Literature review on the labour market impacts of value chain development interventions

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Summary

Market systems development for decent work – 'The Lab' – is a new three-year ILO research and knowledge-generation project that will pioneer innovative ways to *measure* and *maximise* job improvements when working to facilitate pro-poor change in value chains and sectors. As part of this project, the ILO commissioned a systematic literature review of the qualitative and quantitative impacts on the labour market of value chain development interventions.

This review aims to distil the results of studies, in order to answer the question of what are the outcomes of value chain interventions covering the quantity and quality of jobs created. A search of websites, digital libraries, bibliographic scientific databases and publically available databases using keywords related to job quality and quantity resulted in 99 studies, 53 of which were selected based on quality criteria and because they included information on both value chain interventions and impacts on job quality and/or quantity.

Evidence from these studies indicates that the quality of evidence on interventions in value chains leading to job creation and increases on job quality is highly variable and generally scarce. Whilst evidence is presented that interventions can lead to manual and semi-skilled work, particularly in agricultural, natural resource and manufacturing sectors in both developing and developed countries, concrete evidence in the literature that specific interventions result in large scale, long term jobs is scarce and points to the need for further study. This could be due to (i) such impacts not occurring or (ii) that such impacts do occur but were not captured in the literature reviewed, given the criteria concerning the quality of the literature and the search terms used and/or that (iii) the timescale between value chain interventions occurring and such large scale impacts being measured, has been insufficient to allow reporting and be captured by this review. More examples were provided in the literature that chain interventions have impacted job quality, particularly through training, skills and empowerment resulting in income enhancement and improved working conditions. Certification interventions provide a number of examples of job quality impacts, based on scientifically robust evidence. Negative and indirect impacts on the quantity and quality of jobs were noted, pointing to the need for interventions to be supported, for example by good impact logics, baseline assessment for which to measure performance and progress, and monitoring and assessment.

The evidence presented in the literature reviewed largely makes assumptions about causality and attributes outcomes and impacts on job quality and quantity to the interventions. There was some discussion about external influences that could have affected or caused the impacts noted and attributed to the value chain intervention, reference to a baseline situation or a counterfactual situation. Many studies indicated that the situation and changes were strongly context related e.g. to land and resource ownership, migration, societal changes, education, other projects etc. Recommendations are provided for the ILO on selecting value chains for interventions, and for action research in value chain development projects.

Key words: Labour market, value chain interventions, impacts, work, job creation, job quality

Contents

1 Acknowledgements

2 Abbreviations

CSO	Civil society organisation
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
DFID	Department for International Development (United Kingdom)
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations
GTZ	German Technical Cooperation Agency
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
ITC	International Trade Centre
KAB	Know About Business
KPI	Key performance indicator
LEI	Agricultural Economics Institute
LOCA	Local Competitive Advantage in Sri Lanka
M4P	Making Markets Work for the Poor
MSE	Micro and Small Enterprise
NGO	Non-government (non-profit) organisation
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
SIDA	Swedish International Development Agency
SME	Small and Medium Enterprise
SPF	Sector Prioritization Framework
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organization
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VCA	Value Chain Analysis
VCD	Value Chain Development
WTO	World Trade Organization
WUR	Wageningen University and Research Centres

3 Introduction

Value chain development has become an increasingly popular approach to private sector development. There is a growing consensus amongst international finance and development organisations that creating jobs – at all levels from large multinationals to small and medium enterprises - is one of the key contributions of the private sector to poverty reduction (UNDP 2008). There is mounting evidence that using a systematic approach to develop and assess enterprises and the chains in which they are embedded (Donovan, 2008; Ponte, 2008) may help address key underlying constraints in market systems in support of development orientated goals such as poverty alleviation.

M4DW 'the Lab' is a new ILO program that seeks to determine how to best select those value chains that can create more and better employment in the future, as well as the circumstances under which a 'business argument' can be made to improve working conditions. Evidence to support the ILO to make decisions about selecting and targeting the sectors which can generate employment and how to best promote improvements in working conditions in chains is however required to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of its private sector development interventions. The project intends to substantially contribute to the knowledge base on how to (i) practically target employment creation and decent work, (ii) better assess labour market outcomes and impacts of market development projects and (iii) develop a system for competency re-enforcement of national institutions in market and value chain development. The project aims to not only promote a greater understanding of which interventions and methodologies lead to job growth and improved working conditions, but also create an environment in which national institutions are able to ensure sustainability and continued progress in these areas. The project aims to drive applied research in up to five different countries and value chains in collaboration with existing value chains development projects.

A meta-evaluation of 39 evaluations from 2000 to 2011 commissioned by IFC and other organizations (Paniagua and Denisova 2012) presents lessons learnt about private sector development interventions most likely to catalyse job creation. These include improving access to finance; better access to infrastructure; an enabling investment climate, particularly business entry/registration reform and investment promotion; and skills development and training for youths, women and the disadvantaged – although strongly country context dependent. The report also emphasizes that due to the diverse methodologies used in interventions, it is difficult to determine the best approach to estimate the job creation effects of private sector interventions.

However, a similar body of knowledge about the impacts of interventions in value chains on the quantity and quality of jobs created is lacking.

3.1 Research questions

The objective of this study is to review the recent literature containing empirical evidence on quantitative and qualitative labour market impacts of value chain development interventions. The focus is on distilling research results (and the gaps) to answer the following question: *What are the labour market outcomes of value chain interventions covering the quantity and quality of jobs created?*

The quality of jobs refers to activities concerning working conditions resulting from projects and interventions in value chains. A definition of the term "working conditions" is adopted (shown in Section 5) and core areas of working conditions were identified. This review considered both interventions in local and global value chains.

3.2 Scope of the review, limits and assumptions

The review is based upon the premise that selected interventions in value chains in specified countries can result in demonstrated effects (impacts and outcomes) which may be positive (but also unintended and negative), direct or indirect, on the behaviour of enterprises, which in turn influences labour market outcomes. This assumption is shown in Figure 1. Sievers and Ham (2014) elaborate upon the logic behind this assumption, indicating that the idea of using a value chain development intervention strategy as a poverty alleviation and/or a job-creating or job quality enhancing mechanism is not new, dating back to the 1980s, and is currently popular in development cooperation (Humphrey and Navas Alemán 2010, Donovan et al. 2013, OECD 2013).

Figure 1. Impact logic of interventions in value chains
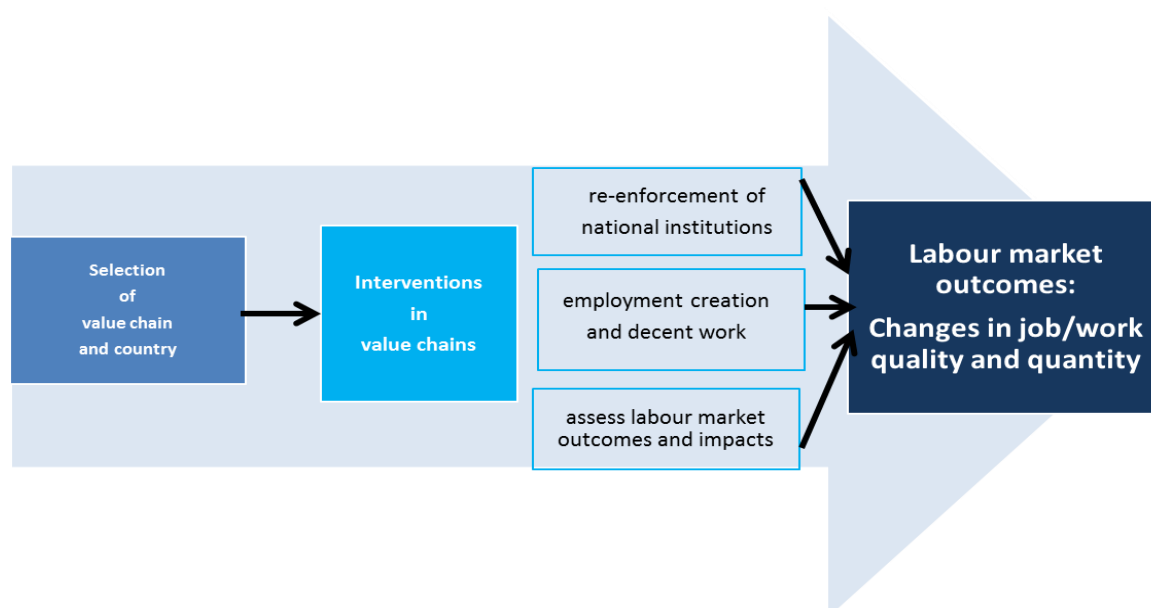
According to this logic, the private sector is a critical driver of economic growth, which can contribute significantly to poverty reduction and higher living standards for poor people : being responsible for around 90% of employment in the developing world—including both formal and informal jobs. It also provides critical goods and services, is the source of most tax revenues, and is key to ensuring the efficient flow of capital[1]. The UNDP suggests that businesses—with governments, civil society and the poor and support of international finance and development organisations — can build the foundations for new markets (UNDP 2008). Governments are seen as key actors in creating enabling conditions in chains, by improving market conditions where poor people live and removing barriers to their economic participation. Opportunities can be further developed if not-for-profit and non-governmental organizations (NGOs), service providers, (micro)finance institutions and others working with the poor collaborate and pool resources with businesses. Donors can further facilitate dialogues between businesses and governments or other partners. Socially minded investors and philanthropists also play a role in funding time-intensive and uncertain investments and interventions. Thus the belief that (multi-partner) poverty alleviation and value chain interventions can result in pro-poor impacts (UNDP 2008, Isahakyan and Veit 2012).

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[1]

http://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/topics_ext_content/ifc_external_corporate_site/idg_home/ifc_and_poverty_role_private_sector. Retrieved 28 April 2014.

The "markets for the poor" approach shown in Figure 2 illustrates this logic. It is based on the logic that generally the poorest are the most "vulnerable" at the bottom of a chain. The assumption is that if the underlying constraints are identified, then the value chain can be improved to the benefit of all, but particularly for the poorest.

Figure 2. "Markets for the poor" approach
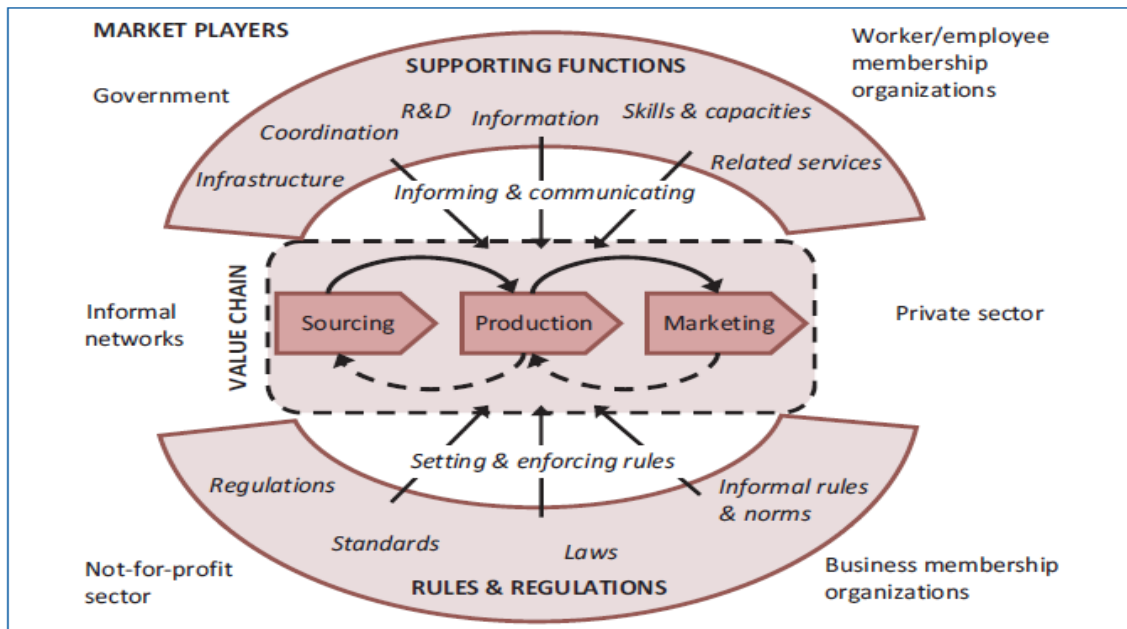
Source: The Springfield Centre (2008): The M4P operational guide, for DFID and SDC, Durham (UK).
See www.springfieldcentre.com

This study concerns value chains for all sectors and products worldwide. The focus was on local chains, with an understanding that if no or little literature was found, studies on national or global chains were to be reviewed. The scope is broad in terms of time period from 2000 onwards. In terms of causality, the review is based upon the logic noted above, that interventions in value chains, have effects (impacts and outcomes) which may be positive (but also unintended and negative), direct or indirect, on labour markets, specifically on the quality and quantity of jobs. This does not exclude that other factors may influence labour market outcomes.

A limitation of this approach is that this time period is relatively short for literature to emerge on outcomes and impacts, considering that value chain interventions have emerged as a popular development activity around the last fifteen years (Kaplinsky 2004, Mayoux 2003). The timescale from an intervention in a chain to outcomes in the labour market(s) and subsequent impacts on poverty alleviation, however, can take time to manifest. Value chain-related interventions have been in differential stages of implementation since; it is expected that only after a medium term time period that effects may occur. As a result, these effects may not have been captured and documented, providing evidence in the type of studies that meet the criteria used in this review (see chapter 4 and the appendix 1).

4 Methodology

A search protocol was developed to guide the review (see appendix 1). The protocol sets out the strategy used to search for literature to answer the research question. It also defines the inclusion and exclusion criteria for the literature that was to be reviewed in detail, the systematic method of coding and the method of analysis of the selected literature. The protocol was reviewed by the ILO team. This search and review process is summarised in Figure 2. Literature was searched for in websites, digital libraries, bibliographic scientific databases and publically available databases using the search terms to screen the title and abstract. This resulted in 99 studies being retained and stored in an Endnote database and the EPPI database tool. The titles and abstracts of these publications were then screened by the review team. Publications that did not meet the inclusion criteria (see appendix 1 for details) were excluded. The resulting 53 references (see appendix 3 for details) were then eligible for a full text review. These publications are summarised in Appendix 2 and classified by type in Appendix 3. Since around 40 studies were considered the minimum for a robust systematic review this was considered acceptable. The 53 eligible studies were read and coded using terms drawn from the research questions (Appendix 1). They were analysed using the EPPI software to determine trends and compare and cross tabulate different variables. The results of this analysis are presented in this report.

Figure 3. Overview of literature review search methods and results
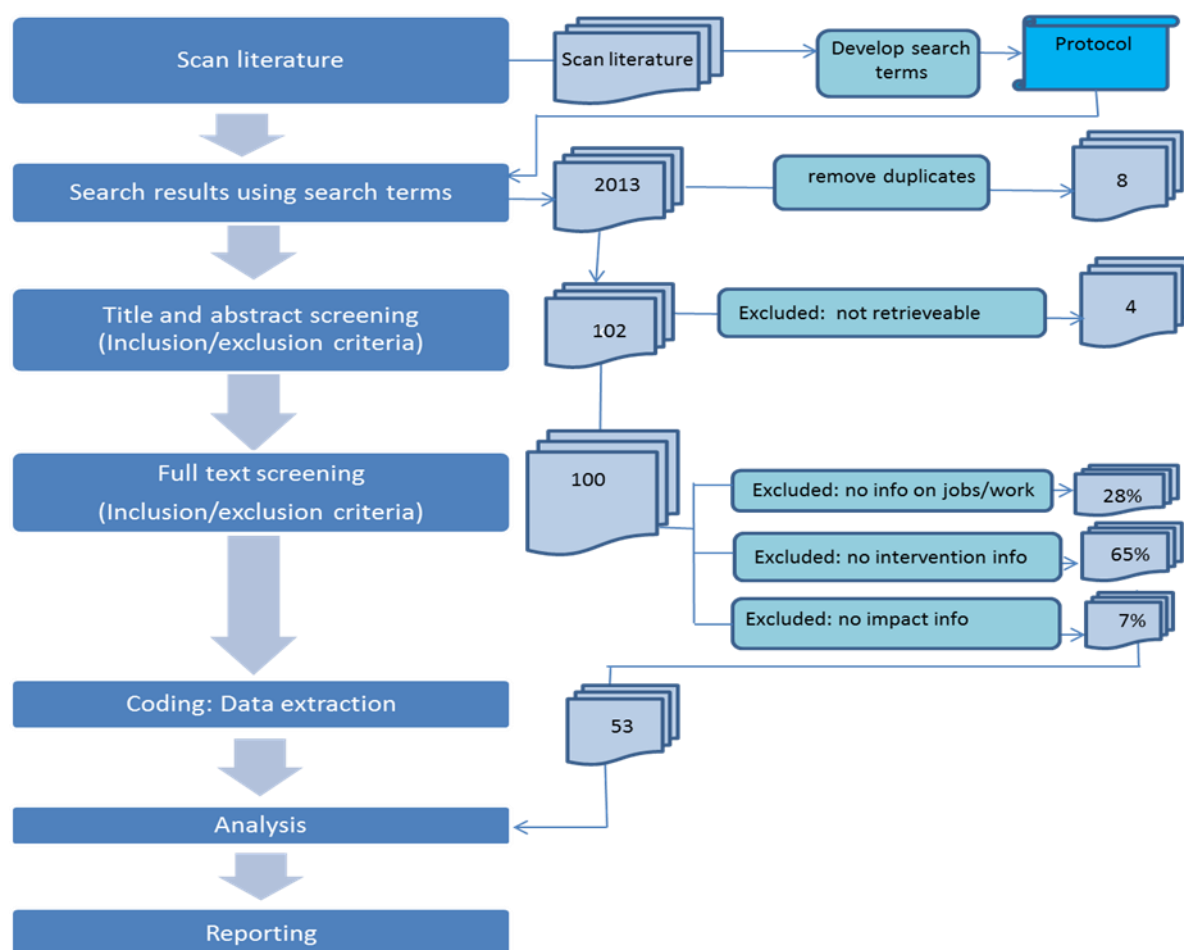
4.1 Quality of studies reviewed and implications

The quality criteria upon which the studies were selected for review (see Appendix 1 on the methodology) aimed to result in scientifically robust evidence, due to the literature:

1. Being preferably peer reviewed, and if not peer reviewed, based on independent evaluations with no conflict of interest.

2. Documenting interventions in a chain, rather than just one segment of a chain

3. Where a baseline is described (including the characteristics of stakeholders and impacts against which changes in jobs can be clearly evaluated, and if a counterfactual situation or other proof was provided).

4. Where outcome and/ or impact descriptions are provided with clear indicators.

5. Which used well explained, rigorous impact assessment methods (i.e. design to resolve a counterfactual or a baseline reference situation) and provided a well- documented record of the value chain intervention.

Most literature did not cover value chain interventions specifically aiming to influence job quality or quantity. Most interventions concerned inclusion of certain groups of people in chains or incomes. Impacts on labour market were thus mainly indirect. This has implications for the robustness of the conclusions that can be drawn from the literature.

However, the search for literature resulted in a very limited number of quantitative studies that met all these criteria. Overall, the studies reviewed were extremely heterogeneous and applied a wide variety of different methods to provide evidence of impacts. Mainly qualitative or mixed method studies were found.

4.1.1 Counterfactual

Only 8% of studies mentioned that a counterfactual was used and only 4% documented the existence or creation of a baseline prior to the VCD intervention. This means that impacts measured or observed may not be due to the interventions described and may be possibly attributable to other factors. Combined with the low level of peer review and sometimes questionable independence of the studies, this makes evidence of impacts that can be attributed to the VCD intervention tenuous.

4.1.2 Legitimacy of studies

Just over a quarter (28%) of the studies were classified as legitimate i.e. independently representing the intervention and its impacts. 11% were judged as transparent. This low level of robustness of the data review is reflected by the small number of peer reviewed studies (22% of total). Most of the literature was grey literature, either reports commissioned by or from agencies conducting interventions, evaluations of project and programs, or the results of studies about aspects of value chain interventions. A third were reviews that gathered evidence around a theme and often quoted or showcased certain results'; this 'cherry picking' of results and data to illustrate facts to support a line of argument means that a full assessment of the evidence was not possible. This could be improved by further snowballing (reading the literature cited), however, this was not possible given the scope of the review. Around 35% of studies reviewed presented primary data. This general problem is indicated by the issues around selecting evidence for the review. Even among references of the literature included in the first scan, many were excluded in the first round because no empirical evidence was found or no intervention was documented. Many reports in the final inclusion show indirect evidence because they are reviews. The project descriptions are very limited in these kinds of reports. The studying of the underlying reports is out of the scope of this review.

The certification studies tend to have better documented monitoring, (impact) evaluations and reporting, in cases where (multinational) companies are the initiator of certification and in cases where a certification agency and partners (often NGOS and CSOs) are implementing.

4.1.3 Indicators

Indicators of job quality and quantity reported in the studies reviewed were generally lacking or very simplistic. Few publications reviewed explicitly addressed employment or work indicators.

4.2 On attribution: cause and effect

The impact logic presented in Figure 1 is a hypothesis. As discussed in the preceding sections, there was insufficient information and evidence in the literature presented to be able to test this. This means that correlations or associations between job quality and quantity outcomes and type of interventions are inferred and may have been caused by other (external) factors. This finding is reiterated by a very recent study of the social impacts of Forest Stewardship Council (FSC) certification in the Congo Basin (Cerutti et al. 2014) which due to its baseline and counterfactual methodology, was able to indicate with more certainty that current clear differences in positive working conditions found between workers in FSC certified forest concessions and non-certified concessions could plausibly be attributed to the chain intervention (certification).

The evidence presented in the literature reviewed largely makes assumptions about causality and attributes outcomes and impacts on job quality and quantity to the interventions. Little discussion is provided about external influences that could have affected or caused the impacts.

Attribution is also not possible for the studies discussing the relation between interventions and gender dimensions of chains, as these did not provide a counterfactual or baseline. However many indicated that the situation and changes were strongly context related e.g. to land and resource ownership and that other, on-going factors impacted gendered roles e.g. migration, societal changes, education, other projects etc.

4.3 Examples of good methodologies

Studies that met at least two of the criteria named above (elaborated in appendix 1) can be seen as good examples of studies. These are briefly described below.

Nearly half (23) of the publications reviewed concerned primary data. These were valuable in providing **evidence of job related impacts** purportedly resulting from chain interventions. Many concerned evaluations and assessments of chain interventions, either by the invention organisations, owners or financers, such as indicated by Kapur and Duvvury (2006), who advocated using a rights-based interventions to improve the economic and social rights of poor and marginalized women in India was a "challenging learning process" for the organisation and partners. Barrientos (2008) compares cases where two small women's NGOs (a South African women's organisation campaigning for the rights of women fruit workers and a UK NGO) have directly engaged (through campaigns and dialogue) with large corporations (Tesco's and GAP Inc.) to help improve the effects of commercial decisions on women workers. The MDF studies of value chain interventions in Sri Lanka (MDF-SA 2008, 2008a, DF-South Asia 2008, MDF 2008) provide assessments of the effectiveness and detailed impacts of different types of chain inventions. However, they do not consistently use the same indicators, nor do they provide details of how the impacts were assessed. The Delahunty-Pike (2012) publication is interesting in providing details about the assessment methods used.

Many of the certification-related publications provide good examples of how **impact assessment methods** are applied to chains of custody from producer to consumer. The Ruben (2008) cases provide examples of robust scientific design. Blackmore et al. (2012) focus specifically on impacts and on

chains and provide a good overview of employment impacts alongside other impacts of certification and related interventions, but is weak in that the methodology used was not presented. They assessed the benefits of sustainability certification for small-scale farmers in Asia. This thorough review on of different types of certification (organic, fair trade, rainforest Alliance/ UTZ/ Cafe Practices, geographical) and its impact in China, Vietnam and India and Indonesia indicated that certification improves access to information including planning (for farmers) and forecasts of production (which benefits buyers), training and support. Certification typically is most successful when famers are linked to chains already, being not necessarily the poorest farmers. It has led to improved bargaining positions, building organisations and to economies of scale. Fairtrade can act as important safety net. Blackamore et al. noted however that more evidence is needed on cost benefits of Rainforest Alliance, UTZ and Cafe Practices.

This type of assessment is now being published, for example recent impact reports of certification (UTZ Certified 2014) and from the Committee on Sustainability Assessment (COSA) (Giovannucci and Potts 2008). These studies also point to the importance of training, but critically, support and monitoring (i.e. through auditing) to ensure skills and knowledge learnt are implemented – such that improvements in, for example, working conditions (i.e. reducing child labour, using protective equipment), are achieved. The Tallontire et al. (2012) study overcomes such weakness with similar approach of using a review of cases, which is more scientifically credible for presenting the assessment methods used and being more explicit about indicators. The Resolve Inc. (2012) study also is explicit about indicators, and highlights that the use of performance and compliance indictors (see figure 1.1 on page 11 of the Resolve study) in certification standards can aid monitoring and evaluation of their impacts.

Other examples where the impacts of **value chain interventions** are well described were provided by Barrientos (2008). This reports about the support of a small NGO which purchased a share in a major supermarket chain for a female worker, which enabled her to travel to annual shareholders meeting to raise the issue of working conditions. As a response the supermarket chain Tesco agreed to adapt its social auditing. This indicates how small directed interventions can result in impacts by targeting a buyer's image. Davis and Rylance's (2005) report on local economic and enterprise development, and reviewed conceptual approaches and practice. It reported on the JOBS program (part of the Beautiful Bulgaria), which created 2000 jobs in the construction sector in eleven cities by supporting micro and small companies. The intervention consisted of centres offering services, training and finance at below market rates. It was evaluated that a value chain approach was needed to integrate demand and supply policy issues with stakeholders (public, private companies, consumers and NGOs) for more sustainable results as the jobs were temporary at the time of the project, illustrating the short term impact of some interventions.

Delahunty-Pike (2012) provided an example of a collectively executed value chain analysis to find improvements in the charcoal value Chain in Western Kenya. Farnworth et al. (2013) on interventions to transform Gender Relations in agriculture in sub-Saharan Africa, report on gender aspects in two value chain cases. One linked women and men to middle-men and agro- processors through a variety of activities that finally resulted in a more evenly distributed work load between men and women in the horticulture sector. New techniques were introduced alongside these activities. The other case showed that organic producing is a challenge for women due to their low literacy rates and because they do not control land directly, up-scaling production is hard for women. The case also revealed that women face (more) difficulties than men in accessing capital.

Hawkes et al. (2011) reported on an intervention in Zambia that linked small dairy farmers to the commercial dairy chain and boosted milk production through better feed, better cattle, improved animal health care, farmer organisation into cooperatives and building of cooled milk collection centres, resulting in 22,000 beneficiaries of jobs. Women especially benefited from these jobs, enjoying higher income than men, because they took better care of their cows. How much these impacts could be attributed to the intervention is not made clear in the publication.

A number of publications, which do not specifically focus on value chain interventions, but on private sector development generally, are useful in that they describe and provide guidance on **impact logics**, how indicators were used, monitoring, and reporting on labour market outcomes. This includes the

Katalyst series of reports and Australian Aid's Market Development Facility reports (MDF 2014), the Kenya Market Trust[2] and USAID (ACDI/VOCA 2004, Parker 2008).

4.4 Definitions of concepts used

The following definitions were used to guide the search and to interpret the literature reviewed:

Aid for trade: a strategy for helping developing countries overcome structural and capacity limitations that undermine their ability to maximize the benefits from trade

Counterfactual: situation of what would have happened without intervention.

Decent work: is work that takes place under conditions of freedom, equity, security, and dignity, in which rights are protected and adequate remuneration and social coverage is provided. Decent work has four pillars: employment, social protection, rights and social dialogue[3].

Employment or labour market: a place where workers and employees interact and compete with each other. A labour market functions with demand and supply of labour, within the bounds of formal labour market regulations and policies and informal institutions and arrangements. Labour demand is the demand for labour and supply is worker's supply of labour. Supply and demand for labour in a market is influenced by changes in bargaining power.

Intervention(s): refers to a set of actions, initiative, assistance, project, program or policy purposely designed to intervene in and change a value chain – either directly to affect work, jobs and/or employment or indirectly. Interventions in chains are also known as upgrading or leverage and include certification and sustainability schemes. The intervention is an activity that should cover at least one link in the chain, connecting two stages of the production process. Using the classifications developed by Tallontire et al. (2012) and Seville et al. (2011), value chain interventions or strategies to increase development impact were classified in to three main types:

1. **Adapting of trading relationships (cooperation issues)**
   a. Improving negotiating capabilities
   b. Fair and transparent trade relations
   c. Shared costs, benefits and risk
   d. Improve buying practices

2. **Improving market infrastructure (coordination issues)**
   a. Improved availability to trading intermediaries
   b. Improved supply chain coordination
   c. Improved access to financial and non-financial services like market information
   d. Quality control systems

3. **Upgrading** to meet production and processing requirements for quality, safety, production standards, delivering and logistics and lead times, capacity (e. g. including improvement of skills of producer or producer groups and investments to meet requirements of buyers) and utilizing existing assets and investments to ensure participation in a beneficial way and enhance the rewards and/or reduce exposure to risks of chain participation (increasing productivity, increasing business and sustainable farming skills, increasing business capacity of the intermediary etc.).

This development focus was seen as more relevant to the labour focus of this study than the vertical or horizontal typology which tends to focus on the competiveness of enterprises in chains (Webber and

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[2] http://www.kenyamarkets.org/what-we-do/the-market-assistance-programme/our-impact-stories. Retrieved 10 March 2014.

[3] http://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/decent-work-agenda/lang--en/index.htm. Retrieved 10 March 2014.

Labaste 2008, Parsons 2006, OECD 2007). The explicit classification or strategies to develop vertical and/or horizontal links in chains emerged only occasionally in the literature reviewed (Le Nguyen Doan, 2012) and only implicitly in the certification related literature. Seville et al. (2011) note that there is a need for private and public investment to make horizontal and vertical upgrading strategies work. They also add investment in livelihood as a strategy but unless this is combined with one of the other strategies we do not consider it a value chain intervention.

Job creation: From the ILO's decent work agenda, creating jobs requires an economy that generates opportunities for investment, entrepreneurship, skills development, job creation and sustainable livelihoods. 'In project' jobs created are not counted in this review an outcome of interventions.

Job quality: refers to the working conditions in which a job takes place. It is a multidimensional concept that covers aspects including adequate wages (earnings) and benefits, decent work, job stability and security and social protection, skills development and training opportunities, safety and employment ethics, workplace relationships (including gender equality) and work motivation, formal training, working conditions, (flexibility in) working hours and balancing work and non- working life, health implications of work, work autonomy and the meaningfulness of work. There is, no agreement on the exact dimensions and indicators to measure the quality of jobs (Bustillo, Fernández-Macías et al. 2009, Erhel and Guergoat-Larivière 2010, UNECE 2010, Kok, Deijl et al. 2013).

Jobs: implies persons in employment comprise all persons above a specified age who during a specified brief period, either one week or one day, in paid or self-employment. It includes persons who during a specified period (a) performed some work for wage or salary in cash or in kind, (b) had a formal attachment to their job but were temporarily not at work during the reference period, (c) performed some work for profit or family gain in cash or in kind, (d) were with an enterprise such as a business, farm or service but who were temporarily not at work during the reference period for any specific reason[4]. Note that jobs should be formed under decent work conditions such that people have access to employment rights and benefits and social security.

Know about business: a training tool developed by the ILO for secondary, vocational and technical training institutes.

Labour markets: labour is a measure of the work done by human beings; a labour market concerns the interaction of workers and employers, where labour services (workers) are supplied in response to the demands of labour services (employers), with resulting patterns of wages, employment, and income. Traditionally the term does not cover people engaged in farming or self-employment. For this study however all types of labour have been included.

Market system: the multi-player, multi-function arrangement comprising three main sets of functions (core, rules and regulations and supporting functions) undertaken by different players, and through which exchanges take place.

Production network: the nexus of interconnected functions and operations through which goods and services are produced, distributed and consumed and a conceptual framework that is capable of grasping the global, regional and local economic and social dimensions of the processes involved in many (though by no means all) forms of economic globalization (Henderson, Dicken et al. 2002) Production Network: the nexus of interconnected functions and operations through which goods and services are produced, distributed and consumed

Supply Chain: the internal chain of a firm's activities.

Value chain (also known as **market, commodity chain, production to consumption system**, and **filière)**: uses the interlinking connections of a chain to symbolise the full range of activities involved in bringing a product or service from conception and raw material, through processing and production, to delivery to final consumers and ultimately disposal (Kaplinsky and Morris 2000), such as production, harvesting, cleaning, transport, design, processing, production, transformation, packaging, marketing,

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[4] http://stats.oecd.org/glossary/detail.asp?ID=778. Retrieved 2 April 2014.

distribution and support services to final consumers, and final disposal after use. A chain can range from a local to global level. This range of activities may be implemented by various actors for example farmers, processors, traders, retailers and service providers (Kaplinsky and Morris 2000).

The commonly used term 'sector' may address to both similar stages in the chain ('agricultural sector') and the complete set of interconnecting chains in a country ('the tourist sector'). A sector analysis is not necessarily a chain analysis, nor is a sector intervention necessarily a chain intervention, when the activity is not particularly focussed on the relation between stages in the chain or network.

Value chain analysis: the process of analysing structures, actors and processes within value chains

Value chain development: the process of developing interventions built on findings of value chain analysis

Value chain interventions : can be public (government), private sector or civil society (i.e. donor, bilateral, development organisations, civil society or non-profit organisations) targeted and concrete actions, such as initiatives, assistance, platforms, projects, programs or policies, with an aim of affecting or changing outcomes or impacts for specific actor(s) or groups of actors in a value chain (Schmitz 2005, Humphrey and Navas-Alemán 2010). These may occur at firm, chain, sector, institutional, and/or political levels. The intervention should cover at least two cover at least one link in the chain, connecting two stages of the production process (i.e. producers and manufacturers, hotel chains and suppliers of food, small scale industry and distribution etc.); a sector is seen as a group of similar organisations in a chain.

Work: is any activity which contributes to the production of goods or services within the production boundary.

Interpretation of results

As 57% of the publications reviewed covered more than intervention[5], chain and country, information is given for these different interventions and impacts, rather than for the number of studies (53). This means that multiple coding of the evidence reviewed presented occurred. As a result, some of the figures presented result in total of more than 100% and in more than 53 responses.

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[5] For example, the Resolve 2011 study provided many examples and references to interventions related to certification in seven chains (tea, coffee, cocoa, timber, organic agricultural products, aquaculture fish and wild fish) using examples from many different countries, whereas the SOMO 2011 study focused on interventions one chain (tea) in two countries, discussing mainly on job quality.

5 Results concerning job quantity

This chapter presents an overview of the evidence found in the 53 reviewed publications to answer the question: *What are the labour market outcomes of value chain interventions covering the quantity of jobs created?* It presents the evidence on the numbers of jobs created in different sectors, the scale of job creation, and apparent relationships between the types of organisations intervening in value chains and resulting impacts on the numbers of job created. The final section summarises lessons derived from the publications.

5.1 Number of jobs created in different sectors

Clear reports of causal relationship or attribution between the intervention and the number of jobs created was generally lacking in the publications reviewed. The majority provided very general, rounded figures of jobs created. Exceptions were the ILO MDSF studies. The literature generally did not report on the influence of other factors.

Most studies (96%) mentioned that jobs were created, but only a few (18%) presented quantitative details about the number of jobs created, shown in **Error! Reference source not found.**. Most provided an indication of the total number in the period (mainly due to a project or program) but did not give details of progression over time. Most studies mentioned that jobs had been created in the local community or geographic area, and/or along the chain without specifying where, the types, how, when or for whom. Some jobs were also created indirectly as a result of project or program activities, such as in training, service provision and auditing arising due to setting up certification schemes. In 11% of studies it was mentioned that the desired impact of job creation was not achieved and in a few cases, interventions such as upgrading, outsourcing and value adding led to a decrease in work. The main factors seen as contributing to these negative impacts were productivity improvements and automation.

Figure 4. Impact of value chain interventions on number of jobs created
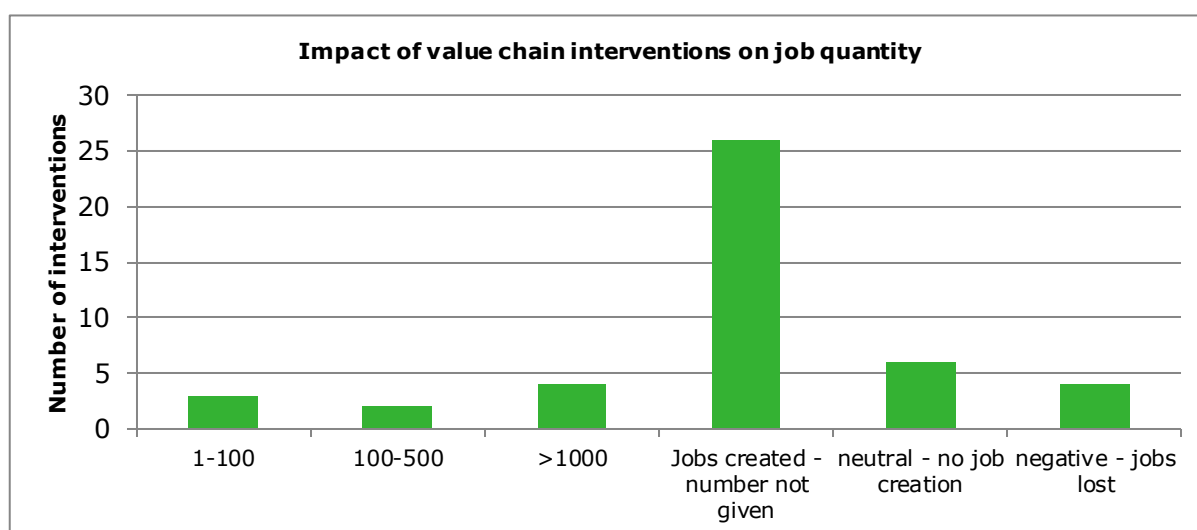
The majority of the literature reviewed concerns the numbers of jobs created due to interventions by companies, governments and due to actions from NGOs, CSOs and international organisations. This does not necessarily mean that these types of interventions are the most successful at creating work. It may be that these interventions are the most reported upon, evidenced by the majority of cases being documented in reports of development projects and programs.

Figure 5 shows that some 30% of the interventions reported that manual jobs were created an 30% of the interventions resulted in semiskilled jobs, an 9% in skilled.

Figure 5. Number of jobs created by job and sector type
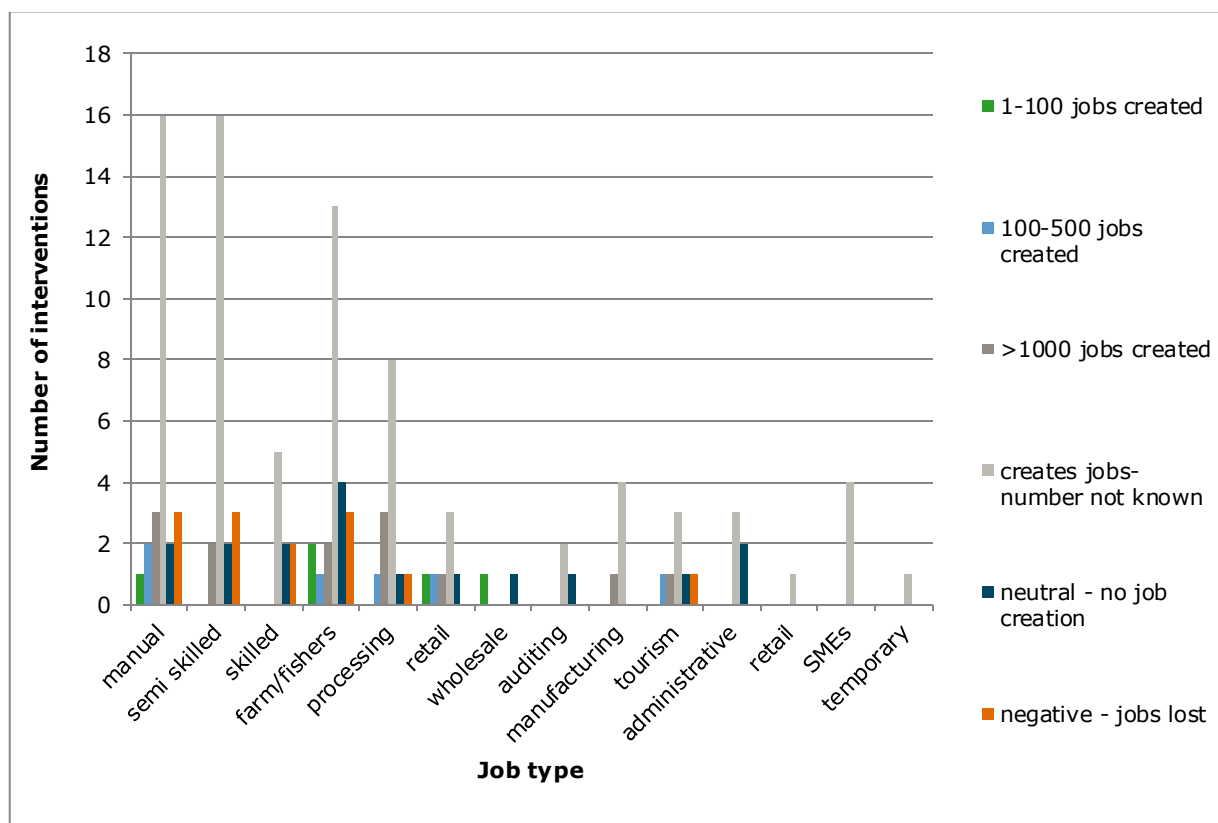
Despite the sparse documentation attributing job creation to value chain development projects, there are examples of where job creation was claimed, documenting the approach used. One such example is UNIDO's work with the Moroccan Ministry of External Trade, and the Moroccan Exporters' Association. Since 2004, these partners have collaborated to develop an export consortium via a project funded by the Italian Government. A national awareness campaign for SMEs jointly organized by various associations and chambers was conducted by UNIDO experts. Interested firms were organized in groups and supported to create consortia. UNIDO (2009) indicates that as a result of this, more than 100 enterprises, accounting for 14,000 jobs and covering ten industrial sectors in six regions, were actively involved in the project. All the consortia were supported to enhance their image, obtain preferential tariffs with service providers, participate in trade shows and commercial missions and some have also jointly undertook a modernization and upgrading process, including training facilities, internal restructuring and developing strategic information systems and new products. Such export consortia are considered by the Moroccan authorities to be an effective tool for market access and SME upgrading and modernization. They have been supported by other national agencies, for SME development and the Export Promotion Agency and by a government fund for export consortia which co-finances start-up tools and promotional activities for a three-year period.

Dinh et al. (2012) report on Ethiopia's experience of selling cut flowers in EU markets: where a single pioneering firm and subsequent support opened the door to an industry employing 50,000 workers. This was aided by facilitating access to land for strategic investors in the agriculture, livestock, and sustainable forestry sectors, through an inclusive and transparent process that brings clear benefits to local communities and mitigates environmental impacts. This was seen as essential to attracting good-practice new entrants (strategic first movers) i.e. 7 hectares was given to the first rose farm, creating the second largest national export industry. Interventions in the garment chain in Ethiopia led to US$8 billion in exports and created 1 million productive jobs. The government-led interventions which led to this impact included the setting up of a green channel for apparel at customs, the provision of free and immediate access to foreign exchange, reducing the cost of letters of credit, and setting up an industrial zone close to main port and airports to solve the most critical trade logistics issues and position Ethiopia to attract outside investors to lead the industry and reinforcing competitiveness by developing a competitive industry (i.e. using comparative advantages such as high-quality raw materials and cheap energy. Another example from Vietnam (Dinh et al., 2012) indicates that 600,000 productive jobs were created in the leather products sector by implementing policies focussing on sectors with competitive advantages, such as labour intensive sectors where labour is relatively low cost and productivity is high, and where the quality of raw materials is already high (leather in this case). Through a combination of improving trade logistics, creating links to increase access to processed leather, increasing incentives to invest in the supply chain, expanding the commercial production and sale of high-quality animal hides and aiding access to rural land for good practice farms to enable large-scale commercial herding enterprises. Also promoting better breeds, controlling cattle diseases, and enabling the use of cattle as collateral helped expand the capacity of small-scale operators to contribute to a larger supply of quality hides, and removing trade restrictions.

Dinh and colleagues also point out the importance of using national competitive advantage, such as cost advantages in labour-intensive manufacturing sectors, such as garments. Inflating economies and wages, such as in China, open an entry point for other low-wage producers, such as firms in Sub-Saharan Africa, if they can learn to compete with other low-income producers in South and East Asia. This illustrates that developing a small slice of the global apparel market can create many higher-productivity and higher-wage jobs in Sub-Saharan Africa. The report asserts that Sub-Saharan Africa can be competitive in light industries that do not require semiskilled workers, because there is a plentiful supply of trainable unskilled workers.

Davis (2003) reported on interventions in a South African Cape fishing village of 4,000 persons, where 700 new jobs were created as a result of a series of local initiatives that combine local government leadership with central government funds to stimulate private investment into tourist facilities. He also notes that this number may be exceptional, due to the natural attractions of the coastline and dynamism of local community leadership.

Webber and Labaste (2010) report on interventions in the dairy chain in Pakistan that resulted in around 7,000 jobs. They document a detailed SWOT and contextual analysis which provided the basis for interventions of what is seen as a replicable model: the identification of an intermediation opportunities for entrepreneurs to invest in simple refrigeration centres for the purchase and collection of milk which allowed an increase in the quality and supply of milk, and provided farmers with a sales outlet. This business model was widely replicated such that 30 months after efforts began, about 1,000 collection centres were operating. A public-private institution to promote the dairy sector facilitated the replication of the collection centres by promoting the business opportunity, soliciting applications for discounted farm cooling tanks (which the institution negotiated with the provider), and identifying commercially appropriate sites for centres.

The USAID post-conflict market development projects have used a value chain approach (USAID 2008), which in three cases (tourism and coffee in Rwanda, and dairy in Kosovo) were seen to have created jobs, attributed to:

- Participants identifying a specific growing market segment, learning about it through direct engagement with the market and sharing this information widely with other value chain participants.
- Focussing on building linkages both horizontally and vertically throughout the chain, as well as linking participants to service providers (for appropriate financial services, for example).
- Each value chain developed a collaborative relationship with government agencies to set policies supportive of value chain development.
- Private sector actors were willing to invest in upgrading the value chain, reflecting the strength of the market opportunity as well as the assessment that risks were manageable.
- Significant donor resources were used to launch the value chain, with subsidies primarily used to facilitate relationships, and create direct linkages to the market, to new technologies, and to service providers.

5.2 Large scale job creation

Four publications indicated large scale job creation, with over a 1,000 jobs created due to chain interventions. Davis (2003) reported on the results of tourism chain interventions in the Western Cape, South Africa, where dramatic impacts were noted in a former fishing village of 4,000 persons, and some 700 new jobs were created. But it was stated that this impact may be exceptional, both in terms of the natural attractions of the coastline and the dynamism of local community leadership. Other cases in the Eastern Cape were noted as less promising or incipient. Dinh et al. (2012) reported that government stimulated interventions in the Ethiopian coffee and cut-flower industries, resulted in domestic and export market orientated jobs and in Vietnam 450,000 direct jobs created in the agribusiness industry. Herr (2008) reported on the 'disappointing impact' of Livestock Development Instructors in North Central Province of Sri Lanka with nearly 50% less jobs created than foreseen (82) and that the results are difficult to attribute to the project. The main reasons cited were a lack of funds to pay for additional staff and equipment (such as vehicles and mobile phones).

Seville et al. (2011) provide an example concerning the impact of certification schemes. The report analyses lessons learned for the inclusion of poor producers in value chains. Because of this focus, most of the examples are about the job quality improvement and do not mention the creation of new jobs. One reference however was explicitly made to new jobs being created[6] by the Better Trading Company (BTC), an enterprise that connected international retailers with producers in low- and middle-income countries to supply good to international markets. To achieve scale in alleviating poverty while developing commercial returns, the BTC acts as an 'ethical agent' and provides market intelligence, business skills, technical skills and training to help producers deliver products that meet market and retail requirements. They use a variety of models to work as intermediary, which fit the existing context, stating for example, that:

> *"Cooperatives can be democratic and equitable, but they can also be vulnerable to bureaucracy and elite capture. Contract farming can be effective but can exploit farmers"*
> (p.16).

They facilitate transparency in trading relationships by encouraging fairer information flow about cost and margins and add a human factor by connecting producers face-to-face with retailers. This approach had helped small businesses to sell agricultural and horticultural products and created over 492 new jobs, increased 2,150 incomes and improved 8,600 livelihoods.

Webber and Labaste (2010) discuss the impacts different chain approaches and tools, illustrated by cases. One of the cases is the Blue Skies Holding Ltd in Ghana. This firm was established in 1998 and produces fresh chilli, pineapple, mango, watermelon, passion fruit and papaya for export. These products are certified to meet EuroGAP protocols and fruits are mainly sourced in Ghana's eastern and

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[6] Seville et al. (2011) Box 8 on page 30

central regions, with supply gaps being filled by imports. Since 2000 the company has grown tremendously. It began its operations with 38 workers and has since increased its workforce to 1000, over 60% is permanent staff. Growth is attributed to the company paying it farmers promptly with a higher price than other buyers. It does not provide credit, believing prompt payments are sufficient incentive for farmers to invest in their production. Blue Skies has also assumed technical and financial responsibility for certifying its suppliers (through training and education on EuroGAP standards) and support to improve local road facilities. The example shows a chain intervention initiated by a private party that leads towards mutual benefits for company and its small holder farmer suppliers.

UNIDO (2009) describe their support for value chain development and impacts. It focusses on private sector development solutions to promote agro-value chains through 1) assistance in the area of business development and industrial policy, 2) aid for institutions that support value chains, their structure and growth, and 3) interventions in value chains. The examples used to illustrate business development and industrial policy interventions provide little data on new jobs but more on aims. An intervention program for SME development in Viet Nam supported since mid-1990 aimed to double the registration of private enterprises from 250,000 to 500,000 between 2005 to 2010, resulting in 2.7 million jobs and improved export performance[7]. This case is typical of much of the grey literature reporting on project and program performance. From the 12 cases that illustrate the third type of interventions, an example is provided of Ethiopia's leather industry, which has been supported by UNIDO since 1990. Production increased with 200% to 20 million pairs attributed to interventions such as increasing the numbers of hides, implementation of new technologies and quality designs. Support was provided through a technology institute, a tannery treatment plant, promotion campaigns, and linking small clusters of footwear producers to shops and to contracts with German and Italian companies. Dinh et al. (2012) also identify this industry as promising and indicate how in Vietnam 600,000 jobs were created in the leather products sector.

These examples show that the chain interventions are embedded in a sector approach, at the national level, creating more jobs than in the individual chain interventions.

Davis and Rylance (2005) discuss the Beautiful Bulgaria project which created 2000 jobs in the construction sector in eleven cities. This was attributed to the support of micro and small companies as part of a local economic development project. Interventions included centres offering services, training, financial support at below market rates. The resulting jobs were temporary and there was limited evidence of technology transfer to the poorest participants. The authors conclude that a value chain approach is needed to integrate demand and supply policy issues with stakeholders (public, private companies, consumers and NGO) for more sustainable results.

A clear causal relationship or attribution between the intervention and the number of jobs created was generally lacking in the publications reviewed. The majority provided very general, rounded figures of jobs created. Exceptions were the ILO MDSF studies. The literature generally did not report on the influence of other factors.

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[7] If this concerns new jobs is not clear in the publication.

5.3 Intervening organisations and number of jobs created

Tables 1 to 3 provide an overview of the relationships between the reported impacts on the quantity of jobs crated and the intervention organisations and intervention owners (initiators). Unsurprisingly, companies are strongly implicated in both types of interventions.

Table 1. Type of intervening organisation and number of jobs created

Type intervening organisation	1-100	100-500	>1000	Jobs created- number not known	Neutral - no job creation	Negative - jobs lost
Company	2	1	1	14	6	2
Government	1	1	3	13	2	1
NGO/CSO	0	1	2	12	1	2
Employees	0	0	0	1	0	1
International development organisation	2	0	1	5	1	2
Certification	0	0	1	7	2	1
Community	0	0	0	3	0	1

Table 2. Intervening owner and number of jobs created

Job quantity impact/ Type intervening owner/agent	Company	Government	NGO/ CSO	International development organisation	Employees	Foreign government	Intl Convention agency
1-100	1	0	0	2	0	1	0
100-500	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
>1000	1	4	0	3	0	1	0
Creates jobs- number not known	15	12	7	13	0	4	2
Neutral - no job creation	4	2	2	4	0	1	0
Negative - jobs lost	2	3	2	3	0	2	1

Table 3. Type of intervening organisation and number of jobs created

Job quantity impact/ Type intervening organisation	Company	Government	NGO/ CSO	Employees	International development organisation	Certification agency	Community
1-100	2	1	0	0	2	0	0
100-500	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
>1000	1	3	2	0	1	1	0
Creates jobs- number not known	14	13	12	1	5	7	3
Neutral - no job creation	6	2	1	0	1	2	0
Negative - jobs lost	2	1	2	1	2	1	1

Examples were also provided about the role of public sector schemes by Dinh et al. (2012), where major public sector projects provided jobs as well as the infrastructure that subsequently aided employment creation in manufacturing. Whilst no **causality** was attributed, the literature suggests the following trends:

- The majority of studies did not specifically indicate the number of jobs and few appear to have generated large scale increases – regardless of how and by whom the intervention was initiated and implemented.

- Combinations of international and national governments, often with private sector and support organisations (bilateral donors, development organisations, international and local NGOs and CSOs and consultants) have been most commonly used. However, the efficacy of partnerships and combinations is not evident from the literature.

5.4 Job losses

The literature reviewed indicates that not all interventions are successes, and that in some cases jobs have been lost and job quality has been adversely affected. Whilst some are attributed to the interventions, other impacts are attributed to wider economic and social factors. For example, Webber and Labaste (2010) report on the Rwandan coffee chain, where despite significant interventions, highly volatile global market prices below production costs resulted in declining market share and actors in the chain losing money.

Hawkes and Ruel (2011) discuss how chain interventions resulted in the promotion of supermarkets and other modern retail outlets have grown rapidly, particularly in urban areas and in middle-income countries. This has led to small-scale farmers being squeezed out of growing lucrative markets because they are less able to produce high-value agricultural commodities in the quantity and quality demanded by consumers and supermarkets. This can also have non-work related social impacts, as dietary changes associated with such changed patterns of food demand away from starchy staples and toward meat, fish, dairy, fruits, vegetables, and processed foods production a set of negative health outcomes among consumers including obesity, hypertension, heart disease, and diabetes.

Lee et al. (2011) are not specific about the sector or numbers affected, but note that economic upgrading does not necessarily lead to social upgrading and that interventions to shift actors in chains to higher value-added activities does not necessarily lead to social upgrading, which entails improvement in workers' rights and entitlements, and enhancement of the quality of their employment. Whilst some workers may benefit from higher wages and strong labour standards, others, particularly women and migrant workers, economic upgrading may put them in highly flexible, unprotected and insecure work. Poor jobs are also fuelled by low productivity, subcontracting, and supplier struggles to meet buyers' requirements. Progress made in employment and wages may not extend to other job quality dimensions, such as freedom of association.

Memedovic and Shepherd (2009) report on job losses in cooperatives, in coffee, cocoa and other tropical commodities with state-run or influenced marketing systems which could not compete with private companies following liberalization and exported to lower value destinations. They also note that upgrading, such as automation, can result in a decrease in jobs.

UNIDO (2009) indicates that the changing environments associated with evolving markets highlight the challenges for actors involved in value chain development. They warn that not reviewing policy issues may impact on the structure and development of value chains, especially policies that support pro-poor value chains. This is particularly relevant for agro-value chains in developing countries, often characterized by the prevalence of traditional social norms and ties in which the poor may be negatively affected by chain actors and/or promoted activities. Quoting Altenburg (2006), net negative effects have occurred from interventions, for example, shifting from in-house production to external suppliers can reduce well-paid wage labour in a lead firm and increase the number of lower-pay jobs in supplier firms; inducing foreign companies to resort to local small-scale suppliers may favour technology transfers but reduce the efficiency of the supply chain; holding back concentration and internationalization in the retailing business may protect small enterprises but lead to higher consumer prices; higher social or environmental standards may reduce competitiveness vis-à-vis competitors with lower standards and may also lead to the exclusion of poor informal suppliers. The conclusion is that SMEs in developing countries face both opportunities and risks when they consider engagement in global value chains. This raises the questions of how policy makers and development assistance

agencies should deal with these trade-offs and how the long-term effects of engagement can be assessed.

5.5 Lessons concerning job quantity

The following lessons can be drawn from the literature reviewed about the type and duration of interventions which have resulted in improvements in the creation of jobs:

Interventions to improve market infrastructure have led to large number of jobs being created
A small number of interventions focussing on market information and infrastructure have led to large numbers of jobs being created. The most successful models (e.g. milk, leather, flowers) appear replicable to other countries.

Training and upgrading interventions have contributed to job creation
Interventions that focused on providing training and upgrading has resulted in skill transfer and to create or stimulate demands appear successful, for example in the South Africa cape.

Beware of temporary job creation from large scale interventions
Some examples of interventions designed to create large numbers of jobs resulted in short term, temporary and low skilled jobs, for example in Bulgaria.

Chain interventions are embedded in a sectoral approach
Interventions in chains which take a national and/or sectoral approach appear to result in large numbers of jobs. Such a sectoral interventions were reported to create more jobs than individual chain interventions. These interventions consisted of bundles of different activities focusing on different actors in different chains which support each other in a sector.

Facilitators play an important role in scaling up the number of jobs
Intermediaries - both public and private sector organisations – have linked organisations in chains horizontally and vertically. They have also aided the development of new chains by facilitating trading relationships. They have encouraged and create transparency and sharing of information about costs and margins, and stimulated business operating conditions that create mutual benefits such as the prompt payment of suppliers.

Adverse impacts from interventions should be expected
Interventions have led to indirect or wider impacts within a sector, associated chains and further along a chain, such as squeezing out, exclusion, and negative spill over effects along the chain, for example shifting from in-house production to external suppliers can reduce well-paid wage labour in a lead firm and increase the number of lower-pay jobs in supplier firms. The conclusion is that interventions can lead to both opportunities and risks. This raises the questions of how policy makers and development assistance agencies should deal with these trade-offs and how the long-term effects of interventions can be assessed.

A through market analysis helps design interventions that create large numbers of jobs
The examples of interventions in coffee and flowers in Ethiopia and in post-conflict countries, suggest that a through market analysis helps identify growing and attractive markets and develop non-traditional and traditional chains.

Combined government support and private sector investment in growth markets have created jobs
Positive job quality impacts have been created by combinations of national and international public, private and civil society organisations – suggesting that partnerships are needed and that (local) private sector investment in a chain (e.g. USAID, Davis 2003) is important to upgrade the chain, enter

growth markets and create jobs. Lessons drawn from examples of large scale job creation reportedly resulting from chain interventions include:

1. Support promising, innovating "winning enterprises" (i.e. already successful businesses) which are creating or entering new chains and markets and promising "growth" chains.
2. Encourage outside investors to creating or entering new chains and markets and which can play a leading role in developing the chain.
3. Create an attractive investment climate for such external investors.
4. Support targeted technical assistance programs on both product efficiency and quality in competitive in light industries where semi-skilled workers already present can easily transfer skilled already possessed (e.g. garments, shoes).
5. Support from and collaboration with national and local governments (both Vietnam and Ethiopia were noted by several authors, both of which have notably strong governments) to stimulate private sector initiatives and set policies supportive of those specific value chain developments.
6. Multiple government agencies can be used to provide technical, fiscal and financial support over long time periods (at least three years).
7. Provide an enabling business and trade environment, removing the most critical barriers.
8. Couple interventions with (international) finance (i.e. subsidies and grants) and technical assistance, to facilitate relationships, and create direct linkages to the market, to new technologies, and to service providers.
9. Facilitate wide exchange information between value chain participants and build platforms.
10. Aim for Interventions that build linkages both horizontally and vertically throughout the chain, as well as linking participants to service providers and to find (new) clients.
11. Involve private sector actors willing to invest in and upgrading of the value chain, reflecting the strength of the market opportunity as well as the assessment that risks were manageable.

6 Results concerning job quality

This chapter presents an overview of the evidence found in the 53 reviewed publications to answer the question: *What are the labour market outcomes of value chain interventions covering the quality of jobs created*?. It presents the evidence on the positive and negative impacts on job quality reported in the literature are presented, and the relationships between the types of organisations intervening in value chains and resulting impacts on job quality. The final section summarises lessons derived from the publications.

6.1 Positive job quality impacts

Half of the studies reviewed presented evidence on the quality of jobs. Except for literature that specifically looked at labour market interventions and some cases presented about impacts, most data presented was anecdotal. Changes in the quality of jobs attributed to chain interventions were generally briefly mentioned and not backed up by in depth examples with strong causal evidence presented. For example, job security impacts were reported by Hawkes (2011), using an example of vertical integration and contract farming resulting in contracts between manufacturers or retailers and farmers, where the company provides technical support to the farmer, and no donor intervention is involved. General Mills was cited as contracting farmers in China to grow corn for the company's food products, providing them with seeds and financing for purchasing inputs. Memedovic and Shepherd (2009) report on how interventions to support processing and marketing can result in price and income improvements, using the example of an African Development Fund intervention which provided 129 million US $ to the JE Ka Fere Association in Senegal to purchase rice-milling equipment. JE Ka Fere was established in 1997 bringing together 20 villages, specializing in quality rice processing and marketing. The association is funded by membership fees, sales commissions and threshing machine charges. It guarantees buying prices and sells, supported by Afrique Verte which facilitates (transparent) negotiations between producers and traders.

Training was commonly reported in 52% of the publications as having occurred with unspecified (inferred positive) impacts on job quality, working conditions, and skills, for example Herr (2008), Memedovic and Shepherd (2009), Paudelm et al. (2009), Resolve Inc. (2012), Ruben (2008) and Rydberg and Smeets (2007).

Social upgrading of workers appears more effective and manageable in local agricultural chains, particularly when producer organisations are involved, than international agricultural food chains, according to Lee et al. (2011) and Memedovic and Shepherd (2009).

RESOLVE (2012) and ITC (2011) both report on private standards for producers, focussing on job quality than creation. The reports indicate that interventions such as standards and certification schemes led to a number of positive job quality outcomes:

1. Producers tend to be better off financially when participating in private standards, however sometimes earnings do not compensate for additional labour costs of complying with standards and that oversupply is possible.

2. Other non-income positive effects can outweigh direct financial impact of private standards. These include better relationships between buyers and sellers, guaranteed sales, enhanced quality.

3. Closer relationships between buyers and sellers led to better performance of producers and exporters, especially in mission-driven chains. When private standard products commoditize the relationships become less close.

4. Private standards are a tool in a broader set of voluntary and regulatory options. Programs that address multiple areas such as technical support, training and pre-financing are consistently linked to positive results at the producer level.

5. Local conditions are important and a more solid knowledge based is needed on which to act.

The majority of impacts mentioned concerned positive impacts on empowerment (particularly skills enhancement and increased knowledge or capacities via training) and improved working conditions and rights. Empowerment of specific actors to enter chains and improve their incomes or wages from the chain activity was also mentioned. Mostly these impacts were not quantified but described qualitatively . in terms of the indicators detailed in section 7.2, such as job security, working conditions etc. Job security was mentioned specifically related to aspects such as joining global chains and making agreement or contracts with major buyers or suppliers. This was particularly related in cases about certification, where job or work in a chain became more formal and secure through contracts.

Figure 6. Impact of value chain interventions on job quality
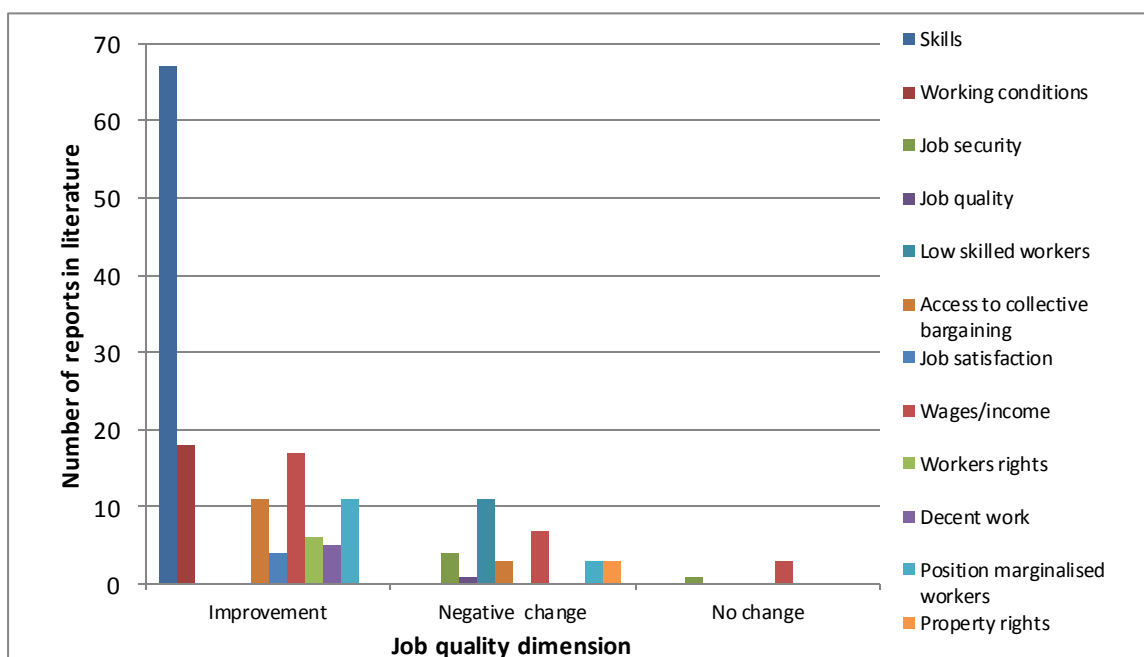
Figure 7 provides details of studies mentioning both job quality and job quantity. Positive impacts on skills and working conditions were reported in all categories where jobs were created, and also when jobs were lost, job quality was reported to improve. Apparent contradictions such as job security improving although jobs were lost, were found in i.e. Lee et al (2011) and UNIDO (2009).

Figure 7. Job quality and job quantity
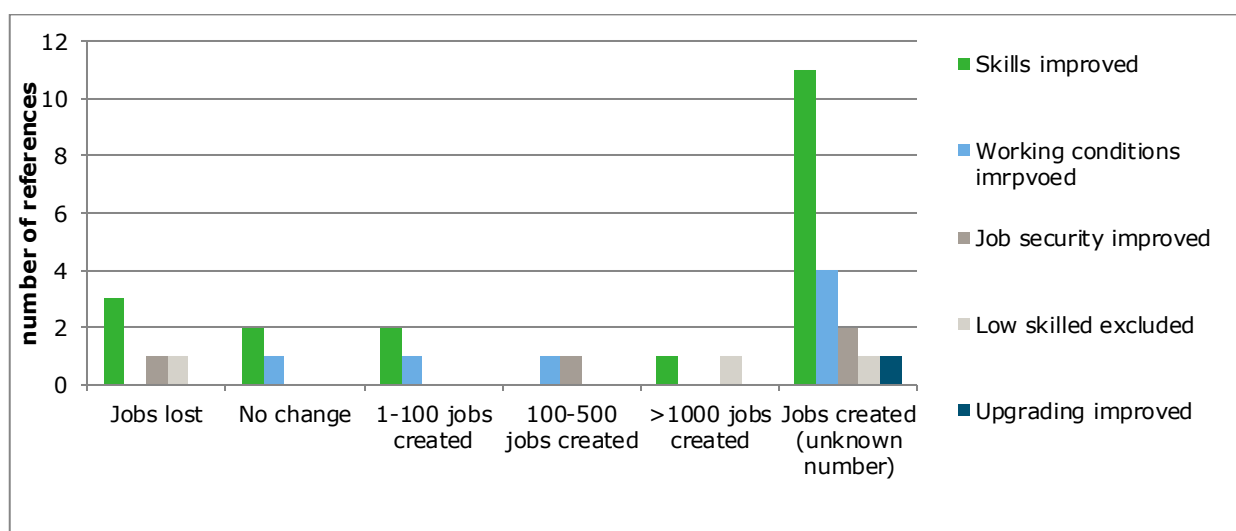
6.2 Negative job quality impacts

It is notable that negative impacts were also evidenced in a number of studies. For example Lee et al. (2011) reported on negative impacts from the globalisation of chains on job quality, and Colombo – MDF-SA (2008), de Kok et al (2013), Lee et al 2011) and Memedovic and Shepherd (2004) all indicated that interventions could result in decreased job security.

Chain interventions could also result in exclusion of mainly specific groups of people from value chains or resulted in decreasing wages (Davis 2003, Delahunty-Pike 2012, Flora and Bendini 2007, Lee et al. 2011, Lopez Acevedo et al 2012, Memedovic and shepherd 2009, Resolve Inc. 2012, Ruben 2008, Tallontire et al. 2012, UNIDO 2009 and van Stel 2013) . This concerned upgrading and value adding interventions that resulted in exclusion of (often) marginal and low skilled people from a chain. Negative impacts were also noted when access to upgraded chain(s) changed with requirements such as membership of formal organisations or collective arrangements e.g. as in certification where membership of a producer group was mentioned as obligatory. The effect is then to include some people and groups, as well as excluding others. This was in some cases, people or groups of people that were already very vulnerable, marginalised or those with little access to various capitals (finance, information, resources, land etc.)

6.3 Intervening organisations and job quality impacts

The tables below (4 and 5) highlight where the main impacts on job quality were found in relation to the types of organisations intervening and the owners or agents behind interventions.

Table 4. Job quality and type of intervening organisation

Job quality/Type intervening organisation	Company	Government	NGO, CSO	Employees	International development organisation	Certification /standards schemes	Community
Skills improvement	15	18	12	3	8	9	3
Training	16	12	12	2	8	8	3
Improves working conditions	11	5	6	1	4	10	1
Negative impact job quality	1	0	0	0	0	0	0

Impact on job quality/	Company	Government	NGO/CSO	International development org	Employees	Foreign government	International convention
Improves job security	8	4	6	2	1	2	1
No change in job security	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Decreases job security	3	2	1	0	0	0	0
Exclusion of low skilled workers	6	4	5	2	2	3	1
Upgrading & adding value	6	3	3	1	2	2	2
Access to collective bargaining	4	5	5	3	1	2	2
No access to collective action	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Increase job satisfaction	2	1	3	0	0	1	0
Increased wages/income	8	9	7	3	3	5	2
Same (no change) wages/income	3	3	0	0	0	0	0
Decreased wage/income	4	3	4	1	1	4	1
Better workers' rights	3	1	3	0	0	3	0
Decency of work	3	1	3	0	0	2	0
Empowered marginalised	4	4	5	1	2	2	0
Unequal access to work	2	0	1	0	0	1	0
Decrease access to collective	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Increase in marginalisation	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
Negative issues property rights	0	3	2	0	1	0	0

Table 5. Job quality impacts and type of intervention owner

Impact on job quality/	Type intervention owner						
	Company	Government	NGO/CSO	International development org	Employees	Foreign government	International convention
Skills improvement	15	18	12	3	8	9	3
Training	16	12	12	2	8	8	3
Improves working conditions	11	5	6	1	4	10	1
Negative impact job quality	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Improves job security	8	4	6	2	1	2	1
No change in job security	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Decreases job security	3	2	1	0	0	0	0
Exclusion of low skilled workers	6	4	5	2	2	3	1
Upgrading & adding value	6	3	3	1	2	2	2
Access to collective bargaining	4	5	5	3	1	2	2
No access to collective action	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Increase job satisfaction	2	1	3	0	0	1	0
Increased wages/income	8	9	7	3	3	5	2
Same (no change)	3	3	0	0	0	0	0

wages/income							
Decreased wage/income	4	3	4	1	1	4	1
Better workers' rights	3	1	3	0	0	3	0
Decency of work	3	1	3	0	0	2	0
Empowered marginalised	4	4	5	1	2	2	0
Unequal access to work	2	0	1	0	0	1	0
Decrease access to collective	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Increase in marginalisation	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
Negative issues property rights	0	3	2	0	1	0	0

Whilst causality cannot be attributed, the main conclusions that can be drawn from this are:

- Certification based interventions generally positively impact workers' rights and working conditions, however a quantitative assessment is lacking.

- NGOs, international organisations and governments have been driving forces behind impacting workers' rights and working conditions through the introduction of conventions related guidelines and programs that support raising awareness of these conventions, their monitoring and enforcement (i.e. in the garment and cocoa chains).

- Governments and international organisations have focused on interventions that reported impacts of increased skills and training, generally as part of projects and program interventions as ways to enhance the position of jobholders position in chains (empowerment) and/or to allow entry to local and or global chains with resulting job quality impacts.

- Governments have also focused interventions with impacts to increase wages and incomes through chain interventions such as joint interventions with private sector where the government provides policy, legal, infrastructure and/or financial (such as tax incentives, land and grants) enabling environment more conducive to promote activities in a chain.

- NGOs and CSOs have focused mainly on project based interventions that were not specifically aimed at achieving labour market outcomes, for example food and nutritional security (Hawkes and Ruel 2011, ADB 2013), improving gender relations (Farnworth et al. 2013 and Flintan 2008), and sustainable food production (Flood 2012, Hafid et al. 2013, ITC 2011). The impact of such interventions were largely reported upon job quality, particularly on changing inequalities such as access to chains, using interventions such as certification, training, and raising awareness of workers' rights and wage levels.

Apparent trends from the literature reviewed are that many intervening organisations focus on skills improvement and training whereas companies, international development organisations and certifications focus on improving working conditions, while government and NGO's focus on increasing wages and income.

For example, Hawkes and Ruel (2011) report on the results on employment in global dairy supply chains: dairy farmers not supported by interventions earned about 52% less (about $710 a year) than those supported ($1,077 a year), and smallholder dairy farmers in milk collection centres supported earned more than $2.7 million over the life of the project. The infusion of cash into the rural economy from dairy sales also had a ripple effect on many other economic activities for thousands of additional households in these dairy communities. These spill over effects included employment opportunities for community livestock workers, artificial insemination technicians, milk transporters, and dairy retail sellers. Almost all smallholder dairy farmers, whether or not they delivered milk to a collection centre, reported practicing some form of barter, exchanging milk for services (such as labour on household fields) or commodities (such as maize or other foods), resulting in positive economic development multiplier effects within their vulnerable communities.. This study indicates how attribution of impacts

to an intervention has been made and the importance of using indicators that measure the possible wider spill-over effects of interventions.

6.4 Lessons concerning job quality

The following lessons can be drawn from the literature reviewed about the type and duration of interventions which have resulted in improvements in job quality:

Training is a common intervention resulting in job quality improvements
Just over half of publications report that job quality was enhanced because of training, specifically in working conditions and skills.

Certification standards enhanced job quality over a longer term
The publications on certification provided examples of how job quality has been enhanced. These interventions generally have been introduced and up-scaled to impact larger numbers of people over a period of several years. They are designed to create longer term chain transformations. Certification was most successful when famers and fishers were linked to chains already and organised into groups, increasing their bargaining position and allowing them to gain economies of scale. These studies point to the importance of training, support and monitoring (i.e. through auditing) to ensure skills and knowledge learnt are implemented and that improvements in, for example, working conditions (i.e. reducing child labour, using protective equipment), are achieved.

Job quality isn't always the main focus of certification – but has been an often observed impact
Different voluntary certification schemes have different focuses, some with a much stronger a focus on improving social and labour issues. Most of these schemes however noted having some positive impacts on job quality. The approaches used by certification schemes (often using collective action, the provision training and support to reach certain clearly specified standards, the use of third party auditing and monitoring, clear indicators and the use of baseline and impact assessments) provide lessons that could be valuable in achieving job quality improvements by other interventions.

Upgrading interventions need to be integrated along the chain
Upgrading type interventions have generally focused on improving skills. They tend to have been implemented as isolated projects focussing on specific groups, not making connections or assessing impacts on other actors in chains.

Interventions can provoke exclusion in labour markets
Some of the publications emphasised that interventions can also result in exclusion to labour markets. , For example, an impact of certification is to create a market barrier to entry for those not able to be become certified, which can result in some people to becoming more vulnerable and subject to poor working conditions.

7 Results on intervention characteristics and indicators

This chapter presents an overview of the key characteristics of the interventions documented in the 53 reviewed publications and the indicators used to measure labour market outcomes of value chain interventions in terms of the quantity and quality of jobs created. First, it presents characteristics of the interventions, and evidence of different types of labour market impacts. It describes the types of impact, and, where possible, the pathways by which impacts were achieved. The different indicators used to measure impacts are summarised.

7.1 Interventions

A value chain intervention was defined for this study as consisting of at least one activity aiming at one of the three strategies. Interventions include those by private, public, non-profit, donor and government actors. This aimed to characterise the "approach" used in the interventions, where this was provided.

7.1.1 Intervention types

Two thirds of the studies reviewed described the intervention, such that 22% could be classified as a direct intervention in a value chain on labour market aspects. The majority (78%) of studies did not concern interventions with a direct focus on labour markets, but the impact on the labour market was indirect (i.e. was not the main aim of the intervention) or secondary. A small proportion (9%) of the literature reviewed concerned sector interventions and 11% concerned mainly local economic (development) interventions. Using the classifications developed by Tallontire et al. (2012) and Seville et al. (2011) described in Section 5, The following types of interventions were found in the literature reviewed:

1. **Interventions to adapt or change trading relationships**

   a. Interventions to improve structures for collaboration between actors and improve their decision making such as platforms, networks, associations (among groups at stages in the chain and chain wide) and "Interprofessions".
   b. Interventions which support or develop decision making and implementation of norms, standards concerning volumes and pricing i.e. through international conventions (i.e. garments) and certification standards (i.e. for agricultural and animal products).
   c. Interventions that set minimum buying prices e.g. via certification standards to ensure fairer sharing of benefits and risk.
   d. Certification (e.g. Rainforest Alliance, Fair Trade, GlobalGap) which encompasses upgrading of production and processing requirements and adapting trading relationships.

2. **Interventions to improve market infrastructure**

   a. Providing or improving (access to) financial and non-financial services e.g. credit.
   b. Creating or improving exchanges between buyers and sellers e.g. meetings, fairs and exchanges.
   c. Creating or improving (access to) market information.

3. **Upgrading interventions**

a. Actions to include or improve the position of specific groups (i.e. women, youths, ethnic groups, marginalised or disadvantaged peoples) or allow their entry into a chain through the provision of training and/or skills.

7.1.2 Chain wide and segment interventions

The number of interventions mentioned in each publication was not always clearly defined, and so was not counted. Some studies mentioned discrete interventions in specific locations with specific timescales (for example, Unilever and Rainforest Alliance certification related interventions in the tea chains in India and Kenya (Somo 2011), and the IFC's training interventions in the garment chain in Sri Lanka (MDF-SA Colombo 2008). In contrast, other studies discussed many interventions in broad geographic areas or did not note specific countries, such as upgrading interventions in the garment chain across the Asian region (Memedovic 2004). Other publications mentioned interventions very generally, for example, the impacts of certification generally in tea chains in on prices in South Africa and Kenya in the RESOLVE study (2011). This makes it difficult to define what an intervention is, as the time and geographic scale, and components of an 'intervention' varied widely. This finding echoes that of the IFC private sector development meta-evaluation study (Paniagua, 2012).

It is notable that whilst the majority of studies talk about "value chain" interventions, most are in fact restricted to interventions which focused on only one or two segments of a chain. Examples of publications that take a full value chain approach include Barrientos' (2008) study of women working as suppliers in the chains of multinationals, Davis and Relance (2005) on local econmic development interventions, Delahunty-Pike (2008) on the charcoal chain in Kenya, Farnworth et al. (2013) on African agricutlral chians, Hakemulder (2008) on local vegetable chains in Sri Lanka, and the studies on certifcation (ITC 2011, Blackmore et al 2012, Floor et al 2012, Hafid et al 2013, Memedovic and shepherd 2009, Resolve Inc. 2012, Romijn 2012, Ruben 2008, Slob and Oldenzeil 2003, Slob 2006, Somo 2011, Webber and Labaste 2010).

Lund-Thomsen et al. (2012) argue that current debates on the role of labour in global value chains have to go beyond a narrow focus on labour standards and corporate social responsibility complian ce and engage with economic, technological, and social upgrading as factors that could generate sustained improvements in real wages and workers' conditions.

7.1.3 Intervention agents

Multiple intervening partners are common. Two thirds (67%) of the studies reviewed indicated what type of organisation(s) were intervening in the chains. Most common were companies (53%), the government (47%) of where one part of the chain was located and often supporting, international governments. Non-profit or non-government and civil society organisations also intervened in nearly a third of cases (32%). This finding suggests that involving multiple partners may be important to stimulate job quality and quantity. Often non-profit and civil society organisations were involved in the implementation of the intervention and in evaluation or monitoring of the intervention and reporting. This raises questions about the possible conflict of interest of the author(s) for a quarter of the studies reviewed.

Figure 8. Type of organisation intervening in the chain
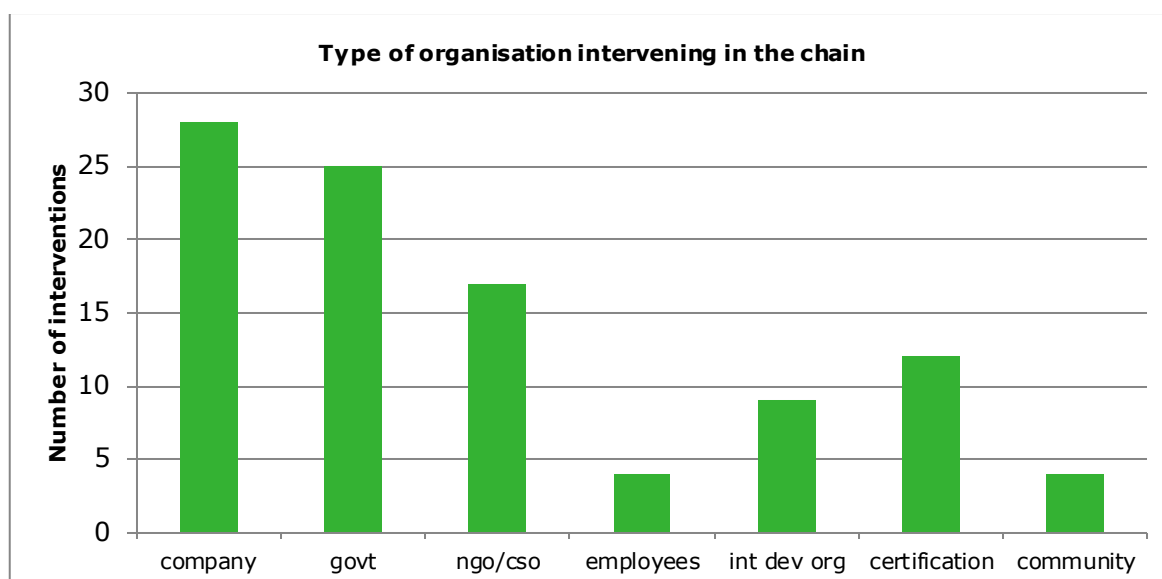
Many of the interventions had different "owners" (i.e. those who initiated and or financed the intervention) compared to those organisations implementing the value chain intervention. Multiple intervening agents were common, shown in the table below, illustrating that most common interventions reported were combinations of private sector (companies), governments and NGOs.

Table 6. Intervention owner and types of organisations intervening in value chains

Type of intervention owner	Type of intervening organisation						
	Company	Government	NGO/ CSO	Employees	(Inter)national development organisation	Certification	Community
Company	28	12	9	3	4	9	4
Government	12	25	4	3	4	3	2
NGO/CSO	9	4	17	1	3	6	3
Employees	3	3	1	4	1	1	2
Int. Dev. Org	4	4	3	1	9	2	2
Certification organisations	9	3	6	1	2	12	1
Community	4	2	3	2	2	1	4

In the case of the Rwanda coffee value chain, both the government and a coffee company were the intervening organisations, while USAID supported the project (Dudwick and Srinivasan, 2013, p.66). Examples of multiple intervening agents were common in the certification related literature, which detailed how companies, support NGOs or CSOs, and sometimes national governments or their agencies in the origin and consumption ends of value chains collaborated to result in job quality impacts (Blackmore et al. 2012; Resolve Inc. 2013). Some studies reported on interventions made by governments and NGOs or CSOs, such as in some of the 55 donor rural non-farm economic and livelihood diversification projects reported by Davis (2003). In job creation interventions in poor, rural and 'disadvantaged' regions it is common to see government support and collaboration with companies with combined or complementary interventions was also common (e.g. de Kok et al. 2013; Flood et al. 2012; Hakemulder 2008; Nora and Srinivasan 2013).

7.1.4 Intervention owner

The owner of the intervention (the type of organisation which undertook the intervention), was clear in 96% of the studies reviewed, shown in Figure 9. In most cases, the intervention was by companies, governments and development organisations – such as intergovernmental organizations (United Nations agencies, World Bank etc.) and (international and local) non-governmental organisations (NGOs). This indicates that around half of the interventions are external, as they have not been undertaken by direct actors (e.g. employees, farmers, producers, processors, retailers, consumers etc.) in the chains. Notably, no interventions by consumers were detailed in the literature reviewed.

Governments ranked highly as intervention owners due to their role as financers of projects, as in the case of the development of Ethiopia's first rose farm in 2000, Golden Roses, which triggered a competitive rose export industry and was supported by funds from the Ethiopia Development Bank and the national government (Dinh 2012).

Figure 9. Type of intervention owner
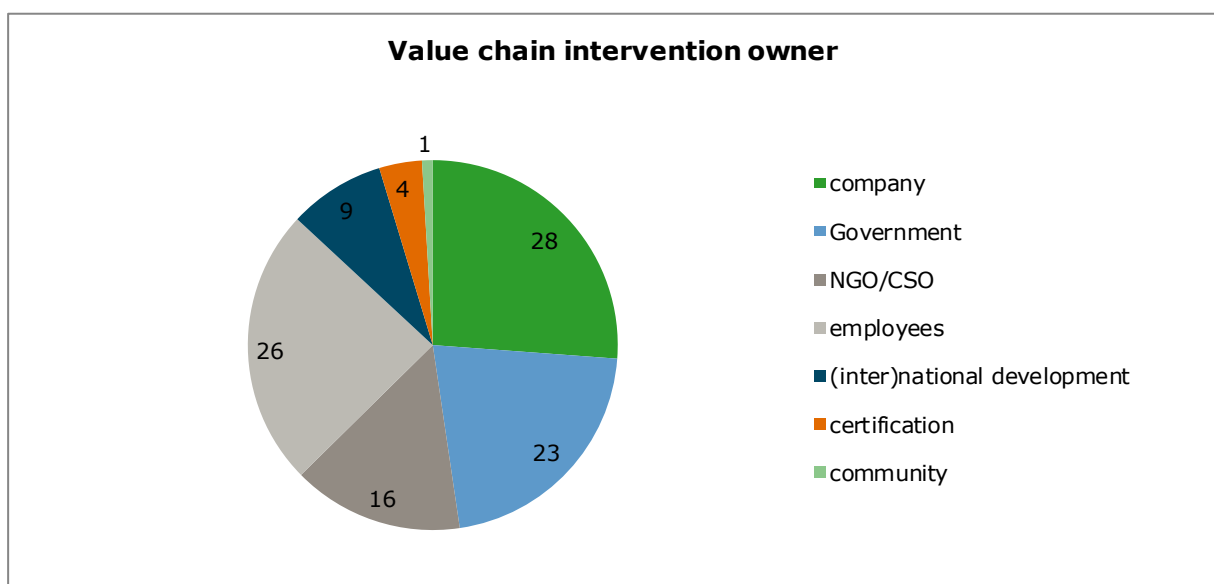
Examples of intervention owners which were certification organisations are Rainforest Alliance, UTZ Certified and CAFÉ. These standards organisations were reported to have rapidly expanded, particularly when used by multinational enterprises such as Kraft Foods, Sara Lee and Starbucks respectively (Blackmore et al. 2012). These examples illustrate that interventions from stakeholders in a chain can have positive labour market outcomes.

7.1.5 Types of chains

The majority of evidence reviewed concerned agricultural, fisheries and natural resource based food chains. Manufacturing, particularly of garments and footwear, was the second most common chain presented in the literature. Their more frequent occurrence may be linked to interventions in these chains with the aim of addressing high-profile cases of very poor working conditions and human rights concerns, which have generated significant media and public attention.

The literature reviewed documented evidence of both interventions in global (58%) and local chains (57%). The majority of the literature reviewed (53%) focused on global chains that originate in developing countries. There was also substantial focus (40%) on local chains in developing countries.

Examples of global chains were multinational business operators upgrading their local supply and the certifications organisations that improve farmers producing for global markets, as examples above show. Le Nguyen Doan et al. (2012) report on interventions in the chain for export market access for

high-quality aquaculture pangasius fish from Vietnam. Lopez Acevedo et al. (2012) detail the Multi-fibre Arrangement Agreement on Textiles and Clothing (MFA/ATC) quotas has affected Bangladesh, Cambodia, Honduras, India, Mexico, Morocco, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, and Vietnam to understand the links between the agreement, globalization and poverty in the garment producing countries. Lund Thomsen et al. (2012) report on labour impacts in football manufacturing global chains originating from China, India and Pakistan.

Examples of literature that focus on local or national markets with positive job creation and quality improvement impacts, are the ILO-supported local value chain development projects for ornamental fish in Polonnaruwa (MDF- SA Colombo, 2008a), the impact of further education colleges in providing training and development of smaller and medium-sized enterprises in England and Wales (Allen 2000), gender equality in different chains in Asia (Asian Development Bank 2013).

Hakemulder (2008) provides an example of interventions to a local chain for vegetables in Sri Lanka aimed at pro-poor economic growth and quality employment for women and men, through an integrated program for development of micro and small enterprises in two provinces with a high incidence of poverty, with interventions addressing issues at the national level to enhance impacts.

Paudulem et al. (2009) report on the local chain for non-timber forest products from Baglung district, Nepal. The primary objective of the intervention was to assess the constraints and opportunities to run the non-timber forest products based enterprises, and to design business solutions to make their value chains more efficient and competitive with the best utilization of available resources.

Rydberg (2007) detail the interventions (loans and support to entrepreneurs set up business, technical advice and links with a major production company) in a local dairy chain in Kurunegala District in Sri Lanka. After 16 months this resulted in stakeholders in the chain forming a platform which stakeholders attributed to contributing to implementing a new chain and to building capacity, increased production, increased demand for milk, enhanced quality products and prices (hence incomes).

Figure 10. Type of value chain were interventions occurred
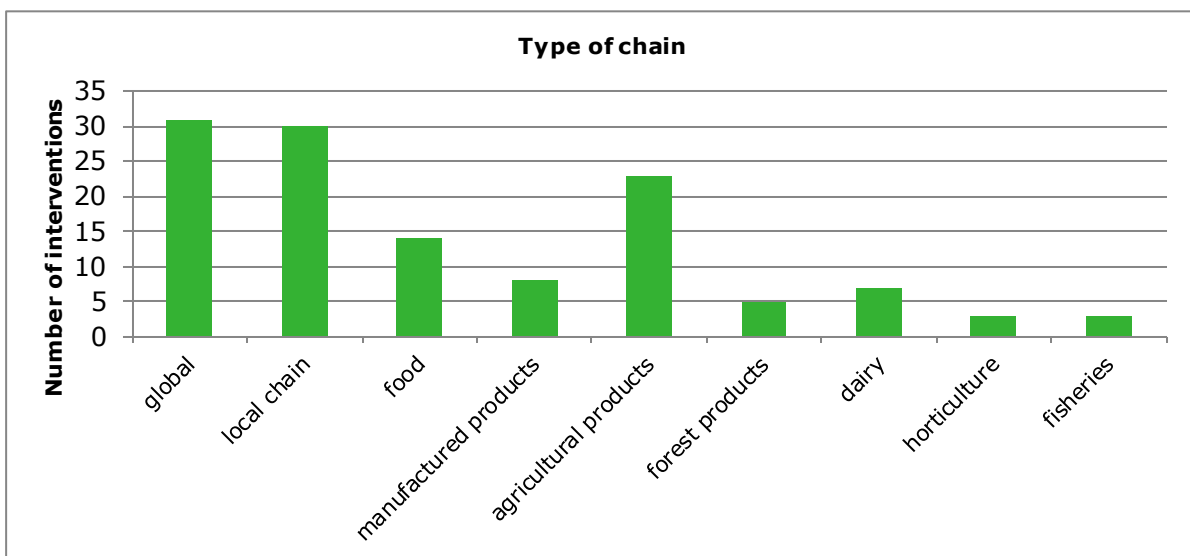
Table 7. Number of interventions per chain type and level of development

Type of chain and location	Country level of development		
	Developing	Developed	Medium
Global	28	2	0
Local chain	21	4	1
Food	10	2	1
Manufactured product	7	0	0
Agricultural product	20	3	1
Forest product	4	1	0
Dairy	5	0	0
Horticulture	3	1	0
Fisheries	3	1	0

It is notable that literature is absent for chains based on other natural resources e.g. minerals, metals, oil and gas.

7.1.6 Types of job holders

The majority of studies did not clarify the extent to which beneficiaries of interventions were self-selecting or selected. In the certification-based studies for example (Resolve 2011, ITC 2012, SOMO 2011), producer group organisations appeared to have been generally selected for interventions, whilst individual farmer participation in a scheme was voluntary. Most evidence was presented about farmers (43%) and people working in the manufacturing sector (17%). One third of the literature reviewed reported on a specific focus on (improving or attention to) gender roles in value chains and interventions, particularly focussing on women in the workplace. These generally did not compare work quantity or quality of men and women resulting from interventions, but how to improve women's roles in the chain and their share of benefits.

An example of this is the girl child labour and unemployed women in hybrid cottons seed project, reported in Kapur and Duvvury (2006). This had as a primary objective women's capacity building in advocacy and lobbying. Another aim was to facilitate women's groups to conduct seed production activities, thereby helping to dispel myths about the inability of adult women to work in cottonseed production and demonstrating new ways to create employment in the agricultural sector. The results were increased women's capacity to advocacy and lobby, and that women's groups were able to conduct seed production activities, helping to dispel myths about the inability of adult women to work in cottonseed production and demonstrating new ways to create employment in the agricultural sector.

Figure 11. Type of job holder impacted by chain interventions
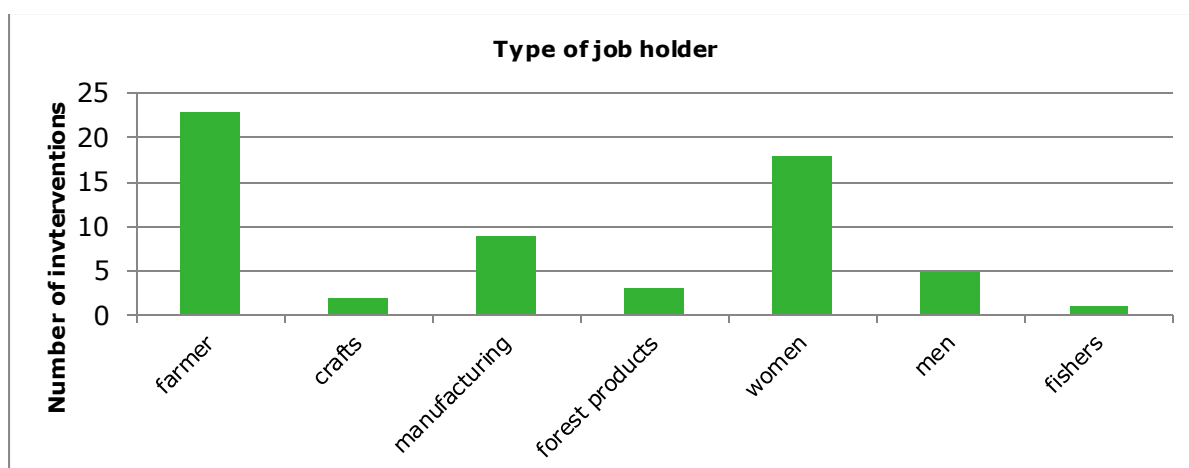
7.1.7 Geographic location of evidence

Most evidence was presented about chains originating in Asia and Africa. Nearly a fifth (10) of the studies concerned reviews and summaries of several different cases, sometimes presenting data on impacts or outcomes globally from many different interventions.

Figure 12. Geographic location of evidence
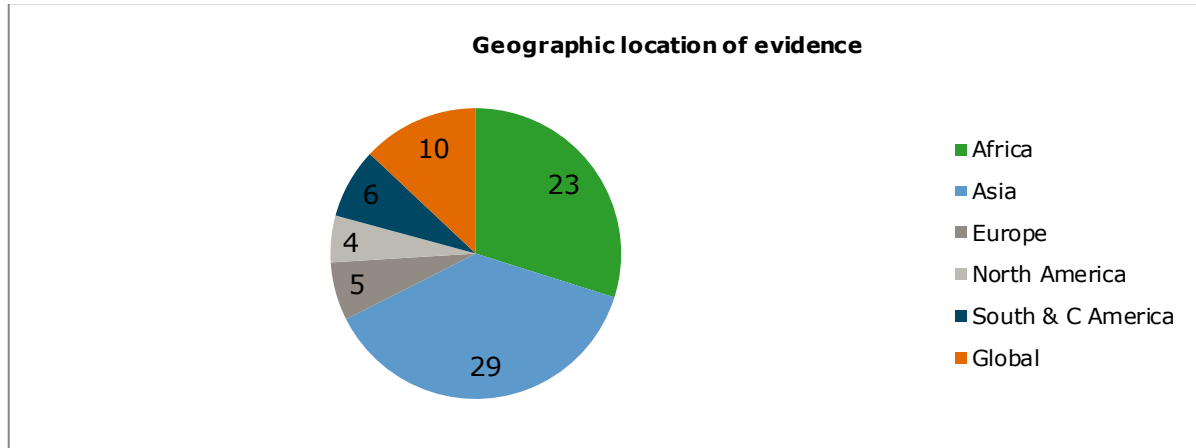
The majority of studies (85%) concerned interventions in chains located at least partially in countries with a low to medium level of development. A small proportion (9%) of studies concerned developed countries, mainly in Europe or the USA. These concerned chains located in poor or disadvantages regions. The similarities in the issues described in these studies indicate that similar issues are found globally, regardless of the level of development, and potential to learn and share lessons.

Figure 13. Level of development of countries where value chain interventions reported
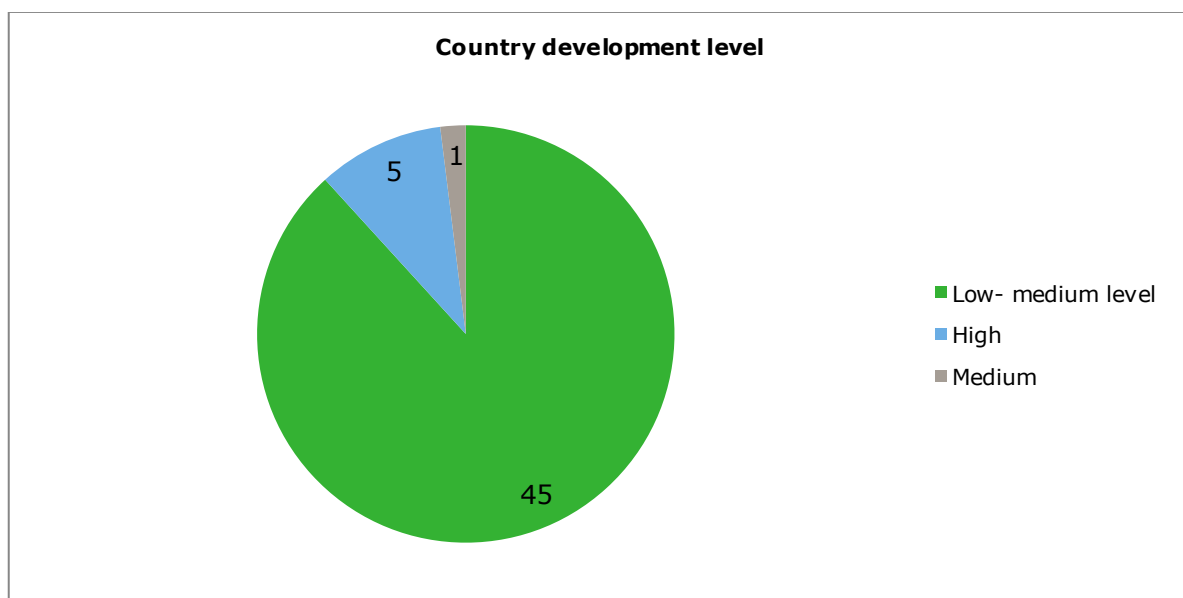
Examples include the Bulgarian (a medium development level country) JOBS project, executed by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy with the support of the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) from 2001. The project aimed to enhance the economic development of regions with high unemployment levels by creating a sustainable environment for job generation through support to

micro- and small companies and agricultural producers. It created 24,000 months of work and trained 2,548 unemployed people (Davis, 2005). However, this appears mainly temporary, short term jobs.

7.1.8 Frequency and duration of interventions

Most studies (75%) did not provide clear details of the frequency and duration of the interventions made, with only 25% providing specific details. Many of the studies reported on what were classified as specific time bound interventions, made as part of policies, programs or projects.

Figure 14. Frequency of value chain interventions over time
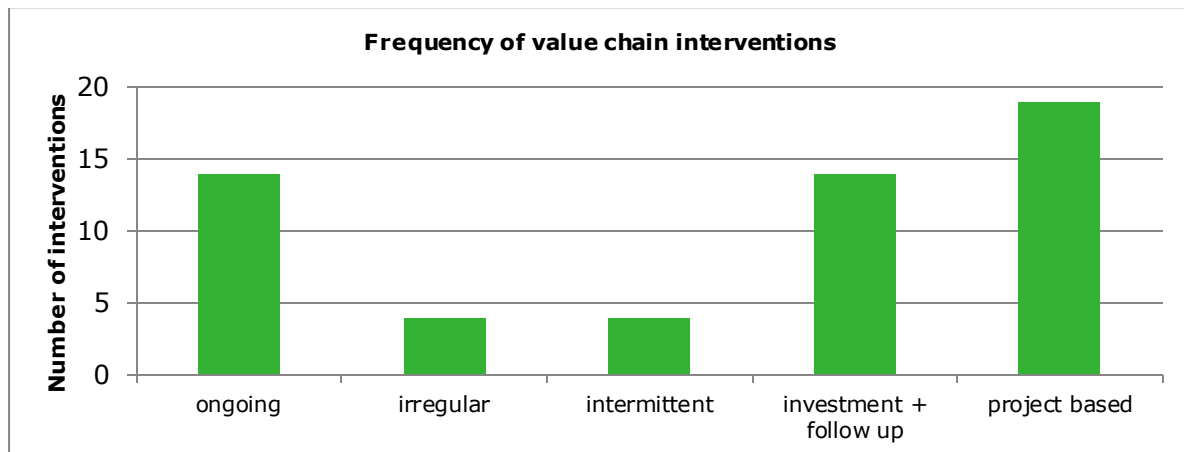
Most of the on-going projects concerned certification initiatives both by certification organisations and multinational companies, such as the tea value chain interventions by Unilever and partners reported in the SOMO study (2011).

Most literature (68%) specified the time period of the intervention(s). However, as many of the interventions were displayed as cases, often in less than a page, many details were not provided, making comparability of the intervention and the resulting impacts difficult. Explanations include the timescale of the interventions compared to the total timescale of a project, program or policy. For those studies that did specify timescales, most appeared to be implemented for a medium term. This is important as over half of the interventions documented appear to take several years before impacts were discernible (i.e. to move from awareness raising, training or knowledge sharing to actual changes in jobs or work). However this finding may also be due to the time selected by either monitoring or evaluation of projects and programs, or due to the time period selected by the author of the study.

Figure 15. Time period of value chain interventions
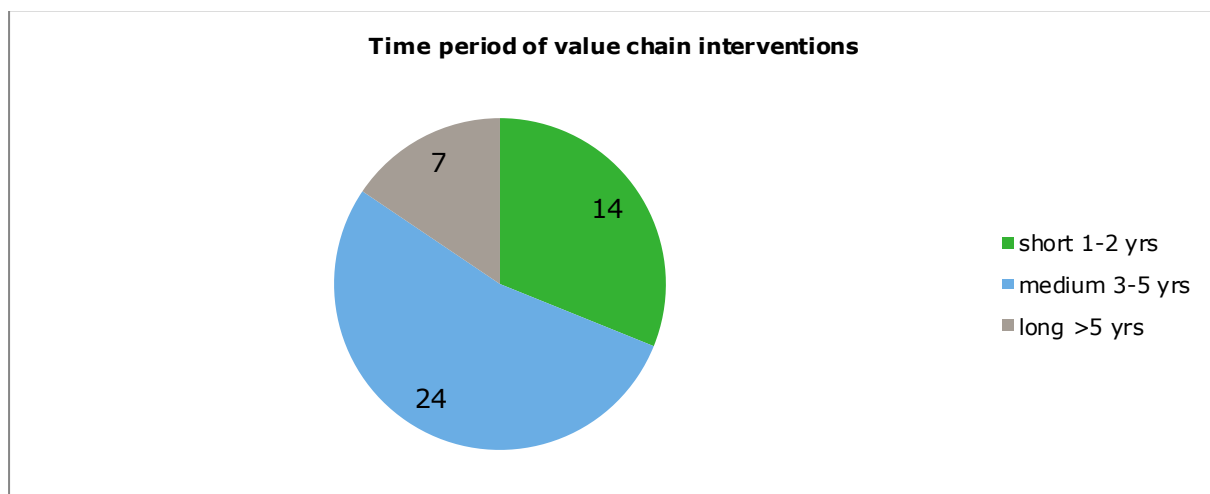
Examples of short term interventions include women's rights projects in India (Kapur and Duurvy 2006), the ILO chain interventions reported by MDF (Herr 2008, MDF 2008, Colombo MDF a, b 2008), in the charcoal chain in Kenya (Delahunty-Pike 20102). Examples of medium term interventions include most of the many certification schemes reported by Blackmore et al. (2012) and cocoa certification in Indonesia (Hafid et al 2013), and gender interventions in agricultural chains in Africa (Farnworth et al 2013). Long-term interventions tended to be those owned and implemented by companies, such as agro-food chains in the USA (Flood et al. 2012) and some of the certification initiatives (such as reported by Resolve Inc. (2012) and ITC (2011). These studies offer inspiration for The Lab on how to set up action research on value chain interventions.

7.1.9 Types of jobs/work created

Most (83%) of studies presented evidence about the types of jobs created. These mainly focused on farmers/fishers (51%), manual work (42%), semi-skilled work (42%) and processing (21%). This could be explained by the predominance of articles focusing on developing countries and on agricultural and natural resource based value chains. Several studies focused on linked both primary agricultural, fisheries and/or natural resource production with by upgrading and processing. However, most studies, despite a value chain approach, focused on specific segments or chains and not the ripple effect along a chain or sequence of impacts resulting from interventions. Exceptions were in garment industry (Colombo MDF 2008, Lopez Acevedo 2012), where interventions (some based on conventions and rights) appeared to have a more structurally chain wide approach.

Almost half (49%) of the interventions reported in the literature indicated that interventions had created jobs, but did not specify the number of jobs. The figure below illustrates of the 16% of interventions reported on the types of jobs created and the quantity, most indicated that increases occurred in manual and semi-skilled jobs.

Figure 16. Impact of value chain interventions on job type created
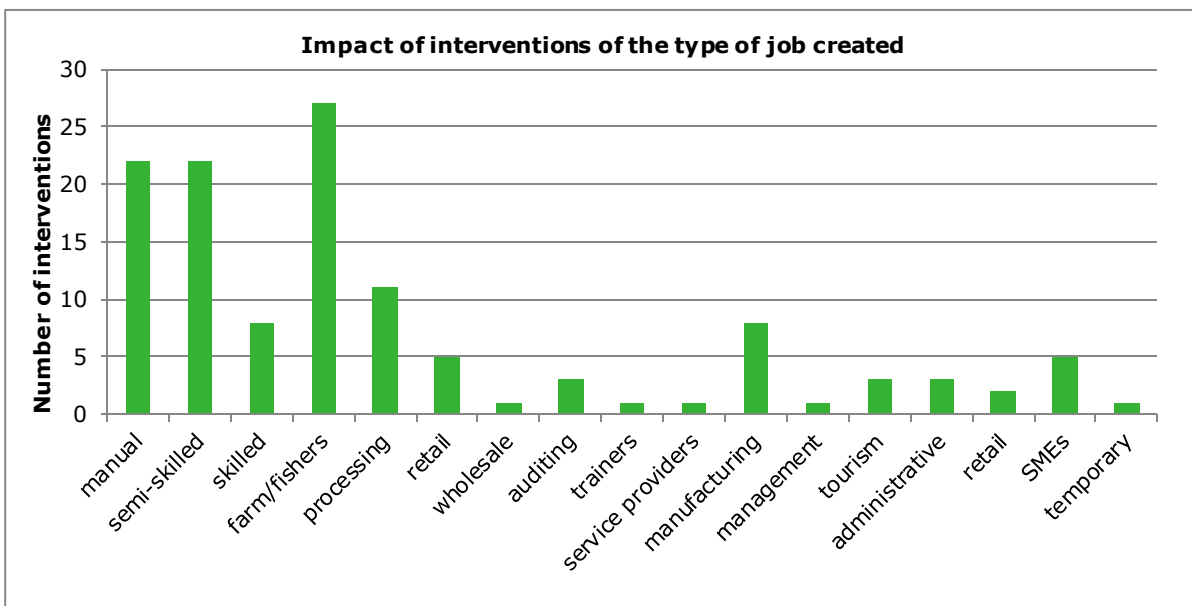
Shown in the figure, some 30% of interventions reported that manual jobs were created and 30% of interventions resulted in semiskilled jobs, and 9% in skilled jobs (Colombo MDSF-SA 2008, Lee et al. 2011, Mackenzie and Merrilees 2008, Memedovic and Shepherd 2009, Resolve Inc. 2012).

7.2 Indicators

Indicators were examined to see how success in improving job quality and counting the numbers of jobs created was measured in the literature. Nearly half of the studies (47%) provided information (see for example Blackmore et al. 2012, Colombo MDF-SA 2008, Davis and Rylance 2005) that provided indicators for job creation. For example:

> 'Regarding the employment contribution of the SME size class, the general conclusion may be formulated as follows: 'Small is still beautiful', at least within the context of formal enterprises from the non-agricultural private sector. The results of recent studies show that the SME size class may be considered the main job engine, not only for developed countries but also for emerging and developing countries. This is partly because of the positive employment effects of business dynamics (the processes of entry and exit' (de Kok 2013)

and

> 'Traditional informal markets have clearly provided an effective, functional link between farmers and consumers which responds to consumer demand: they should not be regarded as market failures. Moreover, such markets are generally those most often serving the needs of small-scale farmers and resource-poor consumers. The analysis has also demonstrated the large and positive employment implications of such markets'. (Staal et al. 2008)

However, as these two examples show, this indicator is very vague and shows simply that jobs have been created.

Only 15% (8 studies) provided a quantitative indication of the number of jobs. However too often this indicator was not placed in context, such as the timescale taken to create the jobs since the invention their duration type of job, job holder etc. (see Herr 2008, Vedeld 2006, Davis 2003, Dinh 2012). In addition, indicators that attribute job quality or quantity to the intervention, as opposed to other developments external to the value chain intervention, were also lacking, thus diminishing the reliability of many of the studies.

The certification related studies (Blackmore et al 2012, Floor et al 2012, Hafid et al 2013, ITC 2011 Memedovic and Shepherd 2009, Resolve Inc. 2012, Romijn 2012, Ruben 2008, Slob and Oldenzeil 2003, Slob 2006, Somo 2011, Webber and Labaste 2010) were more explicit about indicators. Whilst job creation was not a specific indicator but mentioned in the text as an impact, job quality was measured by a number of indicators, such as quality of life, wellbeing, welfare, income security, working conditions, risk reduction and empowerment. Key performance indicators (KPI) were also mentioned as (metric) ways to measure impacts (see Seville et al. 2011). However, in this study, not all the KPIs were listed and the metrics (quantification) relating to work were not specified.

Keeping in mind these drawbacks and the lack of clarified indicators (KPIs and metrics) the reviewers tried to interpret the indicators used in the studies reviewed as folows:

1. Number of jobs created by a project or program over specific time period and with specific resources (e.g. project budget) – the combination of these three variables is essential to aid comparability.
2. Type of job created (i.e. temporary/permanent, formal/informal, skill level), job duration, job type, and sex and age of job holder)
3. Job quality
   - Adequacy of wages (benchmarked to appropriate national or regional wages/incomes in the same timescale, or to purchasing power parity indicators)
   - Non cash and cash benefits
   - Level of decent work (using ILO definition)
   - Level of job stability/security
   - Level of social protection (compared to national norms)
   - Training opportunities
   - Level of knowledge and skills development and implementation of these

- Level of work safety (benchmarked to appropriate national or sectoral standards)
- Inclusion of employment ethics in contract (benchmarked to appropriate national or sectoral standards)
- Child labour
- Forced/slave labour
- Workplace relationships (benchmarked to appropriate national or sectoral standards)
- Gender equality(benchmarked to appropriate national or sectoral standards)
- Work motivation
- Formal training received on the job
- Working conditions (benchmarked to appropriate national or sectoral standards)
- (flexibility in) working hours
- Balance work/non-working life(benchmarked to appropriate national or sectoral standards)
- Health implications
- Level of work autonomy concerning meaningfulness of work
4. Spill over (ripple or multiplier) socio-economic impacts of job development

The Resolve (2011) review of voluntary certification standards provides useful lessons about the use of indicators for impact assessment:

> *'Many {standards} systems are relatively new, and studies of them are in short supply. For the most part these systems were designed to influence the practices of producers, not to affect impacts directly. Impacts are hard to compare, as studies use different indicators and make measurements at different scales (Tallontire et al., 2012). It is therefore not surprising that only very modest evidence exists in the literature of significant impacts on the ground—that is, improvements in the ecological, economic, or social dimensions of sustainability.' (*Resolve Inc. 2012, p71)

> *'Second, impact analyses of voluntary standards are still insufficient and incomplete, and some impact indicators have been studied much less than others. It seems that the extent of impacts differs considerably from case to case. Therefore, studies that identify the key factors driving success would be helpful. Studies must involve more cases to ensure statistically relevant data for a whole sector or area. In addition, a longitudinal dimension and adequate control groups are important. Finally, a common systematic methodology is needed to avoid methodological biases and to be able to better compare results*.' (Resolve Inc. (2012, p72)

The Resolve study also highlights the importance of linking indicators to impact pathways, recognising that interventions in a chain generally do not work in isolation and interact with other interventions, as well as policies and business practices. An identification of impact pathways also allows more attention to be paid to possible indirect and unintended consequences. Indirect impacts can be much less obvious than direct impacts but can be quite significant. In certification schemes, they were often the result of interactions between certification systems and other existing governance regimes. These other regimes can include traditional governmental public policy and regulation, as well as industry or firm-level governance.

8 Recommendations

8.1 Lessons from the literature for The Lab

This section draws lessons from the literature that appear relevant to designing the ILO's 'The Lab' program, to select value chains that can create more and better employment in the future, and the interventions leading to improvements in working conditions.

8.1.1 Lessons from literature to create positive job quality and quantity impacts

1. A good market and chain analysis of opportunities and risks is valuable. The analysis should take an integrated, sectoral perspective to consider spillover impacts (both positive and negative).
2. Make conscious choices (and recognise trade-offs) about who is included in a programme and who not, and acknowledge the risks of exclusion.
3. Engaging (local) private sector investors in chain interventions appears a key success factor to create permanent jobs.
4. Interventions that improve market infrastructure appear to create and sustain jobs. Particularly when organisations (whether private sector or government or donor) play a facilitating role to create links in and between chains.
5. Interventions that use or create partnerships with government agencies at national and local level and the private sector appear successful at both creating jobs and improving working conditions.
6. The approach used by certification standards, of setting clear, auditable, measurable standards, appears to enhance job quality along a chain.
7. Training interventions should be clearly linked to chain upgrading ambitions and the downstream requirements in a chain.

8.1.2 Which type of chains to focus on?

The types of value chains in which interventions were made emerged from the review and were not selected. This makes it impossible to know if these are 'high impact' chains, or whether these happened to be the chains people wrote about.

Given this limitation, the following lessons can be drawn for The Lab, based on positive or successful experiences reported in the literature:

- Interventions in light manufacturing such as garments, textiles and leather in developing countries have led to largely scale job creation (Dinh et al. 2012).
- Processing of agricultural and food products e.g. dairy, fruit, vegetables, fisheries and livestock (ACDI/VOCA 2004, Memedovic and Shepherd 2009, Parker 2008, Webber and Labaste 2010)
- Jobs have been created, and particularly working conditions improved through interventions in cash crops– both for export i.e. coffee, gums and resins, and for products which also have local markets such as bananas, neem, shea, cashews, mangoes, tea (Parker 2008, Webber and Labaste 2010).
- Interventions in local agricultural food chains have led to job creation, particularly when producer organisations are involved (Lee et al. 2011, Memedovic and Shepherd, 2009).
- Tourism has created jobs given favourable social and geographic contexts (Ashley and Mitchell, 2008, Davis 2003, Parker 2008).
- Interventions in the construction sector in post-conflict countries have created jobs (Parker 2008).

8.1.3 Intervention design lessons

Recommendations drawn from the literature to increase the evidence-based on the effectiveness of future value chain interventions to maximise employment outcomes are:

1. The literature indicates that chains were selected for intervention based on several different logics, such as:
   a. Natural resources (agriculture, fishery, forest products) in which a large number of low income workers are engaged and/or working conditions are poor.
   b. Light manufacturing chains, such as garments, apparel and footwear which have high levels of competitive advantage internationally and in which large low income people are engaged and/or working conditions are poor.
   c. Chains with strategic importance for food security, poverty alleviation and/or serving poor people.
   d. Chains with particular negative labour market or social issues, such as clothing, agricultural products and cash crops like cocoa and coffee.
2. The infrequent use of baselines to measure the impact of value chain development interventions but use of them in certification interventions, suggests a need to document the baseline situation (qualitatively and/or quantitatively). This could be part of an explicit strategy to make evidence of impacts more robust and attributable to the intervention.
3. The infrequent use of impact logic (theory of change), but apparent usefulness of this tool according to studies that use it, indicates that proposed interventions should adopt baselines and impact logic for VCD interventions in chains. A theory of change for interventions would help clarify who and how the intervention expects to result in outcomes or impacts, the timescale that these are expected to occur and the target groups.
4. A growing body of best practices indicate that impact evaluations of VCD development interventions need to at least consider the counterfactual situation (where possible). Combined with the low level of use of baselines and/or counterfactuals suggests that The Lab program could experiment with counterfactuals or explicitly indicate potential factors that could indirectly and/or directly influence labour market outcomes over the duration and after the intervention.
5. Appropriate timing of an impact assessment is key. The assessment should be timed such that there is sufficient time for the impacts expected to occur to be manifested). This is critical as timing it can seriously affect the evidence and validity of findings.
6. The evidence presented in the studies about negative and unintended labour market impacts suggests that impact assessments should expressly include an assessment of possible (positive or negative) spillovers (the induced employment effect) of interventions to other/non-target groups, unintended target groups or stakeholders.
7. As the studies reviewed show that many factors affected interventions, it is recommended that interventions should make explicit other (external and internal i.e. project or program intervention) factors that could positively or negatively, direct or indirectly, affect labour market outcomes prior to the intervention. This can occur prior to interventions (as part of an impact logic exercise) or in retrospect, after the intervention (e.g. differences to trends such as economic circumstances (i.e. recession), conflict, policies, regulations, changes in the chain).
8. The paucity of explicit indicators and lack of common indicators used in the publications reviewed indicates that it would be useful to develop easy to use, SMARTI[8] indicators of job quality and quantity prior to any intervention and based upon an impact logic.
9. A guide for organisations and intervention agents to how to measure labour market impacts (for example, proposing key, indicators that are commonly shared as critical indicators of labour market outcomes) and the timescales that such impacts could be expected, is strongly recommended. Also how these indicators should be placed in context and attribution.

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[8] SMARTI stands for Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic, Time-bound and Independent objectively verifiable indicators.

10. A projection of the type and quantity of jobs expected to be created as result of the intervention is required, or a comparison of planned versus expected jobs. Operationally, a comparison could be made feasible if VCD intervention owners oblige implementers and stakeholders to develop up-front estimates of types and numbers of direct and the indirect jobs created and their expected evolution over time. Another approach could be to obtain a picture of who unemployed people are, their qualifications and aspirations, and identify potential (sub-) sectors for job creation. This should take into account markets, prices and resources identified as critical for VCD (infrastructure, access to finance, access to training, better land governance, existence of multiple support partners and financers etc.).

11. To overcome bottlenecks (in management, logistics or technology), different mechanisms could be used (e.g. training, counselling, coaching, technology provision, grants, subsidies, PPPs, fiscal incentives etc.). This will ensure credible demand for employees and products, while reducing risks and enhancing the sustainability of interventions.

12. The wide differences in how job quality and quantity were measured and tendency for one-off, static evaluations reported in the literature reviewed, indicates that monitoring of key, selected impacts should take place all along the chain - and not just in the segment or geographical area where intervention has taken place. Cross chain impacts (e.g. the impact of substitution or alternatives) from one chain to another should also be considered.

These recommendations mirror current best practices and can be followed up and implemented using approaches for impact evaluation and measurement of private sector and industrial developments, including those supported by government, donor and NGO/CSO agents (i.e. Ashley and Mitchell 2008, USAID 2014, Beagrie 2011), such as the DCED Guidelines (DCED 2013), GRI guidelines on sustainability reporting in the workplace (GRI 2011), OECD guidelines for multinational enterprises (2007 and 2011), and for small enterprise interventions (Oldsman and Hallberg 2004), government policy evaluation guidelines (i.e. by the Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2009), and measuring the impact of value chain interventions (Ton et al. 2011).

8.2 Recommendations for monitoring and evaluation in action research in value chain development projects

Also drawing on the literature reviewed, options for action research on labour market orientated interventions in value chains include the following:

1. Specific research on the impacts of labour market oriented interventions is highly recommended, given the few studies directly concerned documenting labour market outcomes and impacts resulting from value chain development studies (except for the ILO studies).

2. Develop diagnostics for countries and chains with key job related indicators that can be used as intervention baselines to ascertain attribution. These could be a mix of available information supplemented with qualitative stakeholder perceptions of key indicators. Baselines can also be obtained through more thorough analysis, pre-intervening, to document the (general) baseline situation, and to set up a clear theory of change which covers exactly what aspects of jobs are being targeted for a particular VC (noting its particular context) and to identify any possible negative side-effects/spillovers.

3. Indicators of job quality and quantity were generally lacking or very simplistic. The Lab could explore producing a guide for organisations and intervention agents to how to measure labour market impacts and the timescales they could be expected in, different approaches, how to balance rigour with costs, methods which can be used etc., is recommended. Another option is using indicators to make monitoring, assessment and learning meaningful, as advanced by the IFC (Paniagua and Denisova 2012). These could be participatively developed with stakeholders.

4. As chain interventions that have not had expressly targeted job quality and quantity have often had (unintended or consequential) labour market impacts, highlighting these aspects as indicators could raise awareness. Mapping of barriers and partners to aid overcoming such constraints could aid the effectiveness of interventions.

5. Davis and Rylance (2005) and Hawkes and Ruel (2011) both recommend involving stakeholders (public, private companies, consumers and NGO) and that using a value chain approach means paying explicit attention to job demand and supply, which may entail considering temporary or permanent job creation and considering job quality.

6. Value chain development interventions could document the baseline situation prior to the intervention. This is increasingly being purported as best practice for impact and make evidence of impacts more attributable to the intervention (Humphrey and Navas-Alemán 2010).

7. The examples provided by MDF (such as MDF 2014) indicate that a theory of change (impact logic) for interventions can help clarify who and how the intervention expects to result in outcomes or impacts, the timescale that these are expected to occur and the target groups.

8. The literature reviewed does not indicate that specific sectors or products chains are more or less successful in achieving impacts, although several of the publication cites experiences in similar chains. Therefore targeting a range of sectors, and also focussing on sectors outside of the current scope covered in most publications (agriculture/natural resources, manufacturing and tourism) and exploring less traditional but emerging sectors (services, IT, knowledge etc.) could provide a new set of learning experiences.

9. Certification impact assessment studies highlight the different between interventions such as training that improves knowledge and ability to implement acquired and improving

10. The intervention should make explicit other factors that could positively or negatively, direct or indirectly, affect labour market outcomes prior to the intervention and in retrospect, after the intervention (e.g. differences to trends such as economic circumstances (i.e. recession), conflict or post-conflict situations, policies, regulations, changes in the chain etc.).

11. Given that some literature shows how negative impacts can arise from interventions, critical reflection by intervention agents on potential and actual negative impacts is strongly recommended. These impacts may not be felt by the target group of the intervention and therefore need to be analysed and foreseen using a variety of methods, for example using participatory forecasting and (social) impact assessment methods.

12. Value chain development interventions and studies need to explicitly indicate possible factors that could indirectly and/or directly influence labour market outcomes over the duration and after the intervention.

13. Most studies do not indicate that employees, potential workers and their communities have been involved in monitoring and impact assessment of the intervention (with a few exceptions such as the MDF studies). However participatory approaches to monitoring development chain-level interventions have been shown to yield important insights by providing a beneficiary view of the efficiency, effectiveness, costs and impacts (including those unanticipated) of development orientated interventions (Humphrey and Navas-Alemán 2010, Dietz et al. 2013, Mayoux and Chambers 2005). This approach is recommended. Lessons from how participatory gender focussed interventions in chains have been implemented offer further insights that can mainly b gained from a participatory assessment. Within an enterprise, regular monitoring and employee feedback mechanisms can also play a core and recurrent role to play in how the VC intervention has functioned.

14. Cost benefit analyses provide useful information on the replicability and success of interventions. Good examples can be found in the Katalyst project reports[9] and the

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[9] http://www.katalyst.com.bd/res_cStudies.php. Retrieved 2 April 2014. Katalyst is a Swisscontact (Lead Manager) and GIZ International Services project under the Ministry of Commerce of the Government of

Australian Aid Market Development Facility (MDF) reports (MDF 2014)[10]. Useful guidance is provided by Bartink (2011) on how to better measure employment benefits using estimable parameters by measuring policy or intervention induced labour demand, estimating the demand shock's impact on labour market outcomes, and translating labour market impacts into efficiency benefits. Two measures are proposed for efficiency benefits: adjusted reservation wage gains and adjusted earnings gains.

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Appendix 1 Methodology

9.1 Introduction

A literature review is a process defined as "an interpretation of a selection of published and/or unpublished documents available from various sources on a specific topic that optimally involves summarization, analysis, evaluation, and synthesis of the documents" (Onwuegbuzie, Leech et al. 2012) p. 173). Analysis and interpretation are explicit steps of the literature review process, with the following steps defined:

1. Search and select for relevant sources of information:
   a. Select relevant networks of research (capturing the gains, etc.)
   b. Search and select relevant research institutes and researchers
   c. Search and select relevant seminars and congresses.
2. Define the research questions:
   a. the above mentioned research questions are (re)defined
3. Define selection criteria for the selection of publications to review
   a. A first step is detailing the search and screening methodology of the literature research
   b. focus on empirical studies about the impact of local VCD on labour market impacts
4. Start literature review based on the selected criteria and the selected sources of information
   a. Scanning and selecting relevant and recent publication and research papers
   b. Selecting the most relevant studies for a more thorough scan for selecting other interesting studies
   c. Search for studies about experiences of VCD practitioners
   d. Selection of most important researchers and academics for information about most up to date research outcome, publications, relevant projects and literature about the relevant topics of the review
   e. Setup definitions of used concepts: value Chain Development; impact on the quantity and quality of jobs; working conditions; chain intervention.
5. Interim report literature review
   a. As a result of the literature review, an interim report with the analyses of the review is produced (this document).
6. Writing the definitive report.

A systematic review works from the assumption that insights can be gained when simultaneously considering the accumulation of evidence and findings from more than one study. In this protocol, the key challenges inherent in this systematic review are made explicit and how they are dealt with conceptually and practically in the search strategy and data management and analysis is explained. Ideally, a systematic review covers a strictly defined 'treatment' of a comparable group of 'treated' objects or activities with clear indicators of outcome. This enables the weighing of evidence. This practice is typical in medicine and education, where most systematic reviews are undertaken. The questions in this review are not strictly defined: i.e. labour market outcomes and job quality are varied and broadly defined in the literature and value chain interventions vary in scale, depth, implementing agent and beneficiary, and temporality and are often interrelated; outcomes takes place on many different levels and for different actors. Therefore, this review is situated in the continuum between aggregative and configurative systematic reviews. It is largely configurative in discovering types of interventions and the types of labour market outcomes generated by the value chain interventions. It is expected that different types of interventions in different localities and types of chains produce different outcomes and therefore different impacts. The interventions and effects need to be typified to draw conclusions about the evidence presented in the literature. Within each type of intervention, this review explores the evidence on mechanisms and incentives that shape the labour outcomes. This review was aggregative where possible. Conclusions was provided on the state of the evidence on mechanisms that explain the operation of interventions in generating outcomes related to job quality and quantity. Such approach is known as 'realist syntheses. In the review, empirical data, both quantitative and qualitative was considered.

9.2 Literature review strategy

The search strategy is conducted based on a number of steps. First a search for studies using combinations of search terms is conducted. As not all databases offer the same functionalities, some hand searches were performed. For the general search terms including boolean operators (see 2.3). This resulted in potentially relevant studies that were merged and stored into EndNote and the EPPI tool for screening. After cleaning of duplicated studies, the titles and abstracts of the remaining studies were screened by the reviewers. In case of doubt the relevance of the study was checked by another reviewer and discussed amongst the review team. After the title-abstract screening, the studies were mapped according to the typology and full text of those studies that are identified as being relevant for the systematic review was retrieved and assessed. Through snowballing some references and additional hand searching, other relevant literature was searched for using type-specific search terms. After this, the information provided in the eligible studies was analysed and synthesized with the help of a flexible coding tool for data extraction.

9.3 Data sources and searching approach

In the search the following sources of data were used to identify relevant studies. The respective searches were documented and an overview in the form of a search diary. Data sources were limited to publicly available literature published in international (i.e. no purchases made), peer-reviewed journals, "grey" literature from renowned institutions and authors, bibliographic scientific databases, electronic online search engines, gateways and specialist websites of organisations and institutions.

9.3.1 Bibliographic scientific databases

Bibliographic databases were searched by using combinations of search terms below. The bibliographic databases all allow for conducting searches of scientific journals using indexed subheadings and/or keywords with a possible thesaurus option to use synonyms of the search terms applied. Such specialised searches are practical for pinning down relevant studies. Databases included:
- Scopus, the world's largest abstract and citation database of (mostly peer-reviewed) literature, covering all disciplines
- CAB Abstracts, comprehensive database of the applied life sciences includes agriculture, environment, veterinary sciences, applied economics, food science and nutrition
- EconLit (American Economic Association's electronic bibliography,
- SocINDEX

The first group search terms were applied and second group applied when possible within the pre-sorted topics. The hits were ordered according to relevance. Top 20 hits were downloaded for each group. All pdf documents were searched for every search term. If a document did not contain a word from each search term group (as defined by the protocol), the document was excluded.

9.3.2 Gateways and specialist websites of organisations and institutions

Hand searching of grey literature provided a number of cases, but the bias and reliability of these sources was critically questioned. Search engines were used for a systematic online search. In addition to peer-reviewed journal articles as well as other referenced material the first three search engines listed below contain links to working papers, conference contributions and possibly other grey literature. Thus, searching these more specialties search engines helped to locate but at the same time also limit the vast number of grey literature studies.
- Google and Google scholar: Internet search engine
- Eldis: editorially selected and abstracted full-text, online documents on development issues)
- Jolis: World bank and IMF database, http://external.worldbankimflib.org
- 3ie Database of Impact Assessment: covering impact evaluations conducted in low- and middle- income countries, http://www.3ieimpact.org/database_of_impact_ evaluations.html
- Social Science Research Network (SSRN), that includes working papers and submitted papers under review

Google Scholar and Google do not offer as advanced search options as bibliographic databases like scopes or Web of Science offer. For this reason advanced and manual search strategies were combined as follows:
1. Search terms groups were altered to be more concise
2. The hits were ordered according to relevance.

3. Publications not within the years of publication between 2000-2012 were excluded.
4. Of the first 150 hits the reference information including abstract were collected and screened for search terms.
5. All hits were searched for every search term. If a document did not contain a word from each search term group (as defined by the protocol), the document was excluded.

9.3.3 Specialist websites of organisations and institutions

Hand searching websites of organisations and institutions involved in value chain and labour/employment was used to identify grey literature. Again, bias and reliability of these sources was critically questioned before they are accepted for review, and authorship was coded to make any possible bias explicit. Listed are organisations and institutions that have implemented and/or supported known value chain related projects and programs as an entry point for the search and expect to find project reports or other documentation. The cases should include an assessment or evidence of effects/outcomes/impact as a condition of selection.

- Research4Development (R4D) - the portal to DFID centrally funded research
- World Bank
- Partnerships Resource Centre
- NCP-MVO
- UN Global Compact
- IDS
- SOMO
- UNDP
- WBCSD
- IFC
- ISO
- ILO
- UNIDO
- DCED

9.4 Search terms

The search terms define groups of key words used in the search. The groups specified below aim to describe the intervention, the target of the value chain intervention, the location of the value chain intervention and outcomes. In the search, "OR" was used within the groups of search terms and "AND" between groups to combine respective search terms and groups. Funnelling and snowballing was used to progressively narrow down the search. For hand searches, the top 20 results were examined in detail. The search results was reported in a flow chart that illustrates the number of records found and accounts for the various steps of the search process. Decisions on inclusion and exclusion were made transparent.

9.5 Electronic Database Search

Group 1: Recent date

Published literature from 2000 to 2012.

Group 2: Value chain intervention
As a value chain is broadly defined, the key terms from the definition value chain given in Section 4 are used:

("value chain" OR "value chains" OR "market chain" OR "market chains" OR "commodity chain "OR "commodity chains" OR "supply chain "OR "supply chains" OR "production to consumption system" OR "production to consumption systems" OR filière OR filières)

AND

(Initiative* OR assistance OR platform* OR project* OR program* OR policy OR policies OR action* OR development*)

Group 3: Labour market

(Work OR job* OR labour OR labour OR employment)

Group 4: Impact and outcomes

This search term aims to search for literature about the quantitative and qualitative impacts of the interventions (projects, initiatives, programs and policies):

(Outcome* OR effect* OR impact*OR eval* OR evidence* OR performance*)

(qualit* OR quantit*)

Group 5: Global and local value chain interventions

If there are many results, the search was narrowed by looking specifically for local examples:

(local OR regional) AND chain*

Group 6: Combinations of the above

1 AND 2 AND 3
1 AND 2 AND 4 AND 4
1 AND 2 AND 3 AND 4 AND 5

If specific cases are described in the literature e.g. a case of a local/national value chain intervention with illustration of a labour market outcomes– such cases could then be searched for specifically or snowballed using Google scholar and on specialised websites.

9.6 Inclusion and exclusion criteria

Clear inclusion and exclusion **criteria for the first scan** of literature are essential (to include those derived from step one) and form part of the search strategy.

Non-exclusive authorship: can include donors, practitioners, researchers, governments and companies.

Including / excluding criteria for screening on TITLE AND ABSTRACT:

1.   Exclude if no mention of aspects relating to job quantity or quality (see section 4 on definition of quality)
3.   Exclude if no specific mention of jobs, labour, employment or working conditions

Additional inclusion / exclusion criteria for screening on FULL TEXT:

1.   Exclude if no information on outcomes or effects (i.e. only descriptive and not empirical)
2.   Exclude if no information on at least one aspect of the intervention (the intervention, actor, policy)

9.7 Database management and analysis

9.7.1   Database management

Data-base management is a key part of the review process. A systematic coding system was developed that based on the typologies and key words. EPPI Reviewer 4 software may be used to merge and store search lists and manage data. A basic coding tool was developed, that allows further interpretative coding, to extract data and relevant information to answer the review questions. In addition to the standard details about the literature (for example authors, affiliation, funding, goal of the study), the information to be extracted by coding covers information to distil the intervention logics and the type of immediate, intermediate or ultimate outcomes that are reported in the studies. The outcomes for the poor in developing countries was specifically considered. A coding tool was used.

9.7.2 Coding

Coding the evidence in the systematic review helps to compare the information from the literature. A basic coding tool was developed so as to extract data and information necessary to answer the review question specified. This was done using the coding tool in EPPI Reviewer and reflects the selection criteria and the conceptual framework derived from the research questions. EPPI Reviewer also has a possibility to have multiple coding to explore difference and resolve them in the review team. In addition to the standard details about the studies included, the information extracted with the coding tool covers information that aimed to distil the intervention logics and the type of outcomes reported in the studies. Coding includes an evaluation of the quality of the studies in a quality and relevance appraisal. More specifically, study quality was assessed in terms of study design, data collection including the measurement of the efficiency of the outcome of the value chain interventions, representativeness and analysis. This information was used to qualify the evidence provided. The coding results were cross-checked to avoid biases. After this 'calibration' the data extraction was done individually and the resulting coding was reviewed in pairs to optimize comparability. An overview of the coding is shown in Table 8.

The coding sheet was presented in the final report with the final codes used. Apart from characterising the different impact pathways, the aim is to better understand what the effects. A simplified scoring system was used for each case reviewed and used to evaluate it against criteria. The coding was refined once the review started, through interpretative coding (David Gough 2012).

Table 8 Overview of coding

General information	Case	Evaluation criteria	Score
Author, publication date, publication type, funding agency, author affiliation…		Bias	
Intervention	Type of intervention Intervention owner type Sector Type of intervening organisation value chain behaviour Type of impact pathway Modalities Time period and frequency of intervention Baseline of intervention	Type of intervention / impact pathway	G= government p= private sector B = bilateral N= NGOs C = CSO D= donors Motivation for selection of chain/sector 1. To determine… 2. …
Context	Country, location Type of chain (product) Type of chain (local/regional/ global) Characteristics of impact beneficiary/chain actor Number of intervention channels and actors	Local or global	Country [name] Beneficiary type chain (product) chain l= local r = regional n= national ir= interregional g= global impact beneficiary/chain actor stage in chain? Types intervention channels
Evidence quality	Legitimacy and transparency of impact claims Authorship bias/conflict of interest Multi channels of causality indicated Single/multiple examples in a case Robustness, scale and temporarily of evidence Level of causality and attribution Experimental/Quasi experiments	Anecdotal Systematic: legitimacy and transparency of impact claim	+ High (independent source) 0 Indeterminate (government reported) - Low (self-reported, conflict of interest) ? dubious # - multi causal channels S – single causal channel E = experimental QE= quasi experimental C= control group ++ directly attributable + directly attributable 0 undermined -not attributable

General information	Case	Evaluation criteria	Score
Outcome & Impact (qualitative/ quantitative information)	Single or multiple chains & interventions covered Chain intervention Outcome per beneficiary (s) Impact per beneficiary(s) Attribution level of impact/outcome from company value chain behaviour Company type Type of impact (to determine form preliminary review) Timescale outcomes (short – long)	Assessed change in proxy Impact-indicators	Single/multiple chains/interventions Interventions in 1 segment />1 segment/whole chain + documented positive impact 0 documented neutral impact -documented negative impact ST= Short term (1-2 years) MT= Medium term (3-5 years) LT= long term (>5 years) Job quality: adequate wages benefits, decent work, job stability/security social protection, skills development training opportunities, safety employment ethics, child labour slave labour workplace relationships gender equality work motivation formal training working conditions (flexibility in) working hours balance work/non-working life health implications level of work autonomy meaningfulness of work etc… Job quantity Scale 1-10 50-100 100-1000 >1000 >5000 Mentioned but not quantified Type of jobs (classifications according to literature e.g. formal informal, temporary, full time) Job holder e.g. male/female, young/old
Hypothesis	Relation to hypothesises	Confirms or rejects one or more of the hypotheses	0 – confirm 1 Reject and hypothesis number (1 to 6)

9.8 Data analysis

The respective studies were read and evidence extracted related with outcomes and with intervening factors (conditions, mechanisms), using the coding tool. The results of the review and synthesis combine theoretical reasoning and empirical evidence, following the iterative steps of realist synthesis (Pawson, Greenhalgh et al. 2004). This allows insights to be presented about how the different types of interventions under review work, for whom and under what conditions. The synthesis process allows findings from different studies in to be compared and contrasted in a structured way, highlighting both confirmatory and contradictory findings related with each type of intervention (type of intervention theory), aiming to refine the core rationale and evidence.

The **full-text** screening then took place to funnel down the first set of literature searched by reading the abstract only. The resulting literature was **screened for quality** using the following criteria:

- type of study (qualitative, mixed, experimental, quantitative),

- sound study design
- data collection rigour
- degree of independence of authors
- representativeness of observations
- relevance of study focus
- peer reviewed
- transparency of methodology used.

This information was used for an overall weighing of the evidence provided. This screening is critical to quality as the methodological rigour of value chain literature differs significantly: some included data on the counterfactual but most did not, as counterfactual are difficult to get in the broad/inclusive and complex change processes that private sector development tend to be. The inclusion/exclusion criteria ensure that only studies of a reasonable quality and methodological rigour were considered for the in-depth review. Those meeting the inclusion criteria were assessed in-depth by the applying the aforementioned coding tool with the EPPI Centre's data-extraction software (the EPPI-Reviewer). Coding included an evaluation of the quality of the studies in a quality and relevance appraisal. This resulted in a final, selected literature for review.

The **selected studies were then extracted, read and contents** assessed, using the search criteria to test key assumptions about the mechanisms that stimulate these behavioural changes through the 'Context–Mechanism–Outcome Configurations (CMOCs)' concept. The CMOC lens allows using cases to develop and test assumptions about the mechanisms that explain why and how interventions worked, under what conditions, in a wider configuration of causal factors (Ton 2012).

Appendix 2 Overview of literature reviewed

Reference	Job quality and quantity impacts	Region and chain(s)	Type intervention owner and intervening organisations(s)	Type of intervention
Asian Development Bank (2013)	**Job quality** improves job security **Type job holder** women	**Region** Asia **type of chain** local chain	**intervention owner** government NGO/CSO	non labour mkt intervention
Barrientos (2008)	**Job quality** better workers' rights decency of work empowered marginalised **Type of job created** retail manufacturing management retail **Type job holder** farmer women	**Region** Africa **type of chain** global	**intervention owner** company NGO/CSO **type intervening org.** NGO/CSO	intvn on labour market Chain intervention
Blackmore et al. (2012)	**Job quality** improves working conditions **job quantity** creates jobs- number not known **type of job created** manual farm/fishers **Type job holder** farmer	**Region** Asia **type of chain** global agricultural product	**intervention owner** company **type intervening org.** company government certification	non labour mkt intervention
Colombo (2008)	**Job quality** skills improvement **Type of job created** semi-skilled manufacturing **Type job holder** women	**Region** Asia **type of chain** global manufactured product	**intervention owner** international dev. org **type intervening org.** government	non labour mkt intervention Chain intervention

Reference	Job quality and quantity impacts	Region and chain(s)	Type intervention owner and intervening organisations(s)	Type of intervention
Colombo MDF-SA (2008)	**Type of job created** farm/fishers processing	**Region** Asia **type of chain** local chain fish	**intervention owner** international dev. org **type intervening org.** government	non labour mkt intervention Chain intervention
Colombo MDF-SA (2008)	**Job quality** skills improvement training decreases job security increased wages/income **Job quantity** creates jobs- number not known **Type of job created** semi-skilled skilled processing manufacturing **Type job holder** crafts manufacturing	**Region** Asia **type of chain** local chain	**intervention owner** international dev. org **type intervening org.** NGO/CSO	non labour mkt intervention Chain intervention
Davis & Rylance (2005)	**Job quality** skills improvement training increased wages/income empowered marginalised **Job quantity** creates jobs- number not known **Type of job created** manual Semi-skilled farm/fishers administrative smes temporary **Type job holder** women	**Region** Europe Global **type of chain** local chain food agricultural product	**intervention owner** government international dev. org **type intervening org.** government	intvn on labour market Local area intervention
Davis (2003)	**Job quality** skills improvement training	**Region** Africa Asia	**intervention owner** government international dev. org	non labour mkt intervention

Reference	Job quality and quantity impacts	Region and chain(s)	Type intervention owner and intervening organisations(s)	Type of intervention
	exclusion of low skilled workers increased wages/income decreased wage/income increase in marginalisation negative issues property rights **job quantity** 100-500 >1000 creates jobs- number not known **type of job created** manual processing retail tourism **type job holder** farmer manufacturing	South & C America **type of chain** local chain agricultural product	**type intervening org.** government NGO/CSO	Local area intervention
de Kok (2013)	**Job quality** decreases job security **Job quantity** creates jobs- number not known) **type of job created** smes	**Region** Global **type of chain** local chain	**intervention owner** company government **type intervening org.** company government	non labour mkt intervention Sector intervention
Delahunty-Pike (2012)	**Job quality** training exclusion of low skilled workers increased wages/income empowered marginalised **type of job created** manual farm/fishers **type job holder** farmer women men	**Region** Africa **type of chain** local chain forest product	**intervention owner** international dev. org **type intervening org.** company NGO/CSO	non labour mkt intervention
Dinh et al. (2012)	**Job quality** skills improvement improves **job quantity**	**Region** Africa Asia	**intervention owner** government international dev. org	non labour mkt intervention Sector intervention

Reference	Job quality and quantity impacts	Region and chain(s)	Type intervention owner and intervening organisations(s)	Type of intervention
	>1000. **Type of job created** manual semi-skilled farm/fishers processing manufacturing **type job holder** farmer manufacturing	**type of chain** global local chain manufactured product agricultural product	**type intervening org.** government	
Dudwick & Srinivasan (2013)	**Job quality** skills improvement training **Job quantity** creates jobs- number not known **Type of job created** manual semi-skilled farm/fishers smes **Type job holder** farmer manufacturing forest product women	**Region** Africa **type of chain** local chain	**intervention owner** government international dev. org **type intervening org.** company government	intvn on labour market Chain intervention
Farnworth (2013)	**Job quality** skills improvement training improves job security negative issues property rights **job quantity** creates jobs- number not known **type job holder** farmer women	**Region** Africa **type of chain** agricultural product	**intervention owner** government NGO/CSO international dev. org foreign government **type intervening org.** government NGO/CSO international development organisation	non labour mkt intervention Sector intervention
Flintan (2008)	**Job quality** skills improvement training **type of job created** semi-skilled	**Region** Africa **type of chain** local chain	**Intervention owner** government NGO/CSO, international dev. org foreign government	non labour mkt intervention

Reference	Job quality and quantity impacts	Region and chain(s)	Type intervention owner and intervening organisations(s)	Type of intervention
	farm/fishers **type job holder** farmer crafts women	food Dairy	 **type intervening org.** government international development organisation	
Flood et al. (2012)	**Job quality** training improves working conditions **type of job created** farm/fishers **Type job holder** farmer	**Region** North America **type of chain** local chain food agricultural product	**intervention owner** company NGO/CSO **type intervening org.** company NGO/CSO certification	non labour mkt intervention
Flora & Bendini (2007)	**Job quality** improves job security exclusion of low skilled workers	**Region** North America **type of chain** global local chain food agricultural product	**intervention owner** company government **type intervening org.** company employees	intvn on labour market
Hakemulder (2008)	**Job quality** skills improvement same (no change) wages/income **job quantity** neutral - no job creation	**Region** Asia **type of chain** global local chain agricultural product	**intervention owner** international dev. org **type intervening org.** company government	non labour mkt intervention
Hawkes& Ruel (2011)	**Job quality** skills improvement training improves job security **job quantity** creates jobs- number not known *(in communities).* Negative - jobs lost **type of job created** manual semi-skilled farm/fishers processing	**Region** Africa Asia North America **type of chain** global local chain Dairy	**intervention owner** NGO/CSO international dev. org **type intervening org.** NGO/CSO	non labour mkt intervention

Reference	Job quality and quantity impacts	Region and chain(s)	Type intervention owner and intervening organisations(s)	Type of intervention
Herr (2008)	**Job quality** skills improvement training **job quantity** 1-100 **type job holder** women	**Region** Asia **type of chain** local chain agricultural product Dairy	**intervention owner** international dev. org **type intervening org.** government	non labour mkt intervention
Hiswaty (2013)	**Job quality** skills improvement training improves working conditions increased wages/income empowered marginalised **type of job created** farm/fishers auditing trainers service providers **type job holder** farmer	**Region** Asia **type of chain** global agricultural product	**intervention owner** company NGO/CSO foreign government **type intervening org.** international development organisation certification	non labour mkt intervention
ITC (2011)	**Job quality** improves working conditions improves job security access to collective bargaining increase job satisfaction increased wages/income decreased wage/income **type of job created** manual farm/fishers **type job holder** farmer	**Region** Africa Asia Europe South & C America **type of chain** global agricultural product forest product	**intervention owner** NGO/CSO **type intervening org.** NGO/CSO	non labour mkt intervention
Kapur (2006)	**Job quality** skills improvement **job quantity** creates jobs- number not known **type of job created** manual semi-skilled	**Region** Asia **type of chain** local chain	**intervention owner** international dev. org *Support by Ford Foundation* **type intervening org.** NGO/CSO	intvn on labour market

Reference	Job quality and quantity impacts	Region and chain(s)	Type intervention owner and intervening organisations(s)	Type of intervention
	farm/fishers **type job holder** farmer women			
Le Nguyen (2012)	**Job quality** skills improvement access to collective bargaining increased wages/income empowered marginalised **type of job created** semi-skilled farm/fishers processing manufacturing **type job holder** fishers	**Region** Asia **type of chain** global local chain food fish	**intervention owner** government international dev. org **type intervening org.** government employees	intvn on labour market Chain intervention
Lee (2011)	**Job quality** skills improvement training improves working conditions negative impact job quality improves job security decreases job security exclusion of low skilled workers unequal access to work **job quantity** creates jobs- number not known neutral - no job creation negative - jobs lost **type of job created** manual semi-skilled skilled farm/fishers tourism	**Region** Africa Global **type of chain** global	**intervention owner** company government **type intervening org.** company	non labour mkt intervention
Lopez-Acevedo (2012)	**Job quality** exclusion of low skilled workers increased wages/income **job quantity** creates jobs- number not known	**Region** Africa Asia South & C America Global	**intervention owner** company government intl convention	intvn on labour market Chain intervention

Reference	Job quality and quantity impacts	Region and chain(s)	Type intervention owner and intervening organisations(s)	Type of intervention
	type of job created manual semi-skilled manufacturing **type job holder** manufacturing women	**type of chain** global manufactured product *garments/apparel*	**type intervening org.** company government	
Lund-Thomsen (2012)	**Job quality** improves working conditions no change in job security access to collective bargaining no access to collective action increased wages/income same (no change) wages/income **type of job created** skilled manufacturing **type job holder** manufacturing	**Region** Asia **type of chain** global manufactured product	**intervention owner** international dev. org intl convention **type intervening org.** company government	intvn on labour market
Manzenreiter (2013)	**Type of job created** semi-skilled skilled **Type job holder** manufacturing	**Region** Asia Global **type of chain** global		
McKenzie (2008)	**Job quantity** creates jobs- number not known **type of job created** semi-skilled skilled retail	**Region** Europe **type of chain** local chain	**intervention owner** company **type intervening org.** company	non labour mkt intervention
MDF (2008)	**Job quality** training. Empowered marginalised **type of job created** manual semi-skilled skilled **type job holder** farmer	**type of chain** food	**intervention owner** company government international dev. org **type intervening org.** company	non labour mkt intervention Local area intervention
MDF-SA (2008)	**Job quality**	**Region**	**intervention owner**	

Reference	Job quality and quantity impacts	Region and chain(s)	Type intervention owner and intervening organisations(s)	Type of intervention
	skills improvement training **type of job created** smes	Asia **type of chain** local chain	company government international dev. org **type intervening org.** company government	non labour mkt intervention Local area intervention
Memedovic & Shepherd (2009)	**job quality** skills improvement training improves working conditions exclusion of low skilled workers upgrading & adding value access to collective bargaining increased wages/income decreased wage/income decrease access to collective **job quantity** creates jobs- number not known negative - jobs lost **type of job created** manual semi-skilled skilled farm/fishers **type job holder** women men youth	**Region** Global **type of chain** global food agricultural product	**intervention owner** company government NGO/CSO international dev. org foreign government intl convention *free trade agreement* **type intervening org.** company government NGO/CSO employees international development organisation certification community	non labour mkt intervention Chain intervention
Memedovic (2004)	**job quality** skills improvement improves job security decreases job security upgrading & adding value better workers' rights **type of job created** semi-skilled processing **type job holder** manufacturing	**Region** Asia **type of chain** global manufactured product	**intervention owner** company government foreign government intl convention **type intervening org.** company government	intvn on labour market Chain intervention

Reference	Job quality and quantity impacts	Region and chain(s)	Type intervention owner and intervening organisations(s)	Type of intervention
	women			
Paudel et al. (2009)	**job quality** skills improvement training improves job security access to collective bargaining increased wages/income **type of job created** farm/fishers **type job holder** forest product	**Region** Asia **type of chain** manufactured product forest product	**intervention owner** government **type intervening org.** company government employees community	non labour mkt intervention Chain intervention
RESOLVE (2012)	**job quality** skills improvement training improves job security exclusion of low skilled workers upgrading & adding value access to collective bargaining increase job satisfaction increased wages/income decreased wage/income better workers' rights decency of work empowered marginalised unequal access to work **job quantity** creates jobs- number not known neutral - no job creation **type of job created** skilled auditing administrative **type job holder** farmer women men	**Region** Global **type of chain** global agricultural product forest product horticulture fish	**intervention owner** company NGO/CSO **type intervening org.** company NGO/CSO certification	non labour mkt intervention Chain intervention
Romijn (2012)	**job quality** improves working conditions increased wages/income decreased wage/income	**Region** Global **type of chain**	**intervention owner** company NGO/CSO international dev. org	non labour mkt intervention Chain intervention

Reference	Job quality and quantity impacts	Region and chain(s)	Type intervention owner and intervening organisations(s)	Type of intervention
	better workers' rights decency of work **job quantity** creates jobs- number not known neutral - no job creation **type of job created** manual semi-skilled farm/fishers processing administrative **type job holder** farmer	global food agricultural product	**type intervening org.** company certification	
Ruben (2008)	**job quality** skills improvement training improves working conditions exclusion of low skilled workers increased wages/income decreased wage/income **type of job created** farm/fishers	**Region** Africa South & C America **type of chain** global agricultural product	**intervention owner** company international dev. org foreign government **type intervening org.** certification	non labour mkt intervention Chain intervention
Rydberg & Smeets (2007)	**job quality** skills improvement training upgrading & adding value increase job satisfaction increased wages/income decency of work **job quantity** neutral - no job creation **type of job created** farm/fishers **type job holder** farmer	**Region** Asia **type of chain** local chain Dairy	**intervention owner** company government international dev. org **type intervening org.** company government	intvn on labour market Chain intervention
Seville at al. (2011)	**job quality** improves working conditions improves job security	**Region** Africa	**intervention owner** company NGO/CSO	non labour mkt intervention

Reference	Job quality and quantity impacts	Region and chain(s)	Type intervention owner and intervening organisations(s)	Type of intervention
	job quantity 100-500. **type of job created** manual farm/fishers **type job holder** farmer	**type of chain** global food agricultural product horticulture	**type intervening org.** company	Chain intervention
Sievers & Ham (2013)	**job quality** skills improvement training improves working conditions **job quantity** creates jobs- number not known **type of job created** semi-skilled manufacturing	**Region** Asia **type of chain** global manufactured product	**intervention owner** company government international dev. org foreign government **type intervening org.** government international development organisation	intvn on labour market Chain intervention
Slob & Oldenziel (2003)	**job quality** skills improvement improves working conditions better workers' rights **type of job created** farm/fishers **type job holder** farmer	**Region** Global **type of chain** global agricultural product	**intervention owner** company **type intervening org.** certification	non labour mkt intervention Chain intervention
Slob (2006)	**job quality** skills improvement training improves working conditions **type job holder** farmer	**Region** Africa Asia South & C America Global **type of chain** global food agricultural product	**intervention owner** company NGO/CSO **type intervening org.** company certification	non labour mkt intervention Chain intervention
Smeets (2007)	**job quality** training upgrading & adding value **job quantity** 1-100 **type of job created**	**Region** Asia **type of chain** global horticulture	**intervention owner** company **type intervening org.** company international development organisation	intvn on labour market Chain intervention

Reference	Job quality and quantity impacts	Region and chain(s)	Type intervention owner and intervening organisations(s)	Type of intervention
	manual farm/fishers **type job holder** women men			
Solleveld et al. (2013)	**job quality** skills improvement training improves working conditions **job quantity** creates jobs- number not known **type of job created** manual farm/fishers **type job holder** farmer	**Region** Africa South & C America **type of chain** global agricultural product	**intervention owner** company NGO/CSO **type intervening org.** company NGO/CSO certification	non labour mkt intervention Chain intervention
SOMO (2011)	**job quality** skills improvement training improves working conditions improves job security **job quantity** creates jobs- number not known **type of job created** semi-skilled farm/fishers auditing **type job holder** farmer	**Region** Africa **type of chain** global food agricultural product	**intervention owner** company **type intervening org.** company NGO/CSO certification	non labour mkt intervention Chain intervention
Staal et al. (2008)	**job quality** access to collective bargaining no access to collective action increased wages/income empowered marginalised **job quantity** creates jobs- number not known. **type of job created** manual semi-skilled farm/fishers	**Region** Africa Asia **type of chain** local chain food agricultural product Dairy		non labour mkt intervention Local area intervention Chain intervention

Reference	Job quality and quantity impacts	Region and chain(s)	Type intervention owner and intervening organisations(s)	Type of intervention
	processing retail **type job holder** women			
Steenbergen (2003)	**job quality** upgrading & adding value **job quantity** creates jobs- number not known **type job holder** manufacturing	**Region** Asia **type of chain** local chain	**intervention owner** company NGO/CSO **type intervening org.** company NGO/CSO community	non labour mkt intervention Chain intervention
Tallontire (2012)	**job quality** skills improvement training improves job security exclusion of low skilled workers access to collective bargaining increase job satisfaction better workers' rights **type of job created** manual **type job holder** farmer	**Region** Africa Asia **type of chain** global agricultural product	**intervention owner** NGO/CSO **type intervening org.** NGO/CSO	non labour mkt intervention Chain intervention
UNIDO (2009)	**job quality** skills improvement. exclusion of low skilled workers **job quantity** >1000 (creates jobs- number not known negative - jobs lost	**Region** Africa Asia **type of chain** local chain	**intervention owner** government international dev. org foreign government **type intervening org.** international development organisation	non labour mkt intervention
van Stel et al. (2013)	**job quality** skills improvement training exclusion of low skilled workers **job quantity** creates jobs- number not known	**Region** Europe **type of chain** global	**intervention owner** company **type intervening org.** government	non labour mkt intervention Sector intervention
Vedeld (2006)	**job quality** skills improvement training improves working conditions	**Region** Africa **type of chain**	**intervention owner** international dev. org foreign government	non labour mkt intervention

Reference	Job quality and quantity impacts	Region and chain(s)	Type intervention owner and intervening organisations(s)	Type of intervention
	job quantity 1-100 neutral - no job creation **type of job created** farm/fishers retail wholesale	local chain agricultural product	**type intervening org.** company international development organisation	
Webber et al. (2010)	**job quality** skills improvement **job quantity** >1000 **type of job created** manual semi-skilled farm/fishers processing	**Region** Africa **type of chain** global local chain food Dairy	**intervention owner** company government **type intervening org.** company government NGO/CSO certification (pineapples)	non labour mkt intervention
World Bank (2012)	**job quality** access to collective bargaining **job quantity** creates jobs- number not known **type of job created** manual semi-skilled tourism SMEs **type job holder** women	**Region** Africa **type of chain** global local chain	**intervention owner** international dev. org **type intervening org.** government	non labour mkt intervention Sector intervention
Wren et al. (2010)	**job quality** skills improvement training **job quantity** creates jobs- number not known **type of job created** manual processing **type job holder** farmer forest product women	**Region** Africa **type of chain** local chain food forest product Dairy	**intervention owner** company **type intervening org.** company NGO/CSO international development organisation community	non labour mkt intervention Local area intervention Chain intervention

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