

Documentation of the Workshop

Scaling Up Voluntary Standards for Human Rights –
The Challenge of Measuring Impact

Diana Burghardt

2009



INEP

Institute for Development and Peace



Federal Ministry
for Economic Cooperation
and Development

The Project: Human Rights, Corporate Responsibility and Sustainable Development

The research project **Human Rights, Corporate Responsibility and Sustainable Development** is funded by the **Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development** and conducted by the **Institute for Development and Peace (INEF)**.

It aims at supporting companies in realizing their human rights responsibility and in linking their actions more closely to processes of sustainable development.

Three subprojects address the interdependent levels of international law, voluntary corporate responsibility for human rights, and state regulation, with their different potentials and functions for the development and implementation of norms.

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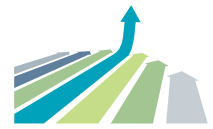
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Documentation of the Workshop

Scaling Up Voluntary Standards for Human Rights –
The Challenge of Measuring Impact

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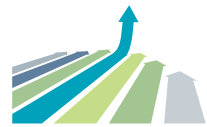
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Executive Summary

This brochure documents the presentations and major comments made in the course of the international expert workshop »**Scaling Up Voluntary Standards for Human Rights – The Challenge of Measuring Impact**« which took place at the office of the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ) in Bonn on June 30th, 2009.

The workshop focused on the role voluntary corporate standards can play for ensuring that companies meet their human rights obligations. It was organized as part of the broader research project »**Human Rights, Corporate Responsibility and Sustainable Development**« which is funded by the **BMZ** and conducted by the **Institute for Development and Peace (INEF)** of the University of Duisburg-Essen.





1 Initial Addresses

On June 30th, 2009, the international expert workshop »Scaling Up Voluntary Standards for Human Rights – The Challenge of Measuring Impact« took place at the office of the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ) in Bonn. It presented the research project »Human Rights, Corporate Responsibility and Sustainable Development« to the public. This project is funded by the BMZ and conducted by the Institute for Development and Peace (INEF) of the University of Duisburg-Essen.

The initial addresses of the workshop underlined the value of having an open discussion on the very topical theme of **business and human rights**. The BMZ stressed that human rights play a central role in the BMZ's development policy and that they define the ministry's take on the private sector and on business responsibility. Also, the BMZ pointed out early on that a tension exists between the concept of human rights and the concept of voluntary standards since human rights are based on legal obligations whereas voluntary standards are not legally binding. This basic point was taken up again during the first panel. It was also pointed out that the BMZ/INEF research project is to be seen in the context of the BMZ Human Rights Action Plan covering the years 2008-2010 and that the project aims at translating research findings into policy advice. Generally, it was seen as crucial to maintain the vigilance of a strong civil society and of parliament regarding the issue of business and human rights.

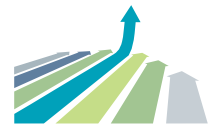
The BMZ/INEF research project »**Human Rights, Corporate Responsibility and Sustainable Development**« was then introduced in some more detail. It consists of three subprojects which examine various complementary modes of business regulation in the field of human rights and which thus try to identify synergy effects for strengthening the human rights responsibility of business.

One subproject analyzes the potentials of international human rights treaties and ILO instruments for protecting human rights. Another one focuses on state regulation by means of legislation, incentives and requirements, e.g. by integrating human rights policy and export business assistance. The subproject which forms the backdrop to this workshop, finally, focuses on the market dimension of human rights and business, analyzing potentials as well as challenges for voluntary self-regulation through codes of conduct and standard initiatives.

The idea for the workshop »Scaling Up Voluntary Standards for Human Rights – The Challenge of Measuring Impact« was conceived following an evaluation of the effectiveness of voluntary standards that was commissioned by the BMZ and conducted by an independent consulting firm in 2007. This study concluded that voluntary initiatives can contribute to a reduction of poverty and also to development in a more general sense. The aim of the workshop was to elaborate on the particular potentials and shortcomings of voluntary standards from a human rights perspective.



Also, although standards can have positive effects for the protection of human rights, they usually have only limited reach. Therefore another important question is how these initiatives can be systematically scaled up, without losing positive impact. Among the **challenges for voluntary standards and their scaling-up** are different kinds and complexions of supply chains, the question of gender equality, and also the informal economy which is usually not covered by standards but captures a huge part of the economy and workforce in developing countries. In addition, one needs to pose the question of how to grapple the impact measurement of both standard initiatives and scaling-up processes on workers and producers in different contexts. All these issues were addressed by the panels of the workshop.



2 Binding Regulation and Voluntary Standards

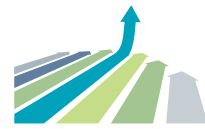
The introductory panel on human rights and business discussed the potential of legally binding regulations and voluntary standards to protect human rights as well as the relationship between those two approaches.

All speakers agreed that human rights are first and foremost a **legal concept** and that there is nothing voluntary about respecting human rights. The fact that there are human rights violations and abuses in spite of the law was seen as a failure not of the law, but of law enforcement. Therefore, it was argued, enforcement and sanctions mechanisms need to be strengthened.

A debate arose around the question what role voluntary standards can play for the respect of human rights. One view was to argue that voluntary standards do not play any role in the context of human rights. Human rights, in this view, are secured only through the **enforcement of the rule of law**. Voluntary initiatives or commitments to respect human rights are seen as a contradiction in terms because human rights are inherent rights for any human being and cannot be voluntarily granted or respected. Therefore, voluntary standards only make sense in areas where corporations can truly independently and voluntarily decide how to act, e.g. to care for the well-being of their employees in areas apart from and on top of what they are already legally obliged to do. In this context, it was also argued that voluntary standards do not need to fill in any gaps in the law because there is no legally uncharted territory where human rights law does not apply. Human rights need to be respected everywhere. The fact that there are still countless abuses of human rights in countries all around the world, in this view, calls not for voluntary standards but for better law enforcement.

Given the continuous lack of proper law enforcement in many countries, however, other participants did consider **voluntary standards as useful instruments in the area of human rights – not instead of but in addition to legally binding regulation**. To begin with, if a company publishes a corporate code of conduct which includes commitments to human rights standards, NGOs and the general public are able to hold the company to that standard. They can openly compare its words and actions and thus create **public pressure** for the company to comply with its own rules. In countries where governments are unwilling or unable to adequately regulate corporations this pressure may play an important role.





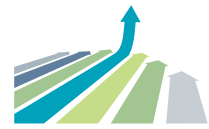
For example, it was mentioned that the oil company Shell only started a constructive dialogue with a MISEREOR partner organization in the Niger Delta about the problems of the local population after pressure had been created by the organization through the involvement of critical shareholders from Great Britain and the United States. Equally, the Justice and Peace Commission in Congo-Brazzaville only managed to enter into a dialogue with an oil company to discuss the conditions of and compensation for the relocation of the local population, once MISEREOR had written a letter to the company's headquarters in Italy.

The point is that codes of conduct and voluntary standards can and, in fact, also need to be enforced.

During the discussion about how voluntary standards can be enforced participants pointed out that a »compliance« approach is relatively weak compared to a »continuous improvement« approach. In China and Hong Kong, for example, unannounced audits in critical toy factories to check compliance with standards overwhelmingly prove that the factories' certificates of conformity with those standards should not have been issued in the first place and were only received due to either mistake or fraud. So while codes may be useful in bringing the CSR debate into factories, codes which are only monitored following a policing approach are insufficient. What is needed for an effective enforcement of standards is an inclusion of the workforce into the **monitoring process** as well as **complaints mechanisms** that employees can use. If properly monitored, voluntary standards can complement legally binding rules without, of course, being able to replace them. Structural problems can only be addressed through law. But nevertheless, that codes are voluntary does not mean that they are without obligations for corporations.

Having discussed how voluntary standards can be enforced from the outside through pressure created by NGOs and the general public, the discussion then turned to how companies themselves can ensure compliance with voluntary standards. Especially for big transnational corporations which do business all over the globe, this poses a considerable challenge. Siemens served as an example here, with a company representative providing valuable insights.

Siemens tries to take the varying cultural backgrounds and social conceptions of its roughly 430.000 employees from more than 140 countries into account. At the same time, it stresses the universality of human rights. With a mandatory **code of conduct incorporated into all procurement contracts**, Siemens seeks to stipulate the compliance of its suppliers with human rights standards. However, having more than 100.000 contractors, monitoring the adherence to these obligations is difficult. To improve the monitoring process, a round-the-clock help desk and an ombudsman were set up, to which

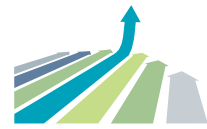


all workers can report human rights abuses. The company representative further stressed the fact that in an enterprise with a portfolio as broad as that of Siemens (operating in energy, industry and health care), much business intelligence and analysis is needed to establish company-wide human rights policies. In this respect, it is very challenging to find best practice examples that take into consideration the varying traits of different businesses and therewith make sharing them or scaling them up possible. So far, there are no standard processes for supply chain management.

The general discussion which followed the panel presentations re-confirmed the importance of legal sanctions, public pressure, and monitoring mechanisms to enforce human rights standards for businesses; and it was stressed that internal rules in businesses need to be executed and enforced just like external rules. The aspect of norm internalization was also brought up in this context. People and corporations were said to not only obey rules out of fear of sanctions but also because they ultimately share the values associated with the norms. Voluntary standards thus may play a role in influencing and strengthening moral convictions.

The problem of how one can create a **level playing field** for all corporations was discussed, too; and most participants agreed that it can best be achieved through international regulation that is binding for all companies and, importantly, that is enforced in all states. For countries with weak legal structures, it was suggested that governance gaps may temporarily be filled through complaints and dispute mechanisms such as the Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) centers at the national level. Generally though, it was stressed that **all states have a legal obligation to respect, protect and fulfill their citizens' human rights**. Brazil was mentioned as an example where the international rules concerning freedom of association could be better implemented into national laws: While there is no law in Brazil prohibiting the installment of works councils, there is (unlike in Germany) also no law to enforce their installment. This leads to the dissatisfying situation that a single German company in Brazil may have works councils in only half of its plants in the country – depending on whether the local business manager is anti-trade-union or not. In this case, more pressure should be put on the state to put international regulations into practice.



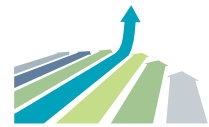


A problem with trying to enforce voluntary codes from the outside was seen in the fact that this requires a **public interest** in human rights issues. Without this public interest, it is impossible to create public pressure, i.e. abusive practices of companies will not be thwarted by consumers’ demands. Companies which have a code of conduct and are **receptive to criticism** can more easily be targeted through NGO campaigns and may therefore come under more scrutiny. However, as public interest develops and becomes more level, changes occur: In the oil industry, for example, much NGO criticism had been directed towards US-American and European companies in the past years, but the focus is now shifting to also include Chinese oil companies.

The question also arose what companies can do to help create a level playing field among all corporations. It was reported that Siemens is working on this problem in the field of anti-corruption. Companies have a self-interest in this field because if one aims at doing business in a country with a high rank in the corruption perception index and ends up being the only company obeying anti-corruption rules, chances of winning a deal are slim. So Siemens started entering into integrity pacts with its competitors and also the tendering agencies. These pacts now need to be made »hard«, i.e. they need to be binding and need to be monitored. Siemens is working on ensuring that multi-stakeholder agreements like those integrity pacts are entered into on a contractual basis so that they do become binding.

To conclude, it became clear that to improve the human rights record of companies, the complementary use of various instruments is relevant as different approaches can support the sanction of human rights abuses and the internalization of human rights norms. Most importantly, binding laws and good law enforcement are indispensable. In addition, voluntary standards may be useful because they can improve the performance of companies by creating (political) expectations among stakeholders that ultimately lead companies to act beyond their legal obligations. To be effective, voluntary standards need to be monitored and complaints mechanisms, which include the workforce, need to be in place. Also, public pressure exercised by NGOs gives teeth to voluntary standards. And finally, codes of conduct may become legally binding when they are included in contracts between companies and their suppliers or their competitors.





3 Potentials for the protection of human rights: Scaling up voluntary standards

Having established the usefulness of voluntary standards for the protection of human rights in the previous panel, the next session turned to the questions of whether and how voluntary standards can be scaled up in order to increase their positive impact. The initial presentation explained the general concept of »scaling up«; the following discussants then applied it to the context of voluntary standards.

The basic idea of scaling up is to increase a positive impact and to make it reach a larger number of beneficiaries. **A working definition of scaling up is »expanding, adapting and sustaining successful policies, programs or projects in different places and over time to reach a greater number of people«.** Three categories of scaling up can be distinguished: a) scaling up through expanding, i.e. making something bigger, b) scaling up through replicating, i.e. copying something and adapting it to a different environment, and c) scaling up through diffusion, i.e. allowing an idea to disseminate around the globe. Also, one can differentiate between the quantitative, the functional, and the political dimensions of scaling up: Quantitative scaling up is the geographical spread of a policy, program or project to more communities or to more beneficiaries in a given location; functional scaling up is expansion by adding new types of activities; and political scaling up refers to increased efforts to work through political processes and with other stakeholders. Importantly, not every initiative can or should be scaled up. This is not only due to resource constraints, but also due to the fact that at some point different schemes and initiatives will get into each others way. One therefore needs to be selective.

The focus of the debate then turned to the **drivers of scaling-up processes**. Three factors were identified here. First, it is crucial to have a leader. Successful scaling up processes are usually driven by **champions**. Well-known examples are Muhammad Yunus, the founder of the Grameen Bank and winner of the 2006 Nobel Peace Prize, as well as Fazle Hasan Abed, founder of BRAC, who both pioneered micro-credit movements and cooperative community efforts in Bangladesh. Secondly, **external catalysts**, such as political or economic crises or pressure from outside actors, are drivers of scaling-up processes. A third driving force for scaling-up processes, finally, is the role played by **incentives**. They are essential to shape the behavior of actors and institutions, while clearly requiring accountability.

Apart from drivers, scaling-up processes also need **spaces** to grow into. Such spaces may include political space, institutional/organizational space, cultural space, partnership space and fiscal/financial space. In the course of the workshop, a special focus was put on political space. It was emphasized that **scaling up is not only a technical process but also a political one**. After all, small and successful projects often create political opposition as they grow – and this needs to be anticipated. What is important in terms of creating political space is to build partnerships and forge alliances at all levels of government.

What also became clear during the workshop is that **scaling-up needs time, and slowness should not be equated with failure**. There are very few projects that are scaled up in less than ten years; many need

fifteen years. The most successful scaling-up exercise so far – which resulted in the elimination of river blindness in West Africa – persisted for 25 years. At the same time, one needs to constantly monitor and evaluate a scaling-up exercise according to clearly defined objectives. Well-designed and implemented evaluations can actually help build political support for an initiative during times in which political parties and governments change.

To sum up at this point, the workshop audience was instructed that **a »more of the same« approach to scaling up rarely works**. Any scaling-up exercise requires its own strategy. Also, scaling-up strategies for different policies, programs and projects differ depending on their aims and contexts.

The discussion then turned specifically to the task of scaling up voluntary standards, and it was acknowledged that the method for scaling-up would depend on the aim of the exercise. **The ultimate aim of scaling up voluntary standards was considered to lie in improvements of the human rights situation**, i.e. voluntary standards were seen as an instrument or a vehicle to promote internationally accepted social, environmental and economic norms. Compliance with voluntary standards was, by itself, not considered to be a primary goal – rather, a continuous improvement of the human rights situation, also beyond compliance with the legal framework, was.



Programme Office for Social and Ecological Standards





What is „scaling up“ in a standards context?

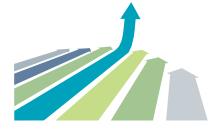
- Encouraging the **positive impact** of standard's content.
- Providing **broad access to improvement processes**.
- Offering an environment with **guidelines, services and mechanisms** which support developments towards more sustainable conditions.
- Supply chain actors use **market mechanisms** to promote production systems with decent social, ecol, econ conditions.





Division "Agriculture, Fisheries and Food"

Page 1



A representative of the GTZ defined the aim of scaling up in the context of voluntary standards as: a) encouraging the positive impact of standards' content, b) providing broad access to improvement processes, c) offering an environment with guidelines, services and mechanisms which support developments towards more sustainable conditions, and d) ensuring that supply chain actors use market mechanisms to promote production systems with decent social, ecological and economic conditions.

To create an environment that is conducive for scaling up the positive impacts of voluntary standards, one first needs to learn more about the **various impacts that voluntary standards may have over time** – both the positive and the negative ones, over both the long and the short term. In this context, a representative of the International Social and Environmental Accreditation and Labelling Alliance (ISEAL) pointed out that ISEAL works, among other things, on defining and documenting good practice in impact assessment. The alliance is currently developing a **»Code of Good Practice for Assessing Impacts of Social and Environmental Standards«**. What is clear from this code is that processes of standards' impact assessment need to be consultative and all stakeholders need to be involved. From the point of view of ISEAL convictions and incentives rather than sanctions are crucial for scaling up standards.

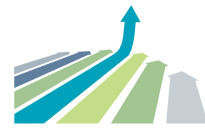


www.isealalliance.org

The Standards Landscape

- > Growing societal awareness of global sustainability challenges
- > Financial crisis and recognition of challenges leading to increased appetite for stronger tools and regulations
- > Rapid continued growth of markets for credible standards systems
- > Standards systems are increasingly recognised as legitimate tools
- > Proliferation of standards systems based on this success
- > Government, civil society and industry leaders in need of comprehensive sustainable development approaches
- > Warning signals from government, civil society and industry leaders about proliferation of standards systems

Expanding the role of voluntary standards systems in achieving social justice and ecological sustainability



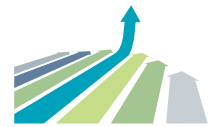
Still concerning the measurement of impact, the challenge was formulated to assess both standards' genuine impacts independently of a project environment and any support structures which increase positive impacts. A **supportive environment** for scaling up the positive impacts of standards was said to be achieved through :

a) growth on the demand side, b) credible communication of standards and what they achieve, c) access to services (financing, input, training) on the supply side, d) supporting efficient marketing conditions across trade chains, e) providing tools to encourage co-operation (benchmarking, meta-standards), f) establishing platforms for dialogue and exchange of good practices/lessons learnt, g) supporting improvements of management processes with capacity development and capacity building.

The GTZ reportedly tries to achieve all of this through a three-level-approach which includes 1) co-operation with standard organizations, 2) support to the development of enabling environments in supply countries, 3) teaming up with innovative stakeholders to develop strategic approaches and to embed standard related processes in management systems.

Taking the discussion of scaling up voluntary standards as a starting point, a representative from Global CSR then addressed the challenge of improving the human rights situation in supplier firms in developing countries from a different angle. His presentation on **»Supply Chain Management generation 3.0«** focused on possibilities for buyer companies to strengthen local state capacities to carry out the monitoring of the supply chain, i.e. on possibilities to ensure that the government institutions of developing countries better fulfill their obligation to protect against human rights abuses. The concept has evolved from discussions with the Business Leaders Initiative on Human Rights (BLIHR) and is now further being developed by Global CSR, Denmark, and the International Centre for Business Innovation and Sustainability at Dalhousie University, Canada. It has been publicly endorsed by the Danish Minister for Development Cooperation. To better understand the innovation of this concept, the earlier generations of supply chain management were explained first.

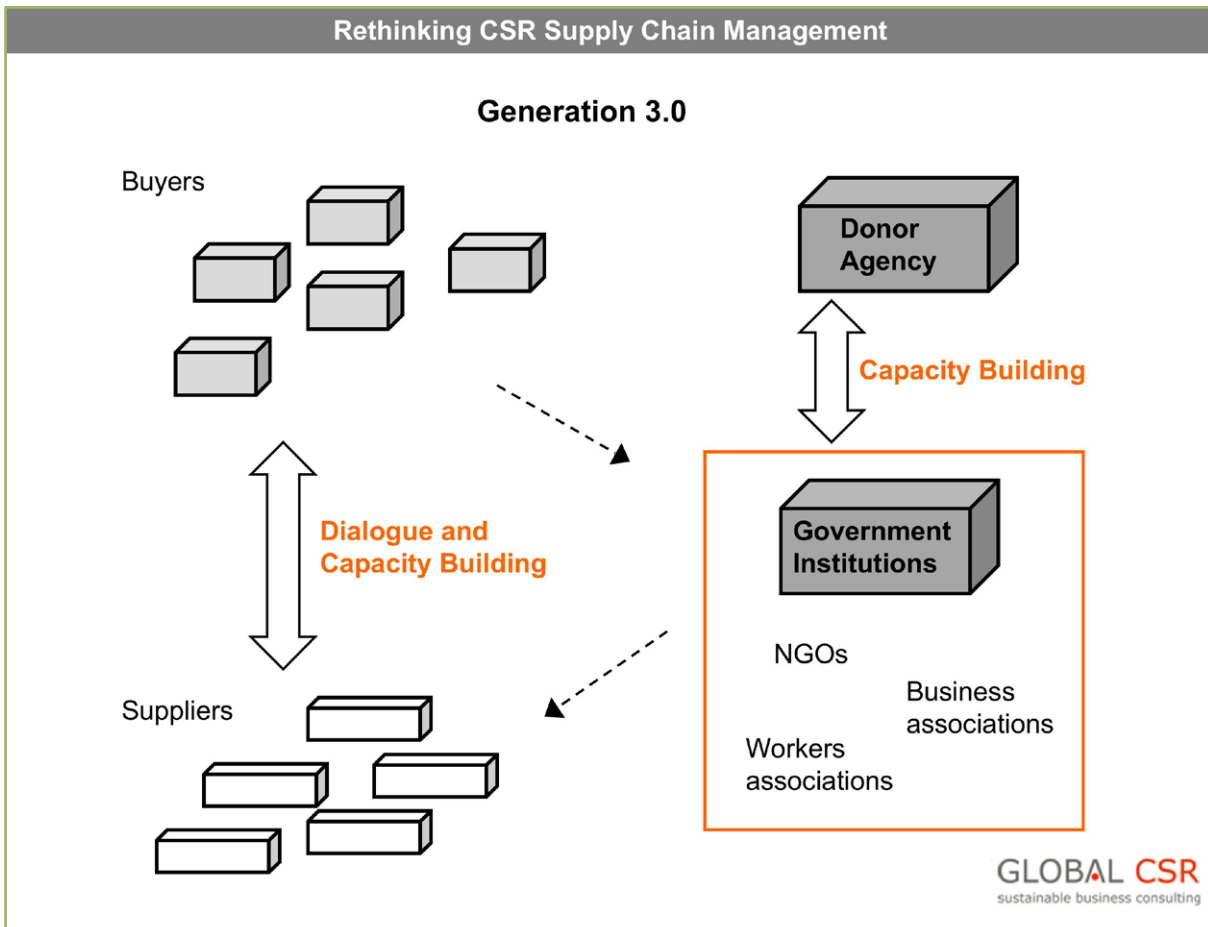
To begin with, **the initial generation of CSR supply chain management works with individual codes**. Each buyer company develops its own code of conduct and then monitors its compliance in the supplier companies. The cost-effectiveness of this model is questioned. Moreover, a problem of this approach lays in the fact that buyer companies minimize the number of their suppliers in order to minimize monitoring costs or reduce risks of exposure. Small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) may thus become excluded. Also, SMEs can find it difficult to demonstrate their compliance with the codes or to allocate resources to facilitate monitoring and auditing. The exclusion of SMEs naturally proves counterproductive to development work. Also, supplier firms may find it difficult to meet the different demands of varying buyers. The exponential proliferation of codes – **»code-mania«** – has made a level playing field difficult to reach.



The second generation of CSR supply chain management uses industry codes, i.e. common codes for each industry, often multi-stakeholder agreed codes. This reduces the »code-mania« problem, although it still exists. Also, there was a shift in focus from subjecting supplier companies to pass-or-fail audits to rather building their capacity. Industry and multi-stakeholder initiatives such as the Ethical Trading Initiative (ETI), the Fair Labor Association (FLA) and the Electronic Industry Citizenship Coalition (EICC) all included elements of capacity building of the supplier firms into their codes. Nevertheless, small and medium-sized suppliers continue to face the risk of being excluded especially when suppliers bear the main costs of accreditation, or when codes are too rigorous or voluminous to manage. This is a challenge to sustainable economic development.

The vision of the third generation of responsible supply chain management (in short: RSCM 3.0) is to create a situation in which buyers continue to build the capacity of their suppliers but where they concurrently – in collaboration with other buyers sourcing from the same geographical area – allocate resources to building the capacity of the local or national government to regulate suppliers and ensure appropriate enforcement. So far, it is argued, too few resources of buyer companies go into strengthening such government capacities. Looking at the Ruggie framework, resources spent in relation to CSR arguably need to be better distributed among capacity-building initiatives for corporations (which at an estimate currently spend about 90% of CSR funds) and those for governments (which spend around 10% of CSR funds). The state duty to protect against human rights abuses needs up-scaling and corporate initiatives in relation to RSCM 3.0 could most appropriately seek to address this challenge.

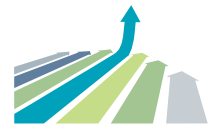




Buyer companies have an interest in building local state capacity to carry out the monitoring of the supply chain: By building this capacity, big brands can reduce their liability related to the supply chain as supervision by the state allows for lower tiers of the supply chain to be reached, including small and medium-sized enterprises and subcontractors. Ultimately, RSCM 3.0 is supposed to help create risk-free sourcing and investment areas for socially responsible buyers and investors.

The Ghana Business Code, which was developed in cooperation with the Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA) was mentioned as a specific example of an initiative that attracts new investors.

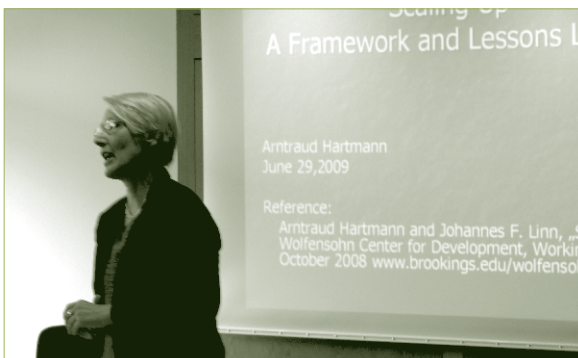
Most workshop participants approved of the general concept of RSCM 3.0. One discussant, however, pointed out that the stated aim of RSCM 3.0 to create »risk-free areas« for buyer companies may be misleading. Even in presumably »safe« countries such as the United Kingdom there are still labor rights abuses in lower layers of the supply chains. Also, racial discrimination was mentioned as a problem that tends to remain even in countries with an otherwise acceptable human rights record. Finally, one

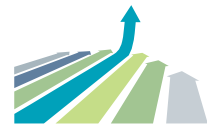


discussant noted that while the concept of RSCM 3.0 arguably allows supplier companies to cultivate stronger relationships with key buyers, it does not provide sufficient incentives for micro-level actors, e.g. the owners of factories, to follow voluntary standards.

After the presentations of the panelists, the general discussion allowed the workshop participants to get back to important points that were made before. It was stressed again that to improve the human rights situation of workers and smallholders, one should not only think about compliance with international rules. The compliance approach arguably creates an exclusive world by separating those who comply from those who do not. A better approach would be to think about how to enable **constant improvements**. Although the voluntary standards movement is still quite young, it was argued in this context that we can already see significant growth in the market which can be traced to companies' motivations of pure risk-management or marketing-driven implementation. The question now is how to organize that growth. As to scaling up voluntary standards, it was pointed out that badly-planned scaling up exercises can also backfire, for instance with a significant number of people being pushed out of export markets.

The **role of buyer companies** was seen as ambiguous. On the one hand, they have an interest in forcing down prices and therefore should not (solely) be responsible for monitoring their supply chains. Strengthening the local governments is therefore crucial. On the other hand, there also exists a mix of push- and pull-factors which lead buyer companies to improve conditions in their supplier firms. A »business case« can be made because some buyer companies fear for their good brand names through possible reports on scandals, while positive CSR reports help their businesses. **In all, it was considered as crucial that companies have a distinct interest in the human rights impact of their businesses. Such a genuine interest ensures that they measure their impact, maximize their knowledge on which voluntary codes work best, and eventually enforce their codes.**





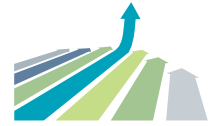
4 Challenges for scaling up voluntary standards (gender, supply chain, informal sector)

The next panel addressed gender, the supply chain, and the informal sector as three specific challenges to the success of voluntary standards. The presentations and discussions quickly made clear that all **three challenges are interlinked**: Much of the work in lower tiers and subcontractors of complex supply chains is done by informal workers, and disproportionately numerous informal workers are female.

Early on, a point was made regarding terminology. Since there is informal labor in agriculture, the industry and the service sector, speaking of the »informal economy« rather than the »informal sector« was seen as more appropriate by the speakers. The ILO also uses this term.



To start off the debate about the informal economy, its **history** was above all traced to the liberalization agenda of the WTO and international financial institutions. Their policies, it was argued, allowed companies to expand without paying much attention to social and labor conditions. As the competition pressure in global supply chains increased, and as the concentration and expansion of retailers mounted due to mergers and acquisitions, the buying practices of retailers also increased the pressure on prices and on suppliers. During the last 10-15 years, suppliers' dependency on buyers thus led to higher



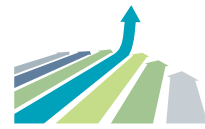
degrees of socially unprotected labor as the pressure exerted by the retailers was extended to the workers. Presenters in this context spoke of »buyer-driven supply chains« in which buyers can dictate most business conditions. Second, apart from liberalization and globalization, the acute global economic crisis was identified as a factor that has led to higher unemployment rates and thus also drove many workers into the informal economy.

Turning to the situation of informal labor today, one panelist explained that informal workers currently account for two thirds of the global workforce, and that the title »Is informal normal?« of a recently released OECD study was therefore fitting. Taking the garment supply chain as an example, three **types of informal workers** were distinguished: 1) directly employed informal workers, without permanent contracts, 2) workers who are indirectly employed through a labor contractor (this category reportedly accounts for 40% of the workers in the garment industry in the Delhi area in India), and 3) homeworkers, often situated many levels down from the retailer in the supply chain. Workers in all of these groups are mostly poorer than workers who are formally employed. They face low wages and little if any social benefits as they are not properly protected by trade unions or the law.

Women are disproportionately represented in all of the three groups identified above. As was mentioned before, this shows how much the problems relating to gender discrimination, complex supply chains, the informal economy and also poverty are linked. The concept of decent work was therefore identified as being highly relevant for achieving the Millennium Development Goals. In addition to the textile and clothing industry, the toys and electronics industries were explicitly mentioned in this context.

As to the impact of voluntary standards in these settings, the Ethical Trading Initiative (ETI) impact assessment study – which is still the most comprehensive study done on the impact of labor codes on workers – clearly showed that those benefiting most from voluntary codes are permanent workers in short and stable supply chains, i.e. mostly men. Informal workers, women workers, and workers at the bottom of complex supply chains benefit a lot less.

Nevertheless, some **examples of how to successfully reach those most vulnerable groups** were also presented at the workshop. The **ETI homeworkers project** which focused on protecting the rights of homeworkers in the Indian garment industry was one such example. This project proved successful through the joint action of several retailers and brands that all bought from India and could send out a common message to the suppliers. The retailers made a multi-year commitment to work with ETI and the homeworkers working group and then focused on gaining practical results (e.g. access to social security). The importance of social dialogue in this context was also emphasized by the former director of social responsibility with GAP Inc. He considered the dialogue within the homeworkers working group as critically important and as a »wake-up call« for most companies. Arguably, the companies only realized through their dialogue with civil society that a radical abolishment of all homework would have been a counterproductive approach.

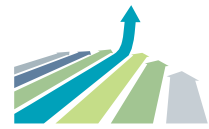


A second example of how the labor conditions of vulnerable groups can effectively be improved is the **ETI training of supervisors** and middle management on African export farms about the widespread problems of gender discrimination and sexual harassment. This project is also based on the joint action of several companies and although it is still ongoing it has reportedly already shown some practical results: Attitudes among the critical management levels towards issues of gender discrimination seem to be changing.

Apart from positive examples, some **practical problems** were also addressed. The role played by the private sector, in particular, is still ambiguous. Some companies are more self-reflective and assess their various impacts in light of the fact that informal workers have the same human rights as regular employees. Other companies, by contrast, do not see how they play a part in the informal economy and criminalize rather than address the problem.

At times, irresponsible behavior may be due to sheer thoughtlessness. The fashion industry, for instance, was described as a very emotional industry in which people go by their instincts: Merchants often demand from their suppliers to make changes to the style of shirts or other pieces of clothing on very short notice and long after they have already placed an order. Reportedly, merchants do not assess the human rights impact of such short-term changes and of the pressure on the supplier that comes with it – they may not even assess whether the suggested changes to the shirts will actually lead to the selling of more shirts.

On a different note, the European representative of Social Accountability International (SAI) – an initiative which has grown over the past ten years so that over 1900 companies in 66 industries in 65 countries covering more than one million workers are certified today – briefly introduced the standard SA 8000. He pointed out that the system works primarily by putting a strong **emphasis on social dialogue**. In the factory, the emphasis is on worker-management relations and internal dispute resolution mixed committees. For instance, in SAI trainings representatives of trade unions and brands are brought together to develop management trainings and joint trainings on implementing gender justice, e.g. regarding the issues of pregnancy testing and maternity leave. The capacity around management systems in companies is thus built up internally. Also, the quality of certificates is controlled through calibration meetings with auditors and shadow audits, as well as by focusing on the installment of complaint mechanisms. Such mechanisms obviously need to be easily accessible – unlike in Mexico, where the access of workers to the labor office is reportedly expensive and time-consuming due to limited capacity within the ministries. The certification itself was seen by the SAI representative as only **a starting point for continuous improvement**. Also, SA 8000 was seen as only one tool in the toolbox: Different initiatives with a multitude of perspectives, methods, resources and expert knowledge are needed to fill the governance gaps at national levels in various economic sectors.



One lesson of the Clean Clothes Campaign (CCC) was that non-legal instruments such as research, public campaigns, and dialogues with companies are successful in raising public awareness about the human rights impacts of business and in reaching select companies. HESS Natur, a subsidiary of Arcandor, which joined the Fair Wear Foundation was singled out as having been particularly responsive to the CCC. Also, public campaigns about human rights abuses by specific transnational corporations always entail the possibility of improving the situation on the ground. Overall, however, the usefulness of non-legal instruments to secure human rights was seen as limited. **The panelists agreed that after 10-20 years of codes of conduct, actual improvements were mainly reached regarding the abolition of child labor and regarding the health and safety of workers. By contrast, with respect to more political issues such as discrimination, freedom of association, collective bargaining etc. voluntary codes do not seem to have had much impact.** Given this mixed record, it was suggested to focus less on self-commitments in the future.

One panelist even suggested abandoning the idea that voluntary self-commitments are still complementary to law and legal frameworks. In her view, the complementary nature of voluntary standards has changed in the past years and there is a real danger today of voluntary standards substituting legal regulation in many countries.

Two examples were given for this substitution effect. First, since 1999 the European Parliament has called on the EU Commission to adopt measures regarding mandatory public reporting for companies and also measures to hold those company managers who are responsible for sourcing, personally accountable for human rights abuses in the sourcing area. This has, however, not been taken up by the EU Commission which, instead, relies on rules of a purely voluntary nature. Arguably, the Business Social Compliance Initiative was only founded in Brussels in 2004 in order to confront the upcoming debate on more legal means and to prevent the new EU legislation from coming. Second, trade unions called on the labor ministers who met in Dresden during the G8 summit in Germany in 2007 to come up with laws to better regulate the activities of multinational corporations. They specifically proposed the expansion of framework agreements. Yet this call was also transformed into one for voluntary standards by the ministers.

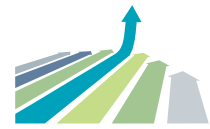
The general discussion which followed the presentations of the panelists focused on four issues: 1) the role of the end consumer, 2) the role of the ILO, 3) the issue of gender, and 4) possible ways forward.



Consumers were generally seen as important, but fickle. To begin with, there are vast differences among consumers – some may be very aware and others quite ignorant of the impact of their buying choices. In addition, many people’s budgets are currently decreasing due to the economic crisis so that they may be unable to afford more expensive products. Also, products which are produced in an environmentally and socially sustainable manner are often only sold in limited alternative markets. Therefore, the impact of consumers is seen as limited. On the other hand, the alternative market with fairly produced and traded goods is growing and more companies may be encouraged to enter it. An experiment by Harvard University showed that customers who could choose between two otherwise identical products on ebay were willing to pay more for the one that was advertised as having been sustainably produced. Finally, the general responsibility of consumer countries for the advancement of developing countries was stressed: Consumer countries were said to have a responsibility to ratify ILO conventions and make use of them as instruments of development cooperation. Also, national legislation concerning public procurement is needed in consumer countries, as well as more awareness-raising among consumers.



Given its tripartite nature, the International Labour Organization was seen by most workshop participants as a unique and highly valuable institution. With representatives from governments, business and labor unions being by constitution included in all deliberations, the ILO enjoys a high degree of legitimacy. Although it may initially have been difficult to get all stakeholders to the table, social dialogue, partnerships and alliances between stakeholders – rather than confrontational approaches – apparently led to good results. On the other hand, some **problems regarding the work of the ILO were also identified.** It was argued that the ILO needs to analyze in more depth how it can make voluntary standards work better. One proposal was that development agencies should contribute to improve the reporting



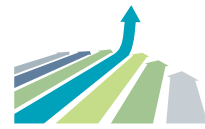
mechanisms in many developing countries. Also, ILO business representatives seem to have problems communicating ILO decisions back to their companies. At the implementing levels, few people seem to know the mandate of the ILO so that it is crucial to build people's knowledge and to raise their awareness of the necessity to comply with ILO conventions. Given that ILO rules are elaborated through the tripartite system that includes business representatives, it was stressed that more companies should lobby other companies to follow the ILO regulations. Finally, it was critically remarked that the ILO does not seem to have any adversaries and that one may conclude from this fact that it lacks in teeth and needs better sanction mechanisms.

As to the question of **gender justice**, it was pointed out that it is no coincidence that women are always among the most marginalized, poorest sectors in labor. There is arguably a deficiency in the ILO system: **It neither takes the informal economy nor the reproductive and (unpaid) care work economy sufficiently into account – and both are especially relevant for women.** While the value of the unpaid economy has increasingly come into the center of discussion since the World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995 both the informal and the unpaid economy with their respective effects on women still need to be much more addressed. Specific standards, e.g. on maternity, are also highly relevant in this context. When a convention such as the Maternity Protection Convention is ratified and put into national legislation, the private sector needs to follow.

To conclude, the initial question of the panel – whether voluntary standards are useful in addressing the three identified challenges, and whether they should therefore be scaled up and if so how – was taken up again.

On the one hand, it was re-emphasized that voluntary standards do have some positive impact mainly with regard to the health and safety of workers. On the other hand, this impact is generally patchy and does not lead to broad, structural improvements. Such improvements are not possible through the »privatization of labor legislation« that comes with the self-commitments of companies. Rather, it was agreed that **structural improvements can only come through binding legislation**, for example regarding public reporting and public procurement. As mentioned before, some participants feared detrimental effects of voluntary standards on such mandatory legal regulation. To achieve a »big push« with many more companies making radical changes to their supply chains, government engagement is crucial to bring about the respective laws. Also, governments can play a convening role, can help build capacity, can educate consumers, and lobby other governments.

The question was then raised whether it would be possible to focus voluntary standards more on empowerment rights, i.e. on freedom of association and participation rights, so that the progress regarding the health and safety of workers could be complemented in the future. Arguably, **it is no coincidence that the political concern of worker empowerment and thus the controversial issue of changing power structures are not sufficiently addressed through voluntary codes** thus far. For companies, these structural questions are more uncomfortable issues to deal with. The Ethical Trading Initiative is currently discussing how there could be a more focused effort on trade union rights because it is recognized that the implementation of all other rights flows from them. So far, however, tackling this problem has proven difficult. One participant indicated in this context that since scaling up is about something right being expanded, scaling up voluntary standards may not necessarily be the right thing to do because »we don't have it right yet«. **Voluntary standards need to focus more on worker empowerment.**

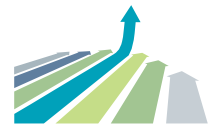


Finally, the point was made that apart from fulfilling their traditional role in collective bargaining, trade unions can also use health and safety issues as vehicles to build less confrontational relationships with the management.

On banana plantations in Nicaragua, trade union representatives are reportedly being trained on health and safety issues and then pass their knowledge on to other workers, thereby helping the management implement certain standards. Also, the Self Employed Women's Association (SEWA) in India was mentioned as an example of a rather untraditional trade union as it consists of informal women workers who try to regulate their informal economy.

As companies increasingly have both formally and informally employed workers, it was generally stressed that labor unions need to include the informal workers in order to better bring their concerns onto the companies' agendas. Some homeworkers are already organized and therefore can be more easily approached. In other cases unions may not easily have access to informal workers. It is then helpful if companies release the names of their suppliers to the trade unions in their sector.

Summarizing the discussion on possible ways forward, it was concluded that capacity needs to be build among the suppliers, workers need to be empowered and complaint mechanisms introduced at various levels, buyers need to change their buying practices, and the commitments and capacities of state institutions to respect, protect and fulfill human rights also need to be strengthened.

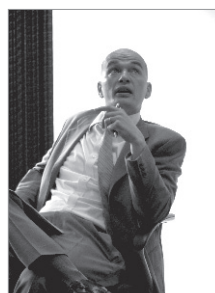
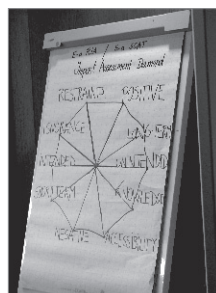


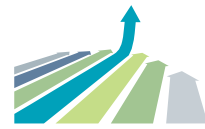
5 Measuring the impact of scaling up voluntary standards

The last panel of the workshop turned to the crucial question of how one can measure the impact of voluntary standards and of their scaling-up on the human rights situation of a given group of people. In this context, important steps and possible missteps in the evaluation process were identified.

To begin with, it was pointed out that a well-formulated theory on the effects of voluntary standards on companies is needed – a theory about the cause-effect relationship that we expect. Additionally, this theory needs to take into account possible errors and side effects caused by the intervention. Then the theoretical concept needs to be made visible by using adequate indicators which, simply put, serve to turn the things we think into things we see. This was said to be a difficult task with respect to human rights, however, because they are seldom positively defined. As is the case with »peace« and »health«, it is easier to find indicators describing their level of absence, i.e. to measure not the implementation of human rights but the extent to which they are violated and abused. Once indicators have been established and a survey has been completed, one compares the given results with those of a control group. Finally, it was considered as crucial to develop a »theory of change« which also takes into account that effects may occur at different times, may differ in duration, may change over time, and may cause feedbacks or interaction effects. Constant monitoring and evaluation were therefore seen as necessary.

The panelists then proceeded to explain in more detail the **methodological challenges** with measuring the impact of scaling up voluntary standards. A special warning was issued with regard to simple »before and after« comparisons because quite often, effects that we assume to be due to an intervention are indeed caused by a third, unobserved variable. For instance, if one finds that the human rights situation is better after the scaling-up process, one is tempted to conclude that the intervention has worked – although the effect may really be due to changing consumer interests and a greater demand for certain quality products. Also, if one finds that the human rights situation has not improved or even worsened after the scaling-up process, one is tempted to conclude that the intervention failed – when in fact it may have had a positive effect which was, however, counteracted by a third, intervening variable like a coup d’état.





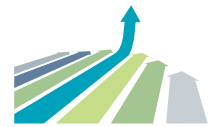
Apart from intervening variables, the second difficulty which was pointed out relates to questions of correlation and causality and to the problem of falsely taking correlations for impacts.

For instance, an improvement in human rights standards in a company may increase the collective action capacity of the workers who then start to also improve and scale up labor standards etc. One thus finds a positive correlation between the scaling up of standards and the human rights situation but it is not the scaling up of standards which improved the human rights situation, but rather the improved collective action capacity of the workers which brought about the scaling up of standards. In such cases one could speak of »reverse causality«.

The construction of a counterfactual component was described as the conceptual answer to false interpretations of correlations in evaluation theory. There are two standard approaches for this: first, the randomized experiment and second, a quasi-experimental design called »matching«. In a **randomized experiment**, an intervention and a control group are randomly selected and the average effects of the intervention are determined by comparing the differences between the two groups. This approach, however, was said to be difficult to use with regard to the impact measurement of voluntary standards because of many spill-over effects within branches and markets as well as for ethical concerns that come with the construction of control groups.

The alternative approach, »**matching**«, was said to be more feasible. The base of this regression technique is formed by a large-scale (and usually costly) survey regarding the working and living conditions of various workers and their families. The idea is that some persons covered in this broad survey will work in companies which implement voluntary standards while others will work in companies without such standards. From the given data, persons with generally similar characteristics (head of household, work in specific branch etc.) are then being selected and »matched«. Reportedly, one can assume that the only crucial difference between those »matched« persons is that some work in companies with and some in companies without standards, so that one can thus compare the average effect of the implementation of voluntary standards on the human rights situation.

Having focused a lot of attention on ex post evaluations of interventions, **the focus of the workshop session then turned to ex ante evaluations**. One panelist stressed that measurements of the impact of scaling up standards are premature as long as there is not yet a theory on how standards function in the first place, i.e. especially how standards function without project and donor support. Such evaluations, it was argued, are usually not done but should come first. Here, one needs to measure both the intended



and unintended effects, both the positive and negative effects, over both the long and the short term. Also, it is important to measure whether people know about standards or are ignorant as to their existence and whether people's access to certain standards is restrained or not. Too much development money is burned in failed attempts which result from insufficient ex ante evaluations.

In particular, it was pointed out that while some small-scale evaluations have taken place in the past, there may be a need for bigger models. Comparable to how supercomputers simulate the global dynamics and consequences of climate change, one may also need to try to simulate the dynamics of change in societies which influence the scaling up of voluntary standards. Until now, the dynamics of change in society (in two thirds of the world) have arguably been underestimated.



Some lessons for scaling up, however, can already be drawn from small-scale evaluations. To begin with, it is clear that the results of impact assessments of standards in the framework of development programs cannot be translated one-to-one to scaling up models. Rather, we need **ex ante impact assessments of standards in non-project environments**. When standards are dependent on project support and donor sources of funding, this distorts the conditions for scaling up. **The crucial question is whether an innovative idea will take root and spread in society without the continuous support of the »change agent«, i.e. without the support of aid agencies. What happens to an innovation once we leave it to itself?** So far, this question has not sufficiently been taken up by the international development community.

Also, a lesson to be drawn from previous experiences is to focus on the unintended effects of scaling up processes. The concept of »creative destruction« by Joseph Schumpeter was mentioned in this context. It goes back to innovation economics and the diffusion of innovation. In short, it holds that in order for innovations to spread, old things need to be destroyed: Since there is no free space or vacuum, old ways



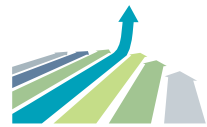
need to disappear to make room for the new. So since with the spread of something new, something old is willingly or unwillingly destroyed, this destruction brings opposition. As had already been mentioned in the general presentation on scaling up, it is crucial to anticipate this opposition and create political space to overcome it.

Having focused on theoretical considerations in the proceeding presentations, a representative of the Forest Stewardship Council (FSC) then tackled the issue of measuring impact from a **practitioner's perspective** and explained how the FSC conducts its assessments.

The FSC relies on different sources of information to assess its outputs and impact. These include in-house data from certification reports as well as information from autonomous FSC national initiatives and from the more than 800 members. The FSC also conducted a literature review based on the research papers of independent external researchers of the past ten years. These research papers focus on the diverse aspects of FSC's impact, and are for example based on case studies of certified forest management units, on certification reports and on interviews with stakeholders and other experts.

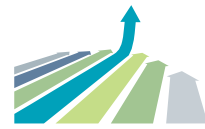
The FSC representative went on to stress that scaling-up processes have both a qualitative and a quantitative dimension. Given that only seven percent of the world's production forests are presently FSC certified, the FSC puts a lot of emphasis on naming quantitative targets in its current global strategy on scaling up. Those targets include, for instance, a 100% increase in certificates from natural tropical forests within the next five years. At the same time, the FSC starts to implement a monitoring and evaluation system in order to assess and continuously improve the quality of its work and to ensure that the promotion of sustainable forest management by the FSC actually delivers benefits, including human rights benefits. The principles and criteria on which the FSC bases its work thus need to be constantly revised to increase their relevance and range without diluting their quality. Thus, there is a need for a »quantity of quality«. Also, impact assessments are important to communicate and »sell« the work of the FSC and to demonstrate its positive impacts to the donors.

As was mentioned before, various steps need to be taken in order to be able to successfully assess impacts. First, one needs to develop appropriate indicators which can be collected cost-effectively. The FSC is currently working on this in cooperation with ISEAL. In addition, the monitoring needs to be sufficiently flexible in order to take non-intended effects, such as indirect benefits and costs, into



account. Also, it needs to be possible to fund the system even though this is often seen as a low priority issue relative to other funding requirements. One example of the challenges posed by project-based impact assessments is the dual certification project by the FSC and the Fairtrade Labelling Organizations International (FLO). The evaluation of this project is complex because it involves setting a base line, i.e. a point in time to which a comparison is made. Furthermore, it is challenging to simultaneously consider local as well as national and international markets and to measure the direct as well as the indirect, non-monetary benefits for a community. Multi-moment studies are often necessary to monitor developments at regular intervals. Here, it is also challenging to assess strategic developments, e.g. regarding the cooperation of international traders.

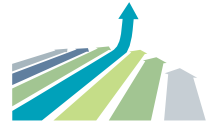
The general discussion which followed the last presentation came back to the question of **who should conduct evaluations**. On the one hand, it was argued that evaluations should be conducted by an external actor in order to be independent and meet high methodological standards. Due to the costs of such external evaluations, it was recommended that NGOs and certification organizations have more joint impact evaluations in order to be able to share their costs. On the other hand, the point was made that sending highly trained evaluators into companies to assess the impact of voluntary standards is not enough. Since voluntary standards are supposed to empower workers, more emphasis should be put on establishing participatory monitoring and complaint mechanisms. Through such feedback mechanisms workers can directly report on the impact they experience. In all, the participants seemed to agree that **both an inside and an outside view are necessary for evaluations**. One needs both a participatory approach, i.e. asking people whether they are better off or not, and an objective approach relying on quantitative methods coming from the outside. The outside view, in this context, certainly need not rely on experts from Western countries but on local auditors.



The discussion also returned to the need for comparisons and counterfactuals. On the one hand, it was stated that the conceptual answer to false interpretations of correlations in evaluation theory is the construction of a counterfactual component – and that since the improvement of people’s human rights situation is such a multi-causal phenomenon, this counterfactual should be built as rigorously as possible. One participant suggested thinking out of the box a little by simply considering the 390 million unorganized workers in India as a counterfactual group. On the other hand, the need for comparisons and counterfactuals was questioned by another participant, arguing that comparisons only tell us that there is an effect, without telling us much about the cause. **Statistical comparisons arguably do not explain why there has or has not been an impact.** Also, there is the problem that control groups may change over time. So a different approach to find out if workers benefit from the introduction of voluntary standards is to simply ask employers what changes they made and then cross-check this information with the workers. Eventually, it was agreed that a combination of both evaluation approaches is useful to explain impacts and to thus justify an intervention.

Finally, it was pointed out that the Paris Declaration has generally influenced the importance of impact evaluations in development systems. Both principles – management for results and mutual accountability – have increased the necessity for donors and NGOs to demonstrate and document the positive effects of their work in developing countries and to thus gain legitimacy. At the same time, one should be aware that **there is a place for both complex and for rather quick and superficial studies:** All depends on what information the assessment is supposed to reveal.



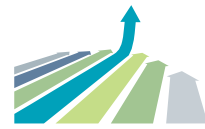


6 Wrap-up and concluding discussion

The **key points made and lessons learnt** over the course of the day were summarized in a final session of the workshop. It was reiterated that human rights are a legal concept and that national governments play a key role for their protection. Governments need to enforce the rule of law. However, several gaps in the protection of human rights against abuses by corporations are apparent today. For bridging these gaps the **complementarity of binding regulation and voluntary standards** was highlighted. On the one hand, the adherence to voluntary standards can lead to processes of norm internalization. On the other hand, the installment of adequate monitoring processes and complaints mechanisms can help enforce voluntary standards. Also, codes of conduct can be enforced by incorporating them into contracts. In addition, public pressure can play a central role in forcing corporations to obey by certain standards – if there is a public interest in human rights abuses by companies and if the respective companies are receptive to public criticism.

Although there are methodological challenges to measuring the impact of voluntary standards, codes of conduct were generally considered by the workshop participants to have a (limited) positive impact. Therefore, the general concept of scaling-up, including its need for drivers, spaces and time, was introduced and applied to voluntary standards. It was stressed that the aim of scaling up voluntary standards is to constantly improve a human rights situation. As voluntary standards can have varying positive and negative impacts over the long and short term, ex ante evaluations and impact assessments of





standards in non-project environments were considered to be necessary before the start of any scaling-up exercise. Also, **a supportive environment for scaling-up the positive impacts of voluntary standards needs to be created**. The specific possibilities of buyer companies to help local state authorities carry out the monitoring of their supply chains was discussed in the framework of »Responsible Supply Chain Management 3.0«.

The supply chain, issues of gender justice, and the informal economy were generally identified as interlinked challenges to the effectiveness of voluntary standards. Examples were given on how these challenges can be addressed – emphasizing the importance of social dialogue in this context – and which practical problems remain. **It seems that in the past, voluntary standards had a positive effect mainly regarding the abolition of child labor and regarding the health and safety of workers. They did not have an equal impact with respect to political issues such as discrimination, freedom of association, collective bargaining etc.** Some participants therefore reiterated the importance of properly enforced laws and expressed a concern about the stronger shift towards corporate self-regulation in recent years. Participants agreed that voluntary standards need to focus more on worker empowerment in the future, without ever serving as a weak substitute to legal regulations.

Some aspects that were not discussed during the workshop but could be taken up in the future work within the BMZ/INEF research project on »**Human Rights, Corporate Responsibility and Sustainable Development**« were also identified during the final session. This included the role of host government agreements and of socially responsible investment. In addition, it was remarked that the workshop had focused a lot on labor rights and that to also include other human rights, more emphasis could be put on indigenous peoples whose rights are often terribly abused by multinational corporations. The event ended with acknowledgments for the panelists, participants and organizers of the workshop.



Workshop Programme

Moderation: Conny Czymoch

09.00-09.30h

Welcome and Kick-off of the BMZ/INEF research project

Marita Steinke

Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ)

Head of Department 214 for Gender Equality, Human Rights, Culture and Development

Prof. Dr. Tobias Debiel

Director of the Institute for Development and Peace (INEF), University of Duisburg-Essen

Dr. Brigitte Hamm

INEF, Project Manager of the BMZ/INEF research project »Human Rights, Corporate Responsibility and Sustainable Development«

09.30-10.30h

Introduction: Human rights and business

Elisabeth Strohscheidt - Funken

MISEREOR

Human Rights Officer

Daniel Kronen

Siemens AG

Senior Manager Corporate Responsibility

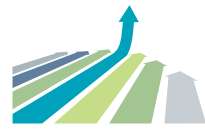
Corporate Legal and Compliance

Reiner Radermacher

Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung (FES)

Coordinator Global Trade Union Policy

Coffee break



11.00-12.30h

**Panel (1): Potentials for the protection of human rights:
Scaling up voluntary standards**

Arntraud Hartmann

Adjunct Professor, Johns Hopkins University, Bologna Center; World Bank (retired), consultant

Carsten Schmitz-Hoffmann

Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ)

Head of the Program for Social and Ecological Standards

Eileen Kaufman

International Social and Environmental Accreditation and Labelling Alliance (ISEAL)

Morten Lehmann

Global CSR

Senior Advisor

Lunch break

14.00-15.30h

Panel (2): Challenges for scaling up voluntary standards (gender, supply chain, informal sector)

Ingeborg Wick

SÜDWIND Institut für Ökonomie und Ökumene / Clean Clothes Campaign

Man-Kwun Chan

Independent consultant, former Research & Information Manager, Ethical Trading Initiative (ETI)

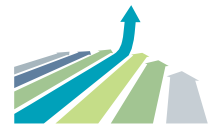
Dr. Hildegard Hagemann

Deutsche Kommission Justitia et Pax

Sean Ansett

Social Accountability International (SAI)

Coffee break



16.00-17.00h

Panel (3): Measuring the impact of scaling up

Dr. Wolfgang Meyer
Centrum für Evaluation (CEval)

Dr. Jörg Faust
German Development Institute (DIE)

Dr. Rolf Sülzer
Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ)
Senior Advisor Evaluation

Dr. Alan Smith
Forest Stewardship Council
Network Coordination Team Leader

Coffee break

17.15-18.00h

Wrap-up and concluding discussion

Input: Heiko Liedeker
CEO of Leading Standards GmbH



Registered Participants

1	Anders	Saskia	Institute for Development and Peace (INEF)
2	Ansett	Sean	Social Accountability International (SAI)
3	Burghardt	Diana	Institute for Development and Peace (INEF)
4	Dr. Chahoud	Tatjana	German Development Institute (DIE)
5	Chan	Man-Kwun	Consultant
6	Czymoch	Conny	Moderation
7	Prof. Dr. Debiel	Tobias	Institute for Development and Peace (INEF)
8	Eglence	Gönül	Institute for Development and Peace (INEF)
9	Dr. Engels	Rainer	Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ)
10	Escaida Navarro	Marianne	Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ), Intern
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12	Dr. Faust	Jörg	German Development Institute (DIE)
13	Dr. Feldt	Heidi	Consultant
14	Flohr	Anne	Technische Universität Darmstadt
15	Dr. Hagemann	Hildegard	Justitia et Pax
16	Hahn	Lisa	Institute for Development and Peace (INEF)
17	Dr. Hamm	Brigitte	Institute for Development and Peace (INEF)
18	Hartmann	Arntraud	Johns Hopkins University, Bologna Center
19	Hippmann	Petra	Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Deve- lopment (BMZ)
20	Dr. Junker	Ingo	Euler Hermes Kreditversicherungs-AG
21	Kaufman	Eileen	International Social and Environmental Accreditation and Labelling Alliance (ISEAL)
22	Kayser	Folke	Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ)
23	Koalick	Madeleine	Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ), Intern
24	Krahl	Peter	Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Deve- lopment (BMZ)



25	Kronen	Daniel	Siemens AG
26	Laan	Tessa	UTZ Certified
27	Lehmann	Morten	Global CSR
28	Liedeker	Heiko	Leading Standards GmbH
29	Majer	Noemi	Internationale Weiterbildung und Entwicklung (InWEnt)
30	Dr. Meyer	Wolfgang	Centrum für Evaluation (CEval)
31	Philipp	Katja	Institute for Development and Peace (INEF)
32	Plesch	Michael	Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ)
33	Radermacher	Reiner	Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung (FES)
34	Rieth	Lothar	Technische Universität Darmstadt
35	Dr. Rodenberg	Birte	Consultant
36	Scheper	Christian	Institute for Development and Peace (INEF)
37	Schmitz-Hoffmann	Carsten	Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ)
38	Schukat	Philipp	Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ)
39	Dr. Smith	Alan	Forest Stewardship Council
40	Dr. Spieß	Katharina	Amnesty International
41	Steinbach	Stefan	Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ), Intern
42	Steinke	Marita	Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ)
43	Strohscheidt-Funken	Elisabeth	MISEREOR
44	Dr. Sülzer	Rolf	Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ)
45	Dr. Ulbert	Cornelia	Institute for Development and Peace (INEF)
46	Weber	Antje	Institute for Development and Peace (INEF)
47	Weidmann	Karen	Federal Ministry for Economics and Technology
48	Weikert	Jochen	Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ)
49	Wick	Ingeborg	SÜDWIND



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