and surveys; national LFS; economic (establishment or business) census; and business (establishment or enterprise) surveys.⁶²

Most commonly used methods or sources of qualitative information: key informant interviews; participatory action planning; beneficiary and participatory assessments, including community interviews; participant observation; focus group discussions; rapid appraisals; value chain analysis; life history interviews; and case studies.

To strengthen the measurement of the intervention performance, two different strategies are recommended:

- **First, combine the collection of primary data** (data collected by your agency for the first time) **with the analysis of secondary data** (i.e. pertinent DRE data already collected by national institutions or development partners such as global datasets). The most comprehensive global datasets on DRE, agricultural development and food security are ILO, WB, UNESCO, OECD and FAO databases. **For a list of main global datasets, see Table A.**
- **Second, combine quantitative and qualitative methods** (mixed methods approach) to better understand needs and behaviours of the target population and gain complementary information on how to interpret quantitative data. In particular, qualitative methods can give insights on perceptions, intra-household inequalities, poor people's priorities for action and rationale, gender roles and traditional beliefs, political and social factors determining poverty, such as trust, social capital, corruption and conflict. Note the usefulness of qualitative methods to involve key stakeholders in the monitoring process and carry out action-oriented research. Whenever possible, it is important to guarantee coherence between qualitative and quantitative analysis (e.g. designing qualitative case studies by using subsamples of larger surveys; following formal sampling and data recording procedures that allow for systematic analysis and replicability of qualitative results).

Disaggregate information by sex and main age groups. Differences in productivity, payment and employment status in rural areas are highly influenced by sex and age. In particular, women and youth are often discriminated in accessing productive resources, markets, training, information and extension services, resulting in negative impacts on their productivity and employment status. In most regions, women and youth are more represented among contributing family workers, subsistence farmers and in the informal economy. Data and information disaggregated by sex and main age groups, therefore, play a major role in the strategic planning of agricultural interventions that aim to improve rural inclusive growth and agricultural productivity.

⁶² Other important surveys including labour and employment data are: demographic and health surveys (DHS); multiple indicator cluster surveys (MICS); migration and remittances surveys; Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour (SIMPOC); and rapid monitoring and satisfaction surveys (used to measure whether or not public services and development programmes are reaching the poor and benefiting them, and to monitor selected indicators).

This annex provides more detailed information and guidance on the following topics:

- Main global databases of DRE-related data (Table A)
- Main country-level sources of DRE-relevant statistical data, including scope, limitations and advantages (Table B)
- Most commonly used qualitative methods for analysis⁶³ (Table C)
- Main technical requirements for DRE-related surveys (Table D)

Table A. Main global databases of DRE-related data

Name	DRE-relevant data and information	Link
ILOSTAT	Population, labour force, employment, unemployment, persons outside the labour force, youth, working time, earnings and employment-related income, labour cost, occupational injuries, trade unions and collective bargaining, strikes and lockouts, working poor, labour inspection	http://www.ilo.org/ilostat/faces/home/statisticaldata?_adf.ctrl-state=f9mjohg1q_213&clean=true&afrLoop=1115997160698824
NORMLEX and NATLEX	The application of ILS Information on national labour law by countries and themes	http://www.ilo.org/dyn/natlex/natlex_browse.home
FAOSTAT	Rural population, food security, production	http://faostat3.fao.org/faostat-gateway/go/to/home/E
WB Data	Rural population, employment in agriculture, vulnerable employment, labour force, labour force participation rate, unemployment, long-term unemployment, children in employment, employees in agriculture, poverty gap at rural poverty line, share of women employed in non-agricultural sector	http://data.worldbank.org/
ASPIRE: The Atlas of Social Protection	Coverage, benefit incidence and adequacy of social assistance, social insurance and labour market programmes based on nationally representative household survey data	http://datatopics.worldbank.org/aspire/
UIS.Stat	Rural population, youth literacy rate (15–24), net enrolment rate, out-of-school children of primary school age – no disaggregation by residence (rural/urban), only by sex	http://data.uis.unesco.org/
UCW Child Labour Indicators	Child involvement in economic activity, type of child economic activity, intensity of child economic activity, child activity and household income, child labour	http://www.ucw-project.org/Pages/ChildLabIndicator.aspx
youthSTATS	Employment-to-population rate, unemployment-to-population rate, school attendance, NEET share in population, informal employment as share of total employment, working hours, wages, sector of employment, educational attainment, working poverty	http://www.youthstatistics.org/
MSME Country Indicators (IFC)	No. of employees, no. of MSMEs, SMEs by sector distribution (agribusiness), micro enterprises by sector distribution (agribusiness)	http://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/Industry_EXT_Content/IFC_External_Corporate_Site/Industries/Financial+Markets/msme+finance/sme+banking/msme-countryindicators
OECD Online Employment database	Labour costs, earnings, employment protection, labour force, working hours, trade union	http://stats.oecd.org/index.aspx?queryid=36324
World Population Prospects (UN DESA)	Population and migration data	http://esa.un.org/wpp/index.htm

63 Berg, B. 2001. *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*. Boston, Allyn and Bacon. Denzin, N. & Lincoln, Y. 2005. *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, Sage Publications.

Table B. Main country-level sources of DRE-relevant statistical data

Source	Main employment data provided	Limitations	Advantages
Agricultural censuses and surveys	- Information on the agricultural holder (sex, legal status and age), types of crop/livestock and other production activities	Essentially focused on production and land statistics – not all countries collect information on labour and provide tabulations disaggregated by sex and age. ⁶⁵ Data include permanent, seasonal, part-time and casual workers, and agriculture as both a primary and secondary activity – resulting in potential overestimation of farm labour: double-counting where labourers frequently work for more than one holding. Coverage of information is based on agricultural holdings and therefore covers only economic units (agricultural holdings) engaged in crop, livestock and aquaculture production activities. However, there may be cases where countries need to obtain additional agricultural data also from households living in rural areas or whose members are working in the agricultural industry. For child labour specifically, there is a high risk of under-reporting in agricultural censuses if only working-age household members are considered.	Can provide detailed data for small geographic areas, making it an ideal source of baseline data for agricultural activities. Labour-related information for each household member could be obtained by adding specific modules to the main questionnaire ⁶⁶ (Agricultural census: employment-relevant information in supplementary modules – available at http://www.fao.org/docrep/009/a0135e/a0135e05.htm#CH4).
National labour force survey (LFS)	- Labour force participation, employment and unemployment data - Occupation - Earnings - Hours of work	Relatively scarce and/or infrequent (especially in LICs) or not focused on rural areas. Employment based on the main occupation, resulting in potential underestimation where agriculture is a secondary occupation.	The most authoritative source for labour market information, providing good macro-level employment data useful, among other things, for understanding the current national employment trends and developing realistic impact-level indicators.

64 The current World Census of Agriculture (round 2006–15) suggests collecting data on two labour inputs: a) *Labour provided by household (hh) members – q to the hh*: Activity status (for hh members in working age); Employment status for main job (for economically active hh members); Time worked in the main job; Time worked on the holding; b) *Paid workers – q. to the holding*: Number of employees on the holding, time worked and sex; Form of payment for the employees; Use of contractors for work on the holding, by type. Review of agricultural census questionnaires in 2006–15 shows that most censuses collect information only on whether the hh members worked on the holding. Time worked is less frequently collected (always in Europe). Information on the “sex of the hired employees” is frequently collected in Europe, and less in Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean, Asia and the Pacific.

65 The Department of Statistics of ILO collaborated with FAO Statistics Division in the preparation of *Guidelines on employment – Supplement to the Programme for the World Census of Agriculture 2000* and in the review of the chapter on employment for the guidelines for the *World Programme for the Census of Agriculture (WCA 2010)*, including guidelines both for labour questions in the core module and for questions to be covered in the supplementary module on farm labour. The WCA 2010 guidelines recommend including in the core module a series of items relevant for employment purposes, namely: information on the agricultural holder (sex, legal status and age), types of crops/livestock and other production activities. With regard to the supplementary modules, relevant employment-related information can be found under the following themes: agricultural practices; agricultural services; demographic and social characteristics; and farm labour. The approach proposed by FAO for the next round of agricultural censuses (WCA 2020) should enhance the collection of data on agricultural labour, ensuring age and sex disaggregation, and encourage countries to provide greater insight into the roles and responsibilities of men and women in agricultural production. These guidelines are currently being developed, and the final document is expected in late 2015.

Source	Main employment data provided	Limitations	Advantages
	<p>Individuals are considered employed when they have worked at least 1 hour in the previous 7 days.</p> <p>For the example of the 2006 United Republic of Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), see Box 15.</p>	<p>Limited coverage of agricultural/rural labour-related aspects: no income data and limited information about household assets; limited disaggregation by subsector of activity; sampling methods not adequate for agricultural/rural areas.</p> <p>Provide detailed information on the employment of the individual, allowing a good understanding of working conditions. On the other hand, there are few questions related to the household and members outside the labour force.</p>	<p>May be instrumental in measuring employment rates in a control group for an eventual impact assessment (e.g. farmers not targeted by the intervention).</p> <p>The coverage of LFS could be extended to include:⁶⁷ informal sector employment and its characteristics; earnings; hours of work, including time-related underemployment and excessive working hours; stability of employment measured in terms of continuity or discontinuity of employment over a given period of time (e.g. the distinction between regular, seasonal and casual workers); social protection; social dialogue, in particular trade union membership and collective bargaining coverage; labour-related migration patterns and its implications; child labour; and gender dimensions in the labour market.</p> <p>An example of ILFS integrating important DRE aspects is provided in Box 10.</p>
Population census	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Main occupation - Main industry - Employment status (e.g. own-account worker, family worker or employee) 	<p>Low frequency (typically every 10 years).</p> <p>Limited specific agricultural and employment-related information (e.g. only broad occupation and industry groupings). However, in some countries, the census may give more prominence to the agricultural sector, including more details (e.g. industry breakdown into food crops, plantation crops, fisheries, animal husbandry and other agricultural activities).</p>	<p>Usually covers the whole population, nationwide, and provides data that can be disaggregated by different population groups and locations, allowing for comparison. Can serve as a basis for sampling other surveys.</p> <p>On labour, data are usually collected for each economically active person, commonly defined using the current status approach (i.e. using a short reference period, e.g. the 7 days preceding the survey – not suited for measurement of agricultural labour given the seasonality of agricultural work).</p>

67 See ILO International Seminar on the use of National Labour Force Surveys for collecting additional labour-related statistics, Geneva, 2005 (available at <http://www.unescap.org/stat/isie/reference-materials/Data-Collection/Methodology/ILO-International-Seminar-Use-of-National-LFS.pdf>). In the guidelines developed by ILO (2012) for improving the measurement of informal employment, it is acknowledged that time references typically used in standard LFS can be equivocal for rural areas and that more flexible approaches may be needed to obtain sound and relevant responses from respondents in rural areas (available at http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/---emp_policy/documents/publication/wcms_210443.pdf, p. 86).

Source	Main employment data provided	Limitations	Advantages
Household surveys, in particular HBS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Welfare distribution - Income and poverty characteristics. <p>Specific employment surveys are more complete on DRE than demographic and health surveys.</p>	<p>Usually cover only a subset/small fraction of all households.</p> <p>Cover many topics, can be costly and require skilled staff for design, implementation and analysis.</p> <p>Focused on welfare indicators (education, health, consumption) rather than on employment and earnings.</p> <p>Limited understanding of the intra-household distribution of resources, especially of income and consumption.</p>	<p>Widely used in analysis, monitoring and evaluation of quantitative effects of poverty reduction interventions in the medium and long term. Produce solid statistical data.</p> <p>Capture time use, seasonality of employment, short-term employment, incidence of part-time, wage and income employment and proxy measures for informal employment.</p> <p>Link with relevant variables, including sex, age, income, education and food security.</p> <p>Offer insights on informal employment, e.g. the share of contributing family workers in total employed population.</p> <p>Provide data that can be disaggregated to show results for different population groups on both beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries.</p> <p>Subject to their design, can provide data on multiple DRE-relevant topics, including labour, income, education and living conditions.</p>
Integrated multi-topic household surveys (e.g. LSMS, FLS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Labour market participation, wage work, non-farm enterprise activity, and domestic activities within the home - Migration - Household enterprises, income, transfers and expenditures - Health, education - Agriculture and ownership of assets - Access to services and social programmes 	<p>Complex, infrequent, multi-topic – may not enquire sufficiently about certain labour aspects, especially with regard to the quality of employment (e.g. working conditions, child labour, OSH). Sampling methods may be not adequate for agricultural/rural areas.</p> <p>Many countries do not have the financial and human resource capacity to carry them out on a regular basis, and with sufficient scope and coverage, especially in sub-Saharan Africa.</p>	<p>Good as baseline surveys – cover multiple dimensions of household dynamics (e.g. employment and control/use of agricultural assets and financial resources; agricultural and non-agricultural activities). Provide employment and non-employment at multiple levels (individual, household and community).</p> <p>Allow assessment of links between environmental/contextual factors and the employment-related results brought about by the ARD programme.</p> <p>There are efforts to collect comprehensive data on a more continuous basis, in order to build panel datasets comprising modules for agricultural subsectors, such as livestock (e.g. Ethiopia and United Republic of Tanzania LSMS-ISA).⁶⁸</p>

68 The Living Standards Measurement Study Integrated Surveys on Agriculture (LSMS-ISA) project is an initiative funded by the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation and led by the LSMS team in the Development Research Group of the World Bank. The project supports governments to generate nationally representative, household panel data with a strong focus on agriculture and rural development. The LSMS-ISA project supports multiple rounds of a nationally representative panel survey in seven partner countries – Malawi, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda, Nigeria, Niger, Ethiopia and Mali. The multi-topic approach is designed to improve the understanding of the links between agriculture, household socio-economic status, and non-farm income activities *inter alia*. Each survey includes Household, Agriculture and Community questionnaires. Interesting employment-related information in the panel surveys include: labour market participation during the last 7 days, wage work, non-farm enterprise activity, and domestic activities within the home.

Source	Main employment data provided	Limitations	Advantages
Economic (establishment or business) census	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Name and address of economic unit - Type of economic activity - Legal and ownership status May also include limited information on the number of workers engaged, the volume of sales and the value of output.	<p>Large-scale and very costly, so usually collects only basic economic information.</p> <p>Does not usually capture employment outside formal establishments unless small units, household-based and mobile activities are covered.</p>	Beneficial when objectives of the intervention include the creation of new agriculture businesses nationwide (e.g. as a result of large-scale capacity development and technical assistance programmes).
Business (establishment or enterprise) survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Name and address of economic unit - Type of economic activity - Legal and ownership status May also include limited information on the number of workers engaged, wages and salaries, the volume of sales and the value of output.	Does not usually capture employment outside formal establishments unless small units, household-based and mobile activities are covered.	Less expensive than a business census, can yield information on the potential effects of newly created businesses on employment generation (e.g. no. of new employees hired during last year of activity).

Table C. Most commonly used qualitative methods for analysis⁶⁹

Methods	Characteristics
Key informant interview	Interview conducted with opinion leaders or individuals with a privileged understanding of the specific intervention and its DRE effects and/or of the target population targeted.
Participatory action planning	Selected group of stakeholders actively contributes to data collection (rather than treated as research subjects or respondents) – enhances their own learning in the course of data collection and analysis.
Beneficiary and participatory assessments	Local populations describe and analyse their own reality with regard to poverty and well-being. Ranking, mapping, diagramming and scoring methods are used, as well as open interviews and participant observation. The time horizon of participatory assessments is often short.
Participant observation⁷⁰	Researcher takes part in the social phenomenon under study: to understand how things are organized and prioritized, how people interrelate; to recognize the cultural parameters and appreciate what the cultural members deem to be important in manners, leadership, politics, social interaction, taboos; to become known to the cultural members, thereby easing facilitation of the research process. This method may complement other sources of data to increase their validity, giving the researcher a better understanding of the context and phenomenon under study.
Focus group discussion	Usually conducted by a moderator who facilitates the discussion and a note-taker. Discussions last about 1 hour, with a group of 8–10 individuals sharing a common set of characteristics.

69 Berg, B. 2001. *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*. Boston, Allyn and Bacon. Denzin, N. & Lincoln, Y. 2005. *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, Sage Publications.

70 For more information on participant observation: <http://www.qualitative-research.net/index.php/fqs/article/view/466/996>.

Methods	Characteristics
Rapid rural appraisals (RRAs) and participatory rural appraisals (PRAs) ⁷¹	<p>RRA is a bridge between formal surveys and unstructured research methods (e.g. in-depth interviews, focus groups and observation studies). Requires triangulation (using more than one technique/source of information to cross-check answers) to compare and complement information from different sources or gathered in different ways. Involves team (multidisciplinary) members with the ability to approach the same piece of information or the same question from different perspectives.</p> <p>PRA places emphasis on empowering local people to assume an active role in analysing their own living conditions, problems and potentials in order to seek a change in their situation.</p> <p>Quicker observation methods (e.g. direct observation) can be effective early-warning devices and are often used regularly by project monitoring staff, but must be carefully planned (e.g. correctly timed) and supported by observation guidelines. For more information on participatory methods, see http://www.participatorymethods.org/.</p>
Community interviews	Discussion held with a variable number of community members. Occasionally used to complement the household survey. Aims to collect community level data and information.
Life history interviews	In-depth, recovering experiences over long periods. Time-intensive.
Value chain analysis	<p>Particularly relevant for measuring the DRE effects of an intervention.</p> <p>Functional value chain analysis covers the complete range of functional aspects of value chain development (supply, marketing, processing) and maps the actors involved.</p> <p>Social value chain analysis looks at how value chain development affects value chain actors and society. For relevance to DRE, important aspects must be covered: rewards and risks along the chain; poverty issues; working conditions issues; gender-based constraints and inequalities; and the role of youth.</p>
Case studies	In-depth research on a specific issue related to the intervention. Can support the identification of good practices and lessons learned.

Table D. Main technical requirements for DRE-related surveys⁷²

Category	Technical requirements
Sampling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Try to ensure hidden populations are included in nationally representative samples (e.g. seasonal migrants, children at work, people subject to human trafficking, people not residing in “normal” residential units or not part of official household lists at village level). - Adapt sampling to seasonality – data collection should be organized in different rounds in a given year to ensure all relevant activities are captured (e.g. questionnaires can be designed to provide full information on all activities for a 12-month reference period). - To capture a particular issue (wage variation and determinants in agricultural employment) or a particular population (child labour, seasonal migrant labour), sample design must take into account the challenges of finding relevant respondents (especially for “hidden populations”) in the absence of adequate sample frames. Note that sampling may be based on a residence-based or job-based framework: where significant numbers of workers (especially in agriculture, harvesting) are resident in urban areas and work seasonally in agriculture, a job-based framework may be more suitable, or simply a framework where seasonal migrant labour is captured regardless of the “permanent” residence of respondents. - Pre-survey qualitative scoping research and consultation with experts can be useful to discover whether there are important “hidden groups” in a given national context, where they are concentrated and in what kind of residential units they tend to live. Sampling methods may then be adapted to capture them: if there is a sufficiently recent population census, existing official sampling frames could be combined with ad hoc additional lists prepared by fieldworkers for potential respondents who are temporarily in the area (e.g. migrant workers, people without fixed residence) but are not included in official registers.

71 For more information on RRA: <http://www.fao.org/docrep/w3241e/w3241e09.htm> and <http://www.fao.org/docrep/006/w2352e/W2352E03.htm>. For more information on PRA: <http://www.fao.org/docrep/003/x5996e/x5996e06.htm>.

72 Information in the table includes information from: FAO. 2015. ESS Working Paper No. ESS 15-10. [Decent work indicators for agriculture and rural areas conceptual issues, data collection challenges and possible areas for improvement](#).

Category	Technical requirements
Age of respondents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To avoid under-representation of child labour issues, all members from the age of 5 years who contribute to the agricultural holding should participate in the survey (including contributing family work), making a distinction between “under working age” and “working age and above” (usually 15–64). - Given the complexity underlying child-labour-related issues in rural areas, it is recommended to design a dedicated module taking the form of a stand-alone child labour survey.
Status in employment⁷³	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Data collection by usual status (rather than current status). Current status is based on the activity status of individuals over a short reference period (e.g. the 7 days preceding the survey). Although commonly used, this status has limitations when building a reliable frame for the agricultural census. Usual status, on the other hand, is based on the activity status of individuals, depending on their main activity over a long reference period (e.g. “the past 12 months”). A combination of different reference periods (12 months, 30 days and 7 days) applied to the same or different questions may also help reduce bias. By covering day-before time use, respondents may have the opportunity to report non-market activities, especially care responsibilities. This information is particularly relevant for capturing the time burden on rural women, whose involvement in the subsistence and domestic spheres results in significant time constraints when participating in more gainful income-earning activities. - Acknowledge multiple job-holding and diversification of income-generating activities. A significant share of workers combine more than one job. Collect detailed information on type of activities, time allocated and income derived – with regard to the usual activity, main economic activities and other economic activities. A “second” economic activity may constitute the main source of income, especially for rural households, considering seasonal variations. Full enumeration of all relevant economic activities in the past 12 months is therefore desirable, whether in the form of self-employment or wage employment or other employment status categories. An employment matrix could be developed to include a checklist of all context-relevant activities in which the individual has participated, as well as information on duration and frequency of each activity, their seasonal pattern, the location and whether they performed the activity accompanied by a child or not. - Distinguish between self-employment, wage employment and contributing family work (or unpaid employment). The distinction should be based on: a) ownership of the means of production (e.g. the self-employed own their means of production, while wage workers and contributing family workers do not); and b) the form of payment (e.g. wage workers receive a [negotiated] compensation, while contributing family workers do not). A classification based purely on industries or occupations is not sufficient. Rather than using a single set of standard questions for each status, separate modules can be prepared to collect relevant information in each case (e.g. own-account farming, wage employment in agriculture, own-account non-agricultural business, wage employment in non-agricultural activities, and questions specific to contributing family workers). - Gather detailed information on farm budgets to obtain a more accurate measurement of returns to labour in family activities. This should entail a detailed farm budget module. - In TASCO and ISCO classifications, include industrial and occupational classification to the third digit, in addition to details on specific activities and time use, in order to capture differences between subsistence farming and commercial/market-oriented farming. - Consider women’s reproductive work. Surveys often capture time dedicated to cooking and fuel collection, but this remains too limited. Take into account time dedicated to care work (children, elderly, sick etc.) and other domestic chores – in short, do not exclude unpaid care, domestic and community work.

73 The guidelines in the 2010 World Programme on Population and Housing Censuses (UNSD, 2008) recommend collection of the following items on labour (based on ILO Recommendations): i) Main occupation; ii) Industry of main occupation; iii) Employment status in main occupation. The data are collected for each economically active person, defined in terms of either current status or usual status. The current status is based on the activity status of individuals over a short reference period (e.g. the 7 days preceding the survey). Although commonly used, this status has limited use for building a reliable frame for the agricultural census because of the seasonality of agricultural activities. The usual status is based on the activity status of individuals, based on their main activity over a long reference period. The occupation of main job and industry of main job can be used to identify persons in agricultural occupations and industries, based on national occupation and industry classifications.

Category	Technical requirements
Timing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Account for seasonality of agricultural production. The demand for labour in agriculture (unlike in manufacturing and services) may sharply increase in some seasons and decrease in others. The pattern of demand in agriculture strongly depends on the climatic conditions and seasonal requirements for harvest. - Survey results tend to provide a proxy of the situation in an average week in a particular season (or year). However, the reference week might not be representative of the season – weeks within a season are unlikely to be similar with regard to employment. Yet, if it is assumed that the “reference week” is representative of the whole year (four seasons), results may be even more biased. In this context, it is important to establish the highest periodicity of data collection throughout the year (although increased frequency is often associated with a higher survey cost). Thus, continuous, monthly or quarterly data collection is preferable to semi-annual or annual data collection. - Alternatively, select a representative month or quarter that represents an average in terms of employment in the economy. If the economy has a large agricultural sector and high employment in this sector, a representative month or quarter will naturally focus on a point during the year when employment in this sector is average (i.e. not a peak and not a trough).
Selection and training of interviewers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Employ trained data collection teams with awareness of the multiple dimensions of employment (e.g. nuances of distinctions between self-employment and wage employment); understanding of the particularities of remuneration methods for different occupations; and familiarity with the difficult socio-economic contexts of work, avoiding all stigmatizing language (e.g. in relation to class, caste, or low-status employment activities). - Plan for in-depth training on key concepts and indicators, and guarantee close and sustained supervision in the field, especially in the early stages.
Processing of data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Disaggregate by: location (rural, urban); age and sex; population income quintiles; employment status (self-employed, contributing family worker, waged/salaried worker, unemployed); education; and place of residence (rural, urban). - Note that reliability of estimates on gender, age and other variables depends to a large extent on adequate sample size (including a correspondingly sufficient sample size disaggregated by sex, age etc.).


Annex 4

Annotated list of possible DRE indicators for agricultural development interventions

Decent Rural Employment (DRE) Area of Intervention 1

Creation or upgrading of employment and entrepreneurship opportunities for rural people

Indicators	Technical notes	Means of verification
Long-term outcome or impact indicators (≥ 5 years)		
▼ Working poverty rate in rural areas	<p>Measures the impact of the intervention on reducing rural poverty through decent work.</p> <p>Provides the percentage of employed persons living in (rural) poor households in total employed population. Households are defined as poor when personal consumption expenditure or income is below a specified threshold, referred to as the “poverty line”.</p> <p>Disaggregate available data by sex and age (adults/youth) and establish respective targets.</p> <p>An alternative indicator is:</p> <p>▼ Rural Poverty Rate (refers to the rural population living below the rural poverty line)</p> <p>Disaggregate data by sex and age (adults/youth) and by income quintiles or quintiles of country farm size distribution.</p>	<p>Household surveys with variables that provide information on the poverty status of households and the economic activity of household members are a good source of information.</p> <p>Household surveys collecting the above-mentioned variables take the form of household income and expenditure surveys (HIES), living standards measurement studies (LSMS) with employment modules, or labour force surveys (LFS) with a specific section on household income.</p> <div style="border: 1px solid orange; border-radius: 10px; padding: 10px; background-color: #fff9c4;"> <p> Given the lack of available data on income, a dedicated impact evaluation on the income and assets of the intervention beneficiaries may be useful for large-scale agricultural programmes to measure changes in earnings for rural workers. The survey should cover both self-employed and wage workers, workers in agricultural subsectors and workers in other rural occupations related to agriculture. It should also consider farm-income volatility.</p> </div>
▲ Value of agricultural production per hectare/labour unit	<p>Measures the contribution of the intervention to farm productivity (a proxy for farmers' income growth).</p> <p>Value of agricultural production “per hectare” (measured in constant USD/ha) measures productivity as agricultural production per unit of land, while value of agricultural production “per labour unit” (measured in constant USD/unit of labour) measures farm labour productivity (a proxy for farm incomes).</p> <p>While smaller farms tend to achieve higher yields per hectare than larger farms, they produce less per worker. Increased labour productivity is a precondition for sustained income growth; it is therefore essential to enable farming families in low- and middle-income countries to increase labour productivity, thus boosting farm incomes and making inroads into reducing rural poverty.</p>	<p>LSMS, household surveys</p> <p>Agriculture, value added per worker is generally derived from the system of national accounts.</p> <p>The world development indicators (WDI) of the World Bank constitute the main data source for this indicator.</p>


Indicators	Technical notes	Means of verification
	<p>Moreover, although smaller farms tend to have higher yields than larger farms in the same country, cross-country comparisons show that yields per hectare tend to be much lower in poorer countries than in richer countries and far lower than they could be if existing technologies and management practices were appropriately adapted and more widely adopted in low-income countries. Measuring productivity is therefore extremely important.</p> <p>It is even more interesting to measure performance for the two lowest quintiles of countries' farm size distributions, thus of relatively small-scale producers. Data are currently available for about 80 countries by LSMS conducted by the World Bank, but also other household surveys.⁷⁴ Owing to data constraints, sex disaggregation is limited to data on female-headed smallholder households (this would exclude data for women not recognized as household heads). Age disaggregation should also be possible.</p> <p>An alternative indicator is:</p> <p>▲ Agriculture value added per worker, which is a measure of agricultural productivity.</p> <p>Value added in agriculture measures the output of the agricultural sector (ISIC divisions 1–5) minus the value of intermediate inputs. Agriculture comprises value added from forestry, hunting and fishing as well as cultivation of crops and livestock production.</p>	
▲ Average real wages in agriculture	<p>Gives information on the well-being of the working population in the agricultural sector, albeit limited to wage income and employees.</p> <p>Real wages are defined as the goods and services that can be purchased with wages or are provided as wages. They are calculated by dividing nominal monthly wages by the consumer price index (CPI).</p> <p>Minimum wages tend to be low or non-existent for agricultural workers. Improving agricultural wages (often lower than in other industries) can also empower small farmers. Many small farmers regularly work on a farm or plantation for part of the year to supplement their meagre incomes and are indeed wage-dependent.⁷⁵</p> <p>Disaggregate data by sex, age, status in employment and economic activity (including by subsectors where possible).</p> <p>An additional indicator is:</p> <p>▼ Low pay rate (LPR) (below minimum living wage)</p> <p>The LPR is a relative measure, which depends on the distribution of earnings in a country. A decrease typically signals an improvement in the living conditions of workers at the bottom end of the wage distribution. As a measure of “relative” low pay, this indicator complements the “absolute” measure provided by the working poverty rate. The cut-off point of two-thirds of the median hourly earnings used for the LPR may be unrealistic for developing countries, as in many of these countries this value would be below the absolute subsistence minimum. In such circumstances, it may be advisable to use the minimum living wage as the cut-off point.</p>	<p>Main repository ILOSTAT</p> <p>LFS, establishment surveys or other household surveys with a dedicated module including data on earnings</p> <div data-bbox="1082 1137 1401 1547" style="border: 1px solid orange; border-radius: 15px; padding: 10px; background-color: #fff9c4;"> <p> Complement with a dedicated survey (or part of a dedicated survey on DRE) and by qualitative analysis to understand the situation of the different categories of wage workers in agriculture (including casual workers) and the changed induced by the programme. Indigenous and migrant workers in particular are often disadvantaged in terms of pay, social protection, housing and medical protection.</p> </div>

74 FAO. 2014. Targets and Indicators for the Post-2015 Development Agenda and the Sustainable Development Goals, p. 11 (available at http://www.fao.org/fileadmin/user_upload/post-2015/FAO_TI_14_themes_24_06_2014.pdf).



75 ILO, FAO, IUF. 2007. *Agricultural workers and their contribution to sustainable agriculture and rural development*. Geneva.

Indicators	Technical notes	Means of verification
<p>▲ Youth employment in rural areas (formal and informal)</p>	<p>Measures the impact of the intervention on improving the access of youth to employment.</p> <p>The youth employment rate is the percentage of the youth labour force that is employed. Young people are defined as aged 15–24 years. The labour force comprises all persons in this age group currently available for work and actively seeking work, and the sum of those that are employed and unemployed.</p> <p>To the extent possible, the youth employment rate should be reported separately for formal and informal employment.⁷⁶ The latter is of particular importance in developing countries where most of the labour force is employed in the informal sector.</p> <p>An alternative indicator is:</p> <p>▼ Underemployment – potentially more relevant for rural areas</p> <p>Unemployment in rural areas is generally lower than in urban areas – rural people cannot afford to stay in unemployment because they are too poor. In addition, rural areas do not usually have social protection mechanisms to protect people during adverse labour market situations. As results, rural people may accept jobs with marginal productivity close to zero (if not negative) and which provide poor working conditions and do not entail decent wages. Countries with low levels of labour productivity in agriculture tend to have low wages and a high share of employment in subsistence agriculture. This may result in an extremely high employment-to-population ratio (as people cannot afford to stay in education) as well as in a high number of unskilled working poor, for the most part “informal”. An indicator of underemployment could complement the unemployment rate, as it captures the underutilization of the working capacity of the employed population and inadequate earnings. It allows to implicitly measure the proportion of the employed population who: 1) is willing to work additional hours to increase its wage; 2) wants to find another job or increase the number of hours; or 3) a combination of 1 and 2. This indicator can therefore flag a decent work deficit as a difference with a more desirable employment condition.</p>	<p>LFS and, for underemployment, HIES and LSMS with employment modules</p>
<p>▼ Share of rural women working as contributing family workers (in agriculture, in total contributing family workers)</p>	<p>Provides the proportion of rural women working as contributing family workers in total contributing family workers (a proxy for gender inequalities related to vulnerable employment).</p> <p>The higher the share, the more gender bias requires tackling.</p> <p>Contributing family workers (formerly referred to as unpaid family workers) are categorized according to the International Classification by Status in Employment (ICSE-93). The stock of contributing family workers is larger in agriculture than in any other sector. They are “workers who hold a ‘self-employment’ job in a market-oriented establishment operated by a related person living in the same household, who cannot be regarded as partners, because their degree of commitment to the operation of the establishment, in terms of working time or other key factors, is not at a comparable level to that of the head of the establishment”. Clearly, their status in employment may place them at a higher degree of economic risk than other employed persons.</p>	<p>LFS (preferred data source), HIES (alternative)</p>

76 The 17th International Conference of Labour Statisticians recommends that informal employment should include: i) own-account workers (self-employed with no employees) in their own informal sector enterprises; ii) employers (self-employed with employees) in their own informal sector enterprises; iii) contributing family workers, irrespective of type of enterprise; iv) members of informal producers’ cooperatives (not established as legal entities); v) employees holding informal jobs as defined according to the employment relationship (in law or in practice, jobs not subject to national labour legislation, income taxation, social protection or entitlement to certain employment benefits – paid annual or sick leave etc.); and vi) own-account workers engaged in production of goods exclusively for final use by their household.

Indicators	Technical notes	Means of verification
	In all regions, more women than men work as contributing family workers. ⁷⁷ Although contributing family workers are not necessarily worse off than, for example, own-account workers, the working conditions of the former are dependent on power relations within the family. The high share of female contributing family workers therefore places women in a subordinate and more vulnerable position, given that businesses are run by men.	
▼ Average age of small-scale producers and MSME owners	<p>Measures the rejuvenation of the agricultural sector.</p> <p>To face the challenge of the ageing farmer population, it is necessary to improve the attractiveness and productivity of the sector. Current trends indicate that, owing to the lack of incentives and the drudgery of rural life, youth are increasingly turning their backs on agriculture and rural areas as a whole.</p>	LSMS, household surveys, agricultural surveys
Medium-term outcome indicators (2–5 years)		
▲ No. of (registered) MSMEs in rural areas	<p>Measures the change in capacity of the private sector to create employment opportunities in rural areas.</p> <p>The fact that an enterprise is registered implies additional guarantees for workers in terms of standards and rights at work.</p> <p>If available, consider specific clusters of activities related to agriculture to measure more specifically the effect of the ARD intervention (e.g. manufacture of food products/agricultural inputs outlets).</p> <p>If data are available – or if a dedicated survey is conducted – disaggregate by sex and age (adults/youth) of the owner/manager and establish respective targets.</p>	MSME/economic census/ surveys, administrative records + intervention-specific surveys
▲ Share of MSMEs supported by the intervention still operating or grown after 3 years	<p>Measures the impact of the intervention on sustainably supporting enterprise development in rural areas.</p> <p>The creation of micro and small enterprises, formal and informal, is an important driver for job creation in rural areas and especially for youth. However, a high level of job destruction by failing enterprises may be observed, as well as very little contribution to employment through post-entry expansion. This suggests that micro and small enterprises either fail or remain small. To foster job creation, governments must focus on removing the barriers that are specific to micro and small enterprises and on supporting their growth into productive firms.</p> <p>Growth may be measured in terms of increased value of activities.</p> <p>Disaggregate available data by sex and age (adults/youth) of the owner/manager.</p>	Programme-specific survey framed on the basis of MSME or economic census and surveys and administrative records
▲ No. of new decent rural jobs directly or indirectly resulting from the intervention	<p>Measures the contribution of the intervention to creating decent jobs, directly and indirectly, through the activities initiated by the programme or through support to private sector development.</p> <p>It requires a specific survey and could be used as a DRE-relevant impact evaluation criterion associated with impact on income and assets.</p> <p>To qualify jobs as decent, it is important to adopt a contextualized definition. This could be inspired by the applied definition of decent rural employment proposed in Box 1 of this guidance document.</p> <p>Disaggregate data and information by sex and age (adults/youth) and employment status (dependent and self-employed), and establish respective targets.</p>	<p>Programme-specific household (employment) survey</p> <div style="border: 1px solid orange; border-radius: 15px; padding: 10px; background-color: #fff9c4; margin-top: 10px;">  Complement with qualitative analysis to understand perceptions, intra-household distribution of labour, trends in type of contracts and wages etc. </div>

⁷⁷ According to the ILO definition, vulnerable employment captures contributing family workers and own-account workers. The vulnerable employment rate is one of the indicators used to monitor the target on decent work under the first Millennium Development Goal. In all regions, the share of own-account workers in total employment is higher for men than for women, whereas the opposite is the case for the share of contributing family-workers. See: ILO. 2012. *Global employment trends for women*. Geneva.


Indicators	Technical notes	Means of verification
▲ Share of small-scale producers engaged in sustainable collective marketing agreements or other inclusive business models	<p>Measures the impact of the intervention in fostering the inclusion of small-scale producers into local, national or global value chains.</p> <p>By engaging in sustainable collective marketing agreements (e.g. sustainable contract farming) or other inclusive business models, producers are less isolated and therefore more likely to get support, participate in social dialogue, gain bargaining power etc.</p>	<p>Programme-specific household (employment) or community survey</p> <div style="border: 1px solid orange; border-radius: 15px; padding: 10px; background-color: #fff9c4; margin-top: 10px;">  Complement with qualitative analysis to understand perceptions about group cooperation, role of women and men, adult and youth respectively in POs etc. </div>
Short-term outcome indicators (1–2 years)		
▲ No. of MSMEs established under the intervention	<p>Measures the effect of the intervention on fostering entrepreneurship in rural areas.</p> <p>Disaggregate data and information by sex and age (adults/youth), and by subsector and establish respective targets. Data could also be disaggregated by registered/non-registered businesses, and employment per unit.</p>	<p>Programme-specific survey / programme records</p> <div style="border: 1px solid orange; border-radius: 15px; padding: 10px; background-color: #fff9c4; margin-top: 10px;">  Complement with qualitative analysis of perception levels of the “ease of doing business” along the value chains (e.g. for young entrepreneurs). </div>
▲ Share of small-scale producers supported by the intervention who adopted sustainable agricultural production practices	<p>Measures the effect of the intervention in increasing the commitment and capacities of small-scale producers to adopt more sustainable production practices.</p> <p>It should be adapted to the specific objectives of the intervention that could refer explicitly to good agricultural practices (GAP), organic production etc. This indicator is retained, even if not explicitly on employment, because considered crucial for sustainably improving agricultural productivity and the overall quality of rural employment, including in terms of reducing safety risks.</p> <p>Disaggregate data and information by sex and age (adults/youth) and by subsector, and establish respective targets.</p>	<p>Programme-specific survey / programme records</p>
▲ Share of small-scale producers/MSMEs supported by the intervention who accessed productive resources (e.g. finance, land, inputs, markets)	<p>Measures the effect of the intervention on sustainable improvement of the productivity and economic viability of agricultural and rural jobs, including in terms of employment security in the long term.</p> <p>According to the specific country context and depending on the intervention results chain, the indicator could focus on one specific resource (e.g. land, finance or inputs). However, it is important to remember the importance of integrated interventions.</p> <p>An alternative indicator is:</p> <p>▲ % of small-scale producers/MSMEs accessing productive resources (e.g. finance, land, inputs and markets)</p> <p>Disaggregate available data by sex and age (adults/youth), and establish respective targets.</p>	<p>Programme records + beneficiaries assessment</p>
▲ No. of poor rural people supported by the intervention finding a dependent decent job (waged or salaried) or establishing their own enterprise	<p>Measures the effect of the intervention on increasing the employability of rural people.</p> <p>Adoption of this indicator implies that there are records and contacts of output beneficiaries supported through capacity development and job searching support, and that their situation is monitored.</p> <p>To qualify jobs as “decent”, it is necessary to adopt a contextualized definition (based, for example, on the definition of DRE proposed in proposed in Box 1 of this guidance document).</p> <p>Disaggregate data and information by sex, age (adults/youth), previous employment status (unemployed/self-employed/contributing family worker/casual/seasonal worker, migrant worker) and establish respective targets.</p>	<p>Programme records + beneficiaries assessment</p>

Indicators	Technical notes	Means of verification
Output indicators		
▲ No. of poor unemployed or underemployed rural people supported by the intervention increasing their employment-related skills and employability	<p>Measures the effect of the intervention on increasing the skills of rural people.</p> <p>Establish in advance clear identification of employment-related skills, including training on: gender- and age-sensitive agribusiness; decent work information; TVET; start-your-own-business.</p> <p>Training modalities can also be specified: formal or non-formal (e.g. through farmer field schools/<u>Junior Farmer Field and Life Schools</u>/ extension programmes).</p> <p>Disaggregate data and information by sex, age (adults/youth), employment status (unemployed/self-employed/contributing family worker/casual/seasonal worker, migrant worker) and establish respective targets. Target vulnerable groups specifically or establish a quota to guarantee their participation (e.g. unemployed, migrant workers, landless people, refugees, IDPs, demobilized soldiers, disabled, people living with and affected by HIV and AIDS, indigenous people, and the elderly).</p>	<p>Programme records</p> <div style="border: 1px solid orange; border-radius: 15px; padding: 10px; background-color: #fff9c4; margin-top: 10px;">  Complement with qualitative analysis to evaluate beneficiaries' satisfaction, disaggregated by sex and age. </div>
▲ No. of poor unemployed or underemployed rural people supported in job search by the intervention	<p>Measures the support provided to vulnerable people to access a job.</p> <p>For each target group, disaggregate data and information by gender, age (adults/youth), previous employment status (unemployed/self-employed/contributing family worker/casual/seasonal worker, migrant worker) and establish respective targets. Target vulnerable groups specifically or establish a quota to guarantee their participation (e.g. unemployed, migrant workers, landless people, refugees, IDPs, demobilized soldiers, the disabled, people living with and affected by HIV and AIDS, indigenous people, and the elderly).</p>	Programme records + beneficiary assessments
▲ No. of small-scale producers/POs supported to sustainably increase productivity and commercialize production	<p>Measures provision of services related to sustainable intensification of productivity.</p> <p>According to the specific intervention, it may refer to training on sustainable production intensification, commercialization, value addition, diversification, managerial, marketing, financial management and entrepreneurial skills etc. Other important provisions measured include the level of support to: access finance and land; encourage group cooperation; join inclusive business models; and engage in sustainable contract farming.</p> <p>More information on inclusive value chains is available at http://www.fao.org/ag/ags/ivc/value-chains-home/en/?no_cache=1. More information on contract farming is available at http://www.fao.org/ag/ags/contract-farming/index-cf/en/.</p> <p>In terms of target groups, disaggregate data and information by sex, age (adults/youth), status (household head, contributing family worker, wage/casual/seasonal worker, migrant worker) and establish respective targets. Training should include a component of literacy/ numeracy, if needed, and of entrepreneurship.</p>	Programme records + beneficiary assessments
▲ No. of MSMEs and POs supported in accessing business development services (BDS)	<p>Measures provision of services related to business development.</p> <p>Disaggregate data and information by sex and age (adults/youth), subsector and establish respective targets. Also, data may be disaggregated by registered/non-registered businesses and employment per unit.</p>	Programme records + beneficiary assessments
▲ No. of service providers capacitated to support rural MSMEs	<p>Measures the support to strengthen services related to business development.</p> <p>Adopt a clear definition of minimum requirements to assess capacities, including support to: link agro-enterprises to markets; adopt decent work standards; meet market requirements (e.g. social certification).</p>	Programme records + beneficiary assessments, institution-based surveys


Indicators	Technical notes	Means of verification
▲ No. of PPPs formalized among agricultural value chain stakeholders to foster youth employment creation	<p>Measures the results of the intervention in terms of facilitating formal agreement along the value chain to promote sustainable job creation paths for rural young women and men.</p> <p>The focus is on youth – a priority disadvantaged group from an employment point of view. However, this indicator could be broadened to consider partnerships for employment creation in general, but limited to formal partnerships (e.g. MOUs and partnerships between government authorities and POs as key stakeholders in rural areas).</p>	Programme records based on formal partnerships established
▲ No. of sustainable public work schemes initiated by the intervention	<p>Measures the potential of an agricultural intervention to impact on direct employment creation.</p> <p>Programme activities aimed directly at generation of jobs include: public work schemes; expansion of area under sustainable forest management; climate change adaptation and mitigation activities; and expanding rural infrastructure.</p>	Programme records

Decent Rural Employment (DRE) Area of Intervention 2

Standards and rights at work for rural workers

Indicators	Technical notes	Means of verification
Long-term outcome or impact indicators (≥ 5 years)		
▼ Child labour rate in agriculture	<p>Measures the impact of the intervention on child labour in rural areas.</p> <p>It is calculated as the percentage of child labour (age 5–17) in the agricultural sector, possibly disaggregated by age group (5–12, 13–15, 16–17), sex and agricultural subsector.</p> <p>An additional indicator is:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▼ Percentage of hazardous work by children 5–17, possibly disaggregated by age groups (5–11, 12–14, 15–17), sex and agricultural subsector It is preferable to consider both indicators when possible. <p>Where a national child labour survey has not been conducted recently, a simplified indicator (more easily monitored based on commonly available data) is:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▼ Percentage of working children in the agricultural sector below the minimum age for light work (e.g. 5–11 years)⁷⁸ <p>The agricultural sector engages 60% of all working children. “Working children” means children in employment and it is therefore broader than “child labour” because it includes children who are working only a few hours a week in permitted light work and those above the minimum age whose work is not classified as a worst form of child labour (e.g. because hazardous). However, data on child labour are more rarely available. By referring to working children in the age range 5–11, the indicator refers to children that are certainly child labourers because they are below the minimum age specified for permitted light work. What the suggested indicator does not include is child labour for children in the age range 13–17 (e.g. work that is too demanding or interferes with compulsory education, and hazardous work – one of the worst forms of child labour particularly relevant for the agricultural sector).</p>	<p>Stand-alone national child labour surveys attached to an LFS</p> <p>A repository of child labour surveys and related tools is available in the statistics section of the International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC)</p> <div style="border: 1px solid orange; background-color: #fff9c4; padding: 10px; margin-top: 10px;"> <p> Given the lack of available data on child labour in rural areas/agricultural subsectors, this indicator could be collected through a dedicated survey (or part of a dedicated survey on DRE) and/or complemented by qualitative analysis. A dedicated survey could also look into: the modality of child economic activity (unpaid family worker, wage worker, self-employed, domestic worker, apprentice, other); the intensity of child economic activity (combining or not school and work); and specific topics (e.g. exposure to pesticides during work – a frequent type of hazardous child labour).</p> </div>



⁷⁸ Light work. Children aged 13–15 years may do light work, as long as it does not threaten their health and safety, or hinder their education or vocational orientation and training. Developing countries may substitute the ages 12 and 14 for the ages 13 and 15. See ILO Convention No. 138 on the minimum age for admission to employment and work.

Indicators	Technical notes	Means of verification
▼ Cases of fatal/non-fatal occupational injury in agriculture	<p>Measures the impacts of the preventive measures taken to improve occupational safety and health (OSH) in the agricultural sector.</p> <p>Provides information on the number of fatal and non-fatal occupational injury cases per hours worked by the agricultural population during the reference period.</p> <p>Agriculture is one of the most hazardous sectors and many agricultural workers suffer occupational accidents and ill health every year. Causes include: working with machines, vehicles, tools and animals; exposure to excessive noise and vibration; slips, trips and falls from heights; lifting heavy weights and other work giving rise to musculoskeletal disorders; exposure to dust and other organic substances, chemicals and infectious agents; and other working conditions common to rural environments (e.g. exposure to extreme temperatures, inclement weather and attacks by wild animals).⁷⁹</p>	<p>Main repository ILOSTAT</p> <p>The ILO recommends as preferred sources for data collection labour inspection records and annual reports, insurance and compensation records, death registers – supplemented by household surveys (in particular, to cover informal sector enterprises and the self-employed) and/or establishment surveys.</p> <div data-bbox="1082 629 1401 976" style="border: 1px solid orange; border-radius: 10px; padding: 5px; background-color: #fff9c4;">  <p>Given the lack of available data on injuries and illnesses resulting from work in agriculture (informal sector), this indicator could be complemented by a dedicated survey (or part of a dedicated survey on DRE) and by qualitative analysis. The information collected should adopt gender and age perspectives to identify risks and hazards and suggest preventive measures.</p> </div>
▼ Gender wage gap in agriculture	<p>Measures changes related to the recognized gender inequality in the agricultural sector.</p> <p>It is calculated as the difference between the gross average hourly earnings of male and female employees in agriculture expressed as a percentage of gross average hourly earnings of male employees in agriculture.</p> <p>It can be used as a proxy for gender gaps in earnings from agriculture (not only wage earnings) which are very difficult to find. This partly reflects the fact that calculating labour earnings for self-employment is especially problematic because it requires complex calculations to separate the proportion of total self-employment income (which is what surveys usually report) between labour income and income attributable to returns from other assets. Moreover, under-reporting is a more acute problem for self-employment earnings than for wages.</p> <p>Women are generally paid less than men.⁸⁰ Gender pay gaps are often the result of women lagging behind men in access to land, credit, technologies, information, advisory services and training, and being more frequently in vulnerable employment. Most of the available, but limited, evidence refers to wage work in off-farm or non-farm activities.</p> <p>Differences in daily earnings may reflect gender differences in hours worked as well as differences in remuneration. For this reason, information on hourly wages is usually preferable (but rarely available).</p>	<p>Main repository ILOSTAT</p> <p>LFS or other household surveys with a dedicated module including data on earnings.</p>


79 ILO. 2010. *Code of practice on safety and health in agriculture*. Geneva.

80 FAO, IFAD, ILO. 2010. *Gender dimensions of agricultural and rural employment: Differentiated pathways out of poverty – Status, trends and gaps*.

Indicators	Technical notes	Means of verification
<p>▼ Casual workers in agriculture/ rural sector (% of total employment)</p>	<p>Measures changes related to employment stability and security.</p> <p>It is particularly relevant for the agricultural sector, given that trends indicate increasing casualization of agricultural waged work. Women dominate the category of casual wage workers, also in emerging agricultural industries producing non-traditional agricultural exports. This trend may result in increasing decent work deficits, because casual workers are typically under-protected. Casual labour is often excluded from social security schemes, and even where universal coverage is provided, minimum working periods may be a condition for receiving benefits.</p> <p>The specific criteria for “casual” depend on the context, but it often refers to those employed and paid at the end of each day worked or on a task basis.</p> <p>An additional indicator is:</p> <p>▼ Precarious employment rate in agriculture</p> <p>The precarious employment rate provides information regarding the share of the employed whose contract of employment, whether verbal or written, is of relatively short duration or whose contract can be terminated at short notice. This applies, for example, to casual, short-term or seasonal workers. It also covers seasonal employment, which in many circumstances can represent an important employment opportunity for rural people. The exact definition of precarious therefore depends on the context.</p>	<p>Main repository ILOSTAT</p> <p>LFS, other household surveys with an appropriate employment module</p> <div data-bbox="1082 421 1401 689" style="border: 1px solid orange; border-radius: 15px; padding: 10px; background-color: #fff9c4;"> <p> Complement with a dedicated survey (or part of a dedicated survey on DRE) and qualitative analysis to understand the situation of the different categories of wage workers in agriculture and the changes induced by the programme.</p> </div>
Medium-term outcome indicators (2–5 years)		
<p>▲ Share of rural workers members of POs or workers’ organizations/ trade unions and other community groups</p>	<p>Measures improvements in the collective organization of rural workers.</p> <p>Increasing the collective organization and action of rural workers, with a specific focus on enhancing rural women’s and youth representation, is a recognized priority for rural development. Given the poor unionization in rural areas and the lack of social protection floors, POs and workers’ organizations represent crucial drivers for improving labour conditions and empower rural workers. Collect information for both rural workers in agriculture and in other sectors of the rural economy. If available, disaggregate information by sex and age (adults/ youth), employment status (household head, contributing family worker, wage/casual/seasonal worker, migrant worker), quintiles of farm size distributions and establish respective targets (especially for women, youth and lowest quintiles of farm size distributions [smallholders]).</p> <p>Additional indicators are:</p> <p>▲ Trade union density rate in agriculture (as a percentage of employment)</p> <p>▲ Collective bargaining coverage rate in agriculture (as a percentage of total employment)</p> <p>These two indicators are usually collected by LFS and found in the administrative records of workers’ organizations. However, given the limited unionization of rural workers in the informal and agricultural economy, these indicators may not provide a good indicator of change in all country contexts.</p>	<p>Main repository ILOSTAT</p> <p>Dedicated survey (or part of a dedicated survey on DRE)</p> <div data-bbox="1082 1182 1401 1462" style="border: 1px solid orange; border-radius: 15px; padding: 10px; background-color: #fff9c4;"> <p> Complement with qualitative analysis to understand and support POs and workers’ organizations through the programme. Often they lack capacities and voice; many have issues of poor governance or representation, or need support to foster women and youth inclusiveness.</p> </div>

Indicators	Technical notes	Means of verification
<p>▲ Ratio of adoption of minimum OSH measures in small-scale agricultural sector/rural MSMEs</p>	<p>Screens improvements in the adoption of OSH prevention measures taken in smallholder farms and MSMEs.</p> <p>This indicator requires a contextualized agreement on specific minimum OSH measures, comprising the fact that agricultural workers and employers: i) are informed about safety and health matters, and know how to safely use relevant machinery, equipment, appliances and hand tools; ii) adopt adequate preventive safety and health measures for themselves and for workers all along the supply chains, including the control of hazardous substances (e.g. how to store and handle chemicals) and protection for pregnant and breastfeeding women; and iii) can access appropriate welfare facilities (e.g. toilets, first-aid kits, lunch rooms). In the case of rural agriculture or forestry enterprises, OSH provisions should comply with the ILO Code of Practice on Safety and Health in Forestry Work and the ILO Code of Practice on Safety and Health in Agriculture, in line with national policies and systems on OSH. While these codes do not formally apply to subsistence farming, many of their provisions may be relevant.</p> <p>If information is available, disaggregate by sex and age (adults/youth), employment status (household head, contributing family worker, wage/casual/seasonal worker, migrant worker), and quintiles of farm size distributions and respective target established (especially for women, youth and lowest quintiles of farm size distributions [smallholders]).</p>	<p>Dedicated survey (or part of a dedicated survey on DRE)</p> <div data-bbox="1082 353 1401 600" style="border: 1px solid orange; border-radius: 15px; padding: 10px; background-color: #fff9c4;">  Complement with qualitative analysis to understand risks and hazards in rural sectors and identify preventive and corrective measures. Would benefit from collaboration with extension services/NGOs. </div>
<p>▲ No. or share of rural households with children aged 5–11 in child labour that withdraw their children from work</p>	<p>Measures changes in the situation of rural children and in particular in child labour that interferes with compulsory schooling as a critical dimension of rural well-being.</p> <p>Children in the 5–11 years age group account for the largest share of child labourers that greatly interfere with compulsory education.⁸¹ Child labour perpetuates a cycle of poverty for the children involved, their families and communities. Without education, boys and girls are likely to remain poor.</p> <p>Disaggregate information by sex and age of household head and of the child.</p> <p>An adaptation of the indicator could refer to the fact that children are put back into school, depending on the specific situation addressed.</p> <p>This indicator does not adequately cover hazardous work, especially for children above 11. Therefore, if reduction of child labour is retained as a result in the programme, this indicator should be complemented by the indicator below (No. of rural children aged 5–17 removed from hazardous work). Child labour includes children in the worst forms of child labour (e.g. hazardous work) and children in employment below the minimum age, excluding children in permissible light work (from the age of 12), if applicable.</p>	<p>Stand-alone national child labour surveys attached to an LFS</p> <div data-bbox="1082 1104 1401 1317" style="border: 1px solid orange; border-radius: 15px; padding: 10px; background-color: #fff9c4;">  Complement with programme reports, based on regular programme inspection/reporting mechanisms. Would benefit from collaboration with extension services/NGOs. </div>


81 While almost all countries have made primary education compulsory, many are now moving to make the lower secondary level mandatory as well. Currently lower secondary education is compulsory in approximately 80% of countries in the world. For more information on statistics on compulsory education, see UNESCO Global Education Digest (available at <http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Pages/global-education-digest.aspx>).

Indicators	Technical notes	Means of verification
<p>▲ No. of rural children aged 5–17 removed from hazardous work</p>	<p>Measures changes in the work situation of rural children as a critical dimension of rural labour conditions.</p> <p>Hazardous work is a subcategory of child labour. Hazardous work by children is often treated as a proxy for the worst forms of child labour.⁸² Agriculture engages 59% of children performing hazardous work.</p> <p>“Removed” could mean that, once informed and supported, families or employers no longer engage children in hazardous tasks, they put children into school and only engage them in permitted work according to their age. In the worst cases, removal would be the only option.</p> <p>This indicator requires a contextualized agreement on hazardous work for children in rural areas. When countries ratify Convention No. 182 and Convention No. 138, they commit themselves to determining work to be prohibited to persons under 18 years of age and therefore to developing Hazardous Work Lists which should be respected by law.⁸³ Hazardous work is defined by the ILO as any activity or occupation that, by its nature or type, has or leads to adverse effects on the child’s safety, health and moral development. In general, hazardous work may include night work and long hours of work; exposure to physical, psychological or sexual abuse; work underground, underwater, at dangerous heights or in confined spaces; work with dangerous machinery, equipment and tools, or which involves the manual handling or transport of heavy loads; and work in an unhealthy environment which may, for example, expose children to hazardous substances, agents or processes, or to temperatures, noise levels, or vibrations damaging to their health.</p> <p>Disaggregate data by sex, age (children below the minimum age to work and children in the age range 15 [or 14]–17) and establish respective targets. Give priority to younger children, but consider also children legally old enough to work. For children, safe and healthy youth employment is desirable, and if “hazardous work” is performed before the age of 18, it is considered a “worst form of child labour” by ILO Convention No. 182.</p>	<p>Stand-alone national child labour surveys attached to an LFS</p> <div data-bbox="1082 360 1401 573" style="border: 1px solid orange; border-radius: 15px; padding: 10px; background-color: #fff9c4;">  Complement with programme reports, based on regular programme inspection/reporting mechanisms. Would benefit from collaboration with extension services/NGOs. </div>
Short-term outcome indicators (1–2 years)		
<p>▲ Share of supported small-scale producers’ households that adopted decent work-enhancing practices</p>	<p>Measures the effect of the intervention on enhancing the capacities of rural workers/employers to improve their working conditions or the conditions of their employees.</p> <p>Decent work-enhancing practices need to be contextualized and depend on the intervention priorities. Considering the most serious decent work deficits in rural areas, the intervention should prioritize: adoption of minimal OSH measures (e.g. appropriate protective equipment); child labour prevention (e.g. adoption of production measures that reduce hazards for working adolescents); labour-saving technologies and practices; intra-household dynamics to recognize women’s double work burden and pregnancy/maternity needs.</p> <p>Disaggregate data by sex and age (adults/youth) of the household head and respective target established.</p>	<p>Programme assessments, beneficiary assessments</p>

82 ILO, IPEC. 2013. *Marking progress against child labour – Global estimates and trends 2000–2012*. Geneva.


83 ILO. 2011. *Children in hazardous work: What we know, what we need to do*. IPEC, ILO. p. 92–93. 2011 list of countries with Hazardous Work Lists (available at http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@dgreports/@dcomm/@publ/documents/publication/wcms_155428.pdf).



Indicators	Technical notes	Means of verification
▲ Share of supported MSMEs/ POs introducing innovations to promote or monitor labour standards in practice	<p>Measures the effect of the intervention on strengthening the commitment and capacities of private rural stakeholders to promote decent work in rural areas.</p> <p>Innovations to promote labour standards in practice depend on the specific context and intervention priorities. Taking into account the most serious decent work deficits in rural areas, it should prioritize innovations in the following areas: maternity protection and child care; child labour prevention (e.g. participating in child labour monitoring groups); reducing women's work burden; fostering youth engagement; improving wages and reducing precarious forms of employment; enhancing access of rural workers to social protection.</p> <p>Disaggregate information by sex and age (adults/youth) and establish respective targets.</p>	Programme assessments, beneficiary assessments
▲ No. of agrifood value chains with action plans in place to promote labour standards	<p>Measures the effect of the intervention on strengthening the commitment of stakeholders in the value chain to promote labour standards.</p> <p>Collect information on the level of implementation of the plans and stakeholders involved.</p>	Programme records and assessments
Output indicators		
▲ No. of producers'/ workers' organizations strengthened or created	<p>Measures the capacity of the intervention to put in place the conditions for inclusive social and policy dialogue.</p> <p>It is used to appreciate the level of representation of DRE-related issues in social and policy dialogue.</p> <p>Depending on the intervention, it may be relevant to include specific indicators or targets for specific groups. See example below:</p> <p>▲ No. of strengthened or created youth groups or associations or youth branches in existing POs</p>	Programme records
▲ No. of agricultural and rural stakeholders trained in decent work standards, including OSH, equality at work, women's double work burden, child labour prevention	<p>Measures the results of the intervention in creating awareness and increasing the capacities of right-holders to claim their labour rights and adopt basic measures to improve their working conditions.</p> <p>Depending on the exact focus of the intervention, the indicator could refer to MSMEs/producers' organizations and cooperatives and/or small-scale producers. Similarly, in terms of decent work standards, the problem analysis may reveal the priorities. Intervention planners should keep in mind the need to empower rural institutions to guarantee the sustainability of the interventions.</p> <p>Disaggregate data by sex and age (adults/youth) and establish respective targets.</p>	Programme records <div style="border: 1px solid orange; border-radius: 15px; padding: 10px; margin-top: 10px;">  Include qualitative assessments of beneficiaries' perceptions to assess the effectiveness of the training provided and eventual resistances to change. </div>


Indicators	Technical notes	Means of verification
<p>▲ No. of MSMEs/ POs/small-scale producers supported by the intervention to adopt voluntary standards/certification for socially responsible agricultural production</p>	<p>Measures the capacity of the intervention to support producers/POs and MSMEs to engage in more sustainable production.</p> <p>The kind of support depends on the context. However, it should not only provide information, but should include establishment of partnership and access to finance/support services etc. Depending on the intervention focus, the indicator may refer to all or some of the three categories (producers, POs and MSMEs).</p> <p>Disaggregate available data by sex and age (adults/youth) and establish respective targets.</p>	<p>Programme records</p>
<p>▲ No. of local service providers trained and supported to develop labour-saving equipment</p>	<p>Measures one way in which the intervention can contribute to improving rural labour conditions in practice.</p> <p>There may be many other examples that reflect specific stakeholders' needs (e.g. local service providers supported to produce biopesticides or gender adapted tools). An important dimension of this indicator is the need to identify sustainable and practical solutions that empower local enterprises.</p>	<p>Programme records</p>
<p>▲ No. of agrifood value chains supported to improve the application of labour standards in practice</p>	<p>Measures the contribution of the intervention to improve the application of labour standards in practice in rural areas.</p> <p>International labour standards are not always applied in rural areas and in the agricultural sector in particular. One of the roles of agricultural and rural institutions is to support the efforts of the ILO and national labour stakeholders to remove the exclusion of rural workers from the scope of national laws and regulations or the ratification of relevant Conventions. Their main advantage is in the extension of protection in practice, including identification of innovative mechanisms (e.g. through codes of conduct and technical standards or private-public partnership agreements in a specific value chain) to extend the application of ILS to rural workers.</p>	<p>Programme records</p>
<p>▲ No. of agrifood value chains for which there is specific analysis of labour standards</p>	<p>Measures the contribution of the intervention to improve knowledge on working conditions in rural areas and in particular on the application of labour standards in specific value chains.</p> <p>This information is largely missing, especially with regard to the informal economy and small-scale agriculture.</p> <p>Disaggregate information by main population group and economic status on the basis of the labour standards most at risk in the specific value chain.</p> <p>Relevant methodologies to conduct the analysis are listed at http://www.fao.org/docrep/013/i1937e/i1937e.pdf#page=28.</p>	<p>Programme records</p> <div data-bbox="1082 1384 1401 1809" style="border: 1px solid orange; border-radius: 15px; padding: 10px; background-color: #fff9c4;"> <p> For the analysis it is important to include an assessment of the support services which enable more disadvantaged groups to improve their labour standards along the value chain, including: social services (e.g. child care facilities which contribute to reducing time spent by women on reproductive work); extension services supporting the value chain on OSH; and PPP with a focus on sustainable business principles.</p> </div>

DRE Area of Intervention 3


Policy and institutional enabling environment for DRE

Indicators	Technical notes	Means of verification
Long-term outcome or impact indicators (≥ 5 years)		
<i>As for Intervention 1 and Intervention 2</i>		
Medium-term outcome indicators (2–5 years)		
▲ DRE integrated among strategic objectives of MoA	<p>Measures the contribution of the intervention to influence the existing policy frameworks for agricultural and rural development.</p> <p>A yes/no indicator, the “yes” target should cover the integration of DRE results and indicators into the agricultural policy and strategy (and specific policies and strategies for agricultural subsectors as relevant) and the main agricultural sector-wide programme.</p>	<p>Programme records</p> <div style="border: 1px solid orange; border-radius: 10px; padding: 5px; background-color: #fff9c4; margin-top: 10px;">  A methodology to conduct a context analysis has been developed by FAO and is available at http://www.fao.org/3/a-av094e.pdf </div>
▲ No. of indicators on agriculture and rural labour markets monitored in labour market information systems	<p>Measures the knowledge capacity of labour market information institutions to collect DRE data and inform policy change.</p> <p>A yes/no indicator, the “yes” target should be defined to cover at least a minimum set of data on rural labour markets disaggregated by sex and main age groups.</p>	Programme assessment of labour market information systems
▲ Extent of ratification of ILO Conventions relevant for rural areas and the agricultural sector	<p>Measures the effectiveness of the intervention to contribute to the legal environment for the application of ILS to rural areas and to agricultural workers in particular.</p> <p>Priority Conventions are the eight fundamental ILO Conventions on freedom of association (Nos 87 and 98), non-discrimination (Nos 100 and 111), abolition of forced labour (Nos 29 and 105) and elimination of child labour (Nos 138 and 182), as well the four governance Conventions on employment policies (No. 122), labour inspection (Nos 81 and 129) and tripartite consultation (No. 144)</p> <p>The full list of Conventions most relevant to rural areas is available at http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/documents/publication/wcms_182740.pdf</p> <p>The status of ratification by country is available at http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:11001:0::NO::</p>	<p>Official national records, ILO database</p> <p>http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:11001:0::NO::</p>
▲ Coverage of agricultural workers (including informal workers) in the provisions of national labour legislation	<p>Measures the effectiveness of the intervention to contribute to the legal environment for the application of ILS to rural areas and to agricultural workers in particular.</p> <p>A yes/no indicator, the “yes” target should be based on previous agreement about the national legislation gaps and what to monitor.</p> <p>Often, even when a country has ratified the relevant ILO Conventions, the national labour legislation does not cover agricultural workers and in particular subsistence farming and other occupations in the informal rural economy. Where relevant, removing the exclusion of rural workers from the scope of national laws and regulations should be a priority.</p>	Programme assessment based on official laws

Indicators	Technical notes	Means of verification
<p>▲ Coverage and adequacy of labour inspection systems in rural areas</p>	<p>Measures the capacity of the intervention to contribute to the implementation and enforcement mechanisms of national legislation.</p> <p>The definition of “adequate” depends on the context and on national priorities, but should consider whether: i) labour inspectors are sufficient in number and empowered to carry out effective inspections and order necessary preventive and enforcement measures in rural areas; and ii) there is collaboration between inspectors and the local authorities and other relevant actors in rural areas to promote awareness-raising, voluntary compliance and effective enforcement.</p>	<p>Programme assessment</p> <p> Complement with a qualitative analysis of labour inspection in rural areas, including number (sex disaggregated), resources and capacities of inspectors and effectiveness of mechanisms in place.</p>
<p>▲ Ratio (or no.) of investment deals integrating decent work</p>	<p>Measures the capacity of national authorities to promote responsible agricultural investments.</p> <p>Specific principles for Responsible Agricultural Investment (RAI Principles) were approved in October 2014 by the 41st Session of the CFS. Specific decent work considerations are addressed in Principle 2 “Contribute to sustainable and inclusive economic development and the eradication of poverty”. See http://www.fao.org/fileadmin/templates/cfs/Docs1314/rai/FirstDraft/CFS_RAI_First_Draft_for_Negotiation.pdf.</p> <p>Depending on the country context, an alternative indicator is:</p> <p>▲ No. of responsible contract farming arrangements</p>	<p>Programme records/ administrative records of investment centres</p>
<p>Short-term outcome indicators (1–2 years)</p>		
<p>▲ No. of new or revised ARD policies/ strategies/ programmes which include DRE-related results, indicators, budgets</p>	<p>Measures the changes in the policy framework resulting from the intervention activities in terms of integration of DRE results and indicators.</p> <p>The target should explicitly include the main agricultural sector-wide programme and main policies being formulated or reviewed.</p>	<p>Programme assessments</p> <p> A methodology to conduct a context analysis has been developed by FAO and is available at http://www.fao.org/3/a-av094e.pdf.</p>
<p>▲ Adoption of national policy or guidelines for responsible agricultural investments or responsible business conduct along agricultural supply chains</p>	<p>Measures the commitment of national authorities to promote responsible agricultural investments and responsible business along agricultural supply chains.</p> <p>FAO and the OECD are developing a guidance document on responsible business conduct along agricultural supply chains (forthcoming March 2016), which includes a model policy. See http://www.oecd.org/daf/inv/investment-policy/rbc-agriculture-supply-chains.htm.</p>	<p>Programme records</p>

Indicators	Technical notes	Means of verification
<p>▲ Adoption of DRE-enhancing national contract farming legislation</p>	<p>Measures the commitment of national authorities to the promotion of responsible contract farming.</p> <p>The impacts of contract farming on the realization of the right to work are potentially multifold. Contract farming promotes the access of smallholder farmers to markets, thus contributing to increase the productivity of smallholder agriculture, resulting in better incomes for smallholders, the creation of new jobs and the overall stability of rural jobs. Furthermore, contract farming can be an important channel for expanding the application of ILS to rural workers. It is important to implement adequate guarantees and monitoring to avoid workers experiencing poor terms and conditions (especially women workers) and increased incidence of child labour.</p>	<p>Programme records</p>
<p>▲ Dedicated DRE focal points/ staff in main agriculture-line ministries</p>	<p>Measures changes in the institutional capacities of relevant institutions to promote DRE.</p>	<p>Records of TOR/official mandates for staff, programme records for focal points</p> <div data-bbox="1082 763 1401 1066" style="border: 1px solid orange; border-radius: 15px; padding: 10px; background-color: #fff9c4;">  Associate with a more comprehensive assessment of organizational capacities for DRE promotion. A methodology for conducting a capacity needs assessment for promoting DRE has been developed by FAO and is available at http://www.fao.org/3/a-av093e.pdf. </div>
<p>▲ Existence of inter-institutional mechanisms for promoting DRE</p>	<p>Measures institutional changes related to the establishment of regular mechanisms of dialogue among agricultural and labour stakeholders.</p> <p>Mechanisms may refer to: i) dedicated DRE platforms and working groups; ii) platforms or working groups specific to DRE thematic areas (e.g. child labour working group); iii) the opening of existing mechanisms for agricultural planning to MoL and rural workers' organizations. Mechanisms must be active (e.g. regular meetings).</p>	<p>Programme records/ beneficiaries' assessment</p>
<p>▲ No. of mechanisms for OSH for agricultural workers, including workers in subsistence farming and rural micro and small informal enterprises</p>	<p>Measures changes initiated by relevant national authorities to improve the standards for OSH in the agricultural sector.</p> <p>In the case of rural agriculture or forestry enterprises, OSH provisions should comply with the ILO Code of Practice on Safety and Health in Forestry Work and the ILO Code of Practice on Safety and Health in Agriculture, in line with national policies and systems on OSH. However, such codes do not formally apply to subsistence farming, although many of their provisions may be relevant. Implementing minimum OSH measures is a priority dimension for promoting DRE in rural areas.</p> <p>Mechanisms for OSH in agriculture should comprise: establishment of occupational health services available in rural areas; collection and analysis of data on occupational injuries and diseases; provisions for collaboration with relevant insurance or social security schemes covering occupational injuries and diseases; and support for progressive improvement of OSH in very small agricultural enterprises (e.g. subsistence farms) and the informal economy.</p>	<p>Programme records/beneficiary assessments</p>

Indicators	Technical notes	Means of verification
<p>▲ No. of agricultural research centres that generate knowledge on rural labour markets and decent work issues</p>	<p>Measures changes in commitment and capacities of national knowledge institutions to generate knowledge on rural labour markets and decent work issues.</p> <p>Based on the intervention-specific results chain, this indicator may be adapted to focus on: the integration of the above issues into the academic curricula of these institutions; or the initiation of new research programmes or partnerships for knowledge generation on these subjects.</p>	<p>Programme records and assessments</p>
Output indicators		
<p>▲ No. of policy-makers and planners in MoA, LGAs and main POs trained in incorporating DRE in strategic planning</p>	<p>Measures the contribution of the intervention to improve the capacities of policy-makers and planners to incorporate DRE in the strategic planning of agriculture and rural development.</p> <p>Main beneficiaries of agricultural and rural development programmes are MoA, LGAs, POs and rural workers' organizations. However, it is recommended to involve also MoL, employers' organizations and rural workers' organizations/trade unions. MoL in particular usually has the institutional mandate to mainstream decent work across all economic sectors; it is, therefore, a potential partner in the provision of training.</p>	<p>Programme records, beneficiary assessments</p>
<p>▲ No. of staff of statistical departments trained in collection, dissemination and analysis of data on decent work in agriculture and rural areas</p>	<p>Measures the contribution of the intervention to improve the capacities of institutions responsible for generating and collecting data on decent work in agriculture and rural areas.</p> <p>"Staff of statistical departments" refers mainly to the national statistics office and to MoA's statistics unit.</p>	<p>Programme records, beneficiary assessments</p>
<p>▲ No. of extension staff trained in DRE-enhancing agricultural technologies and practices</p>	<p>Measures the contribution of the intervention to improve the capacities of institutions responsible for training rural workers in decent work.</p> <p>Consider which institutions (other than traditional extension services) are responsible for rural extension and reformulate the indicator as necessary.</p> <p>"DRE-enhancing agricultural technologies and practices" depend on the context and specific intervention priorities, but refer to training sessions on child labour prevention, OSH, labour rights, gender equality and entrepreneurship skills.</p> <p>Given the importance of increasing the number of female extension staff and empowering them to promote gender equality, disaggregate information by sex and establish respective targets.</p>	<p>Programme records, beneficiary assessments</p>

Indicators	Technical notes	Means of verification
▲ No. of labour inspectors/ extension staff trained in the application of ILS to rural areas	<p>Measures the capacity of the intervention to build effective inspection systems in rural areas.</p> <p>Labour inspection in rural areas should take into account the specific characteristics of agriculture and other rural sectors and involve extension staff as well as communities. Given the situation of widespread poverty and food insecurity and the level of informality, labour inspection in rural areas needs to be complemented by collaboration among all rural stakeholders to promote awareness-raising, voluntary compliance and effective enforcement. While the principal task of labour inspectors is to secure the enforcement of relevant national legislation, they also have a vital role in promoting ILS in general (see, for example, Convention No. 187 on OSH). Labour inspectorates should propose innovative means of reaching out to influence enterprises not usually subject to inspection (e.g. micro and small enterprises, family farms and enterprises in the informal economy), through agricultural fairs and exhibitions, the media, the trade press, training and educational activities and other means. They should also work with a wide range of partner organizations, including agricultural training providers, educational and research institutes, safety and health advisory services, and manufacturers and suppliers of machinery and substances (see ILO, 2010 Code of Practice on OSH in agriculture).</p> <p>The target should be fixed to guarantee that labour inspectors and extension staff are trained together to promote exchanges between them.</p>	<p>Programme records</p> <div style="border: 1px solid orange; border-radius: 10px; padding: 10px; background-color: #fff9c4;">  Complement with a qualitative analysis of labour inspection problems in rural areas, including constructive suggestions to increase outreach. </div>
▲ No. of partnerships (e.g. PPP) formalized to promote DRE	<p>Measures the capacity of the intervention to set the basis for institutionalizing the DRE activities implemented.</p> <p>Focus on public-private partnerships, given the crucial role of the private sector, including POs, to set voluntary standards and create new jobs. Similarly, promote partnerships among agriculture and labour stakeholders.</p>	Programme records based on formalized agreements
▲ Assessment available of hazards and risks in agriculture and related action plan	<p>Measures the contribution of the intervention to set the basis of the national OSH system covering small-scale agriculture and related informal micro and small enterprises.</p> <p>The assessment should cover small-scale agriculture and suggest realistic prevention and inspection arrangements. Agriculture is one of the most hazardous sectors, accounting for about half of the 321 000 fatal workplace accidents that occur annually worldwide (ILO, 2012). However, most legal provisions and regulations do not cover small-scale agriculture, leaving the sector unprotected. The WIND⁸⁴ programme supported by the ILO has developed adapted methodologies to promote OSH in subsistence farming.</p>	Programme records
▲ No. of research activities in agriculture dedicated to decent work	<p>Measures the contribution of the intervention to increase knowledge of decent work deficits in rural labour markets and the agricultural sector in particular.</p> <p>An alternative indicator is:</p> <p>▲ No. of research activities in agriculture that incorporate decent work issues</p>	Programme records and assessments

84 For more information on the WIND programme consult http://www.ilo.org/asia/whatwedo/publications/WCMS_099075/lang--en/index.htm.

The Guidance document aims to assist FAO Members in incorporating decent rural employment interventions across different agricultural sub-sectors. It is organized into three main sections that answer respectively to the questions: “Why”, “When” and “How” to integrate DRE.

In particular, the section on “How to incorporate DRE considerations” outlines and analyses the following 4 strategic planning phases:

Phase 1: Conducting the problem and stakeholder analysis – Applying a DRE lens;

Phase 2: Defining desired impacts and beneficiaries – Prioritizing DRE;

Phase 3: Developing the result chain and the strategies and programmes to achieve the results – Developing a DRE-inclusive results chain;

Phase 4: Developing the M&E system with DRE-inclusive indicators.

The document provides overall guidance in the main text, which is complemented with boxes, figures, tables and annexes containing examples, detailed technical advice, tips and checklists.

