

TOOLS

Strengthening Child Protection Systems

Measuring and Monitoring Child Protection Systems

Proposed Regional Core Indicators
for East Asia and the Pacific

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Proposed Regional Core Indicators
for East Asia and the Pacific

**Measuring and Monitoring Child Protection Systems: Proposed Core Indicators for
the East Asia and Pacific Region**
Strengthening Child Protection Systems Series: No 3

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Foreword

Child maltreatment – the physical, sexual and emotional abuse, exploitation and neglect of children – has been shown through the *World Report on Violence and Health* (2002) and the *UN Secretary-General's Study on Violence against Children* (2006) to be widely prevalent in all societies. According to recent global data, more than one in four children worldwide reported having experienced severe and frequent physical abuse, while child sexual abuse was experienced by nearly one in five females and one in eleven males. Maltreatment can have profound and damaging consequences during childhood and adolescence and throughout adult life. Children who have experienced abuse or neglect are more likely to have poorer physical and/or mental health outcomes; social difficulties, such as insecure attachments with caregivers and problematic relationships with peers, and as adults later in life; cognitive dysfunction, attributable to the negative impact of excessive stress on brain development; high-risk behaviours, such as drug and alcohol abuse, early sexual activity and resulting teenage parenting; and behavioural problems, including aggression and adult criminality.

In addition to addressing these crucial dimensions of children's rights, investing in protecting children has a direct positive impact on a country's human capital and economic growth and reduces the burden of government spending on the long-term consequences of abuse. National child protection systems are recognized as the most effective and sustainable means to protect children from all forms of maltreatment. The absence of such a system frequently leads to incomplete coverage, and to individual violations being addressed as separate, unrelated problems.

UNICEF is strongly committed to working with partners to prevent and respond to child maltreatment. The *Strengthening Child Protection System Series* is a package of evidence and tools to support this effort in the East Asia and Pacific Region. It provides information and guidance on the scale and nature of child maltreatment, the immediate and long-term costs of such maltreatment to individuals, families and society, and effective and sustainable policies and programmes for child protection. The series is intended to contribute to an enhanced evidence base for rights-based interventions and the development of strong child protection systems in countries across the region.

In order to develop the evidence base and advocate for the strengthening of national child protection systems, governments and their partners require accurate, regular and up-to-date data and information on how such systems are functioning. The lack of regularly collected and analysed data on child protection across the region is notable, and the information that is gathered is often not validated, nor indicative of national progress achieved in preventing and responding to child abuse, neglect, violence and exploitation.

This publication, number 3 in the series, proposes a framework of core indicators for measuring and monitoring national child protection systems in the region. The indicators, used either in concert or selectively, will support monitoring and assessment of the enabling environment or 'governance' of national child protection systems: the relevant legal and regulatory structure, the social welfare system for children and families, and the justice system as it relates to child protection. This monitoring will enable governments to assess the impact of policies and programmes on child

protection systems over time. The framework draws from existing indicator systems to fill gaps within a system-wide perspective. The proposed indicators are designed for measurability and for adaptation across differing country. While the focus is on the East Asia and Pacific region, the indicators are likely to be applicable in other settings and as such represent a contribution to global discussion on measuring the governance of national child protection systems.

The UNICEF Regional Office for East Asia and the Pacific presents this report as a contribution to the evidence base on child maltreatment in the region, as well as globally, with the intention that this work will contribute to ensuring that all children are protected from violence, abuse, neglect and exploitation.



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In the course of developing this report, FISCO was in close communication with the World Bank ECA Human Development Team, in particular with Paolo Belli, discussing ways in which governance can be analysed and measured in decentralized service delivery frameworks. Much appreciation is due to Paolo Belli for helping the team to crystallize their ideas and for recommending some of the key literature.

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Finally, much appreciation is due to the experts, researchers and advocates who are working to strengthen the performance of child protection systems in the East Asia and Pacific region, and whose work is a vital part of our collective efforts to protect children from abuse, neglect, violence and exploitation.



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Abbreviations

ADB	Asian Development Bank
AGI	Actionable governance indicators
AIDS	Acquired immune deficiency syndrome
BGI	Broad governance indicators
CAT	Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CERD	International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination
CDC	Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (US)
CMW	Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families
COFOG	Classification of the functions of government
CP	Child protection
CRC	UN-Convention on the Rights of the Child
DAC	Development Assistance Committee (OECD)
DFID	UK Department for International Development
DHS	Demographic and health surveys
DPR	People's Democratic Republic – Laos PDR /DPRK
EA	East Asia
EAP	East Asia and Pacific
EAPRO	UNICEF East Asia and Pacific Regional Office
ECA	Europe and Central Asia
EFA	Education for All
ESCAP	European Society for Child and Adolescent Psychiatry
EU	European Union
EVI	Economic vulnerability index
FMG	Female genital mutilation
GDP	Gross domestic product
GFS	Government Finance Statistics (IMF)
GNI	Gross national income
HAI	Human assets index
HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus
HRBA	Human rights-based approach
HRM	Human resources management

IEG	Independent Evaluation Group
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
INGO	International non-governmental organization
ISPCAN	International Society for the Prevention of Child Abuse and Neglect
IPEC	International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour
LDC	Least developed country
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MICS	Multiple indicator cluster survey
MIS	Management of information system
MTBF	Medium-term budgetary framework
MTEF	Medium-term expenditure framework
MTSP	Medium term strategic plan (UNICEF)
NDI	Narrowly defined indicators
NGO	Non-governmental organization
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PAR	Public Administration Reform
PEF	Public expenditure framework
PEFA	Public Expenditure and Financial Accountability
PFM	Public financial Management
QUANGO	Quasi-autonomous non-governmental organization
SN	Sub-national
UNCEB	United Nations Chief Executives Board
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children’s Fund
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UN-OHRLLS	United Nations Office of the High Representative for the Least Developed Countries, Landlocked Developing Countries and Small Island Developing States
WB	World Bank
WDR	World Development Report
WGI	Worldwide Governance Indicators
WHO	World Health Organization

PART I

Introduction

Child protection indicators: From 'issues' to 'governance systems'

Protecting children strengthens development: The world has come to agree on this. Six of the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) relate directly to children and overlap on many points covering children's rights. In particular, spending on a child's health, nutrition, education, and social, emotional and cognitive development, and on achieving gender equality, is not only an investment in a more democratic and equitable society, but also in a healthier, more literate and, ultimately, more productive population. Moreover, the Millennium Declaration addresses child protection explicitly, based on the understanding that none of the MDGs can be achieved without ensuring that children – our society's most precious resource – are protected from violence, child labour, harmful traditional practices, commercial sexual exploitation and the absence of parental care (UNICEF 2006).

An important way investment in children is transmitted into the well-being of nations is through the protection of young people from specific risks, such as violence, neglect, maltreatment and abuse. Ensuring children's rights to survival, growth and development – and that they reach their full potential – depends critically on protecting them from the multiplicity of risks related to physical and mental violence, maltreatment, abuse, neglect and exploitation (Pouwels et al. 2010). Without being differentiated as a separate issue within the Millennium Development Agenda, children's rights to protection represent a distinct technical challenge that cuts deeply across all MDGs and strongly contributes to their achievement. In particular, child maltreatment has been shown to impair a child's educational outcomes and future employment, increase the likelihood of drug and alcohol abuse, early parenting, chronic physical and mental health problems, shatter future family relationships, and increase lifelong probabilities of conflict with the law, with resulting complex and significant costs to the nation (DHHS 2001). Therefore, investing in child protection is not only a moral imperative; it is also a sound economic investment, with high rates of return if systems of governance are well managed (Sen, 2001).

A distinct feature of child protection is that it involves multiple risks which are interrelated in complex ways, but which are not always fully researched and quantified. In particular, one major risk which strongly covariates with most child protection vulnerabilities, and yet whose impact is not straightforward, is material deprivation and poverty. Families who face economic hardship might find it more difficult to protect their children because of more transient residence, poorer education, and a higher likelihood of substance abuse and emotional disorders, as well as greater difficulties of access to parental care support systems. As a result, some countries register a higher incidence of child maltreatment among poorer families. However, despite these income-related correlations, the same research finds substantial numbers of maltreated children at all income levels. This points to the presence of additional factors which lead to child abuse, neglect, violence and maltreatment – via acts of omission or commission – which make it difficult for these children and their families, regardless of income, to access effective protection programmes (DHHS 2001).

This example of complex causal linkages between poverty and child protection illustrates the importance of a comprehensive analysis of barriers and bottlenecks of access to protection faced by children in any society. A useful framework to approach these complex linkages is the UNICEF equity-based agenda, which proposes a focus on the analysis of bottlenecks and barriers of access to public services, with a view to investment of public resources into the most cost-efficient interventions. In particular, the programmatic paper on equity-based approaches points out that

earlier attempts to achieve the MDGs focused on removing supply-side barriers of service provision, including for the poor and marginalized; but less attention has been paid to overcoming demand-side barriers such as social and cultural norms, uneven quality and low awareness of the importance of care and protection among communities (UNICEF 2010). Thus, ensuring all children, regardless of economic background, have equal access to protection requires societies to install, operate and monitor comprehensive child protection systems that would remove any barriers both on the supply and demand side. These also need to be coordinated with adjacent systems and policies related to social welfare, such as public health, education and social protection.

A systems-based view on child protection builds on several decades of work by UNICEF and its partners to respond effectively to persistent child protection challenges. UNICEF continues to work on developing effective policies and diagnostic tools to assess child outcomes across the globe. Since UNICEF began the State of the World's Children reports in 1979, and with the adoption of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) a decade later, recognition of the central importance of child protection has helped stimulate the development of new indicator frameworks to monitor children's rights for protection at national and international levels. More specifically, numerous efforts have also been made to define (and redefine) the concepts of child well-being¹ and child protection² in the context of promoting and protecting children's rights and for the purpose of developing child indicators to assess outcomes. Other initiatives within UNICEF reflect attempts to develop indicator systems for governance aspects of certain components of child protection, such as the Juvenile Justice Indicators (UNDOC and UNICEF 2006) and Formal Care Indicators (UNICEF / BCN 2009).

Until recently, planning, capacity building and response to child protection have often been structured around individual issues. The original intent of child well-being indicators, for example, was to monitor child survival (Ben-Arieh 2008). Such national and international indicator systems focused on risks to survival and well-being, and on training the attention of governments and international actors on issue-based risks to children that needed to be mitigated or ameliorated; these risks included child labour, sexual violence, child trafficking, disability, and juvenile justice. Thus, the planning, capacity building and response to child protection has often been reactive and structured around individual issues.

Although issue-led efforts produced substantial benefits, this diffused approach often resulted in a fragmented appreciation of child protection responses, marked by numerous inefficiencies and a failure to address key institutional issues. This is because many children face multiple protection problems rather than just one. Different risks are usually interlinked in the sense that vulnerability in one area leads to increased vulnerability in others. In this way a child who is trafficked is also at risk of being physically harmed, psychologically affected, sexually abused and/or separated from his/her family. The focus on individual issues has sometimes resolved one issue while leaving others untouched. Fragmented child protection responses may deal with one of these problems but they rarely provide a comprehensive solution.

Dissatisfaction with some of the negative consequences of fragmented approaches has led to interest in understanding broader, systemic approaches to child protection. In particular, this shift of interest led to the reframing of the linkages between children's rights, child protection and child well-being, by looking more broadly at the deficits in protection facing all children, and addressing

1 For example, Heshmati 2007, Land, Measuring Trends in Child Well-being; An Evidence-based Approach 2007, Land, The Foundation for Child Development Child and Youth Well-being Index (CWI), 1075-2005, with Projections for 2006 2007), (UNICEF 2007), and Richardson 2008.

2 WHO/ISPCAN 2006, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2008.

the structural or root causes for omissions in prevention and response – in other words, assessing and strengthening institutional arrangements of the component parts of the child protection system. This interest has been spurred by the recognition that a balance needs to be struck between negative and positive³ child indicators (UNICEF 2009), and by a cumulative recognition of the need for a similar balance between an issues-based and a ‘systems’-based approach to child protection (UNICEF 2003), (UNICEF 2008), (UNICEF EAPRO 2007), (UNICEF EAPRO August 2009), (Wulczyn 2009). As further sections illustrate, a systems-based view incorporates the complex linkages between various aspects of child protection and the various covariate risks that have to be addressed, with the help of analysis of the underlying decision-making processes which translate the various inputs required by the system into the outputs of child protection and well-being.

3 Theories of economic development and human capital formation have directly and indirectly contributed to work on positive child well-being indicators. Sen’s work on freedom and individual capabilities (Sen 1999) – including positive freedoms and negative freedoms – has had a significant bearing on a range of research and policy fields – such as workforce development, human rights, human development, social capital formation, health, social protection, and education.

Governance system as ‘the missing middle’ between inputs and outcomes in child protection

Governance of the child protection system is a critical link in the process of translating inputs to outputs, and is something that has been overlooked in issue-based analysis. Any system of child protection incorporates a ‘results chain’, which translates specific inputs (material and financial) into outcomes (see Figure 1). Aspects of the system which define this process of translation of inputs into outputs are often identified as the system’s governance, or the ‘missing middle’ of the results chain (Belli 2010). In particular, the building blocks of a child protection system are composed of its structures, functions, capacities, approaches and processes (Wulczyn 2009), (Maestral International/UNICEF 2010). More recently, the term ‘governance’ has come to embrace the network of institutional arrangements (including government) and processes that determine decision making and the process by which those decisions are, or are not, implemented. One reason why governance is known as the ‘middle’ which is ‘missing’ is because while measures to assess inputs, outputs and outcomes are elaborated to some degree for most sectors including child protection, the tools available for measuring governance indicators are still a new, albeit quickly expanding, field⁴.

Key elements of governance for child protection are outlined in Figure 1. This provides a rough illustration of the key elements of the child protection system in terms of the types of inputs and governance sub-systems that help to turn these inputs into child protection outcomes. It shows that such systems include critical processes related to the management of financial, human and information resources, legislative and policy frameworks, as well as a dynamic cultural context which shapes social expectations with regard to protection of children and, therefore, resulting systemic outcomes in this area⁵.

Governance systems are complex and include multiple linkages between ‘governance inputs’ and ‘governance outputs’. Governance systems could be analysed in terms of ‘governance inputs’ (or ‘determinants’) and ‘governance outputs’ (or ‘performance’). This is important for designing quantifiable measures of governance as it helps to clarify what kind of factors (variables) require analysis and how they are interrelated. For example, governance **determinants** for child protection could include the numbers of people hired for certain tasks or legislation approved to protect children, while governance **performance** could include actual enforceability of laws and whether they result in changed practices (see Figure 2).

An important aspect of governance is that it helps to analyse child protection as a system which includes but is not limited to state structures. Governance encompasses the state, but it transcends organs of the state by including the private sector and civil society organizations. The focus on governance has become particularly salient in the context of global interconnectedness,

4 The AGI initiative notes that the most commonly available and best-elaborated measures are focused on service inputs, outputs and outcomes (Reid October 2010). The initiative draws attention to what it terms the “missing middle,” that is, measures of governance determinants, governance performance, and the exogenous factors that condition how they work.

5 This set of indicators is based on a view on what represents a child protection system and its governance, which incorporates approaches developed in earlier work by UNICEF and its partners. The approach taken within these indicators also resonates with the definitions and concepts of governance proposed by similar parallel initiatives to monitor and evaluate institutional arrangements of governance across the globe (including the East Asia and Pacific area), such as the World Wide Governance Indicators (WGI); sector-wide Governance Indicators currently developed by the World Bank for Education and Healthcare Sectors (Belli 2010); the development of statistical indicators through the Paris 21 agenda to monitor progress on a range of international policy agendas – including the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (ESCAP, ADB and UNDP 2010) and Education for All (EFA) (UNESCO 2009) – and measuring and analysing social inclusion at the global level (Atkinson 2010).

Figure 1. Governance as the ‘missing middle’ in translation of inputs into outputs in child protection

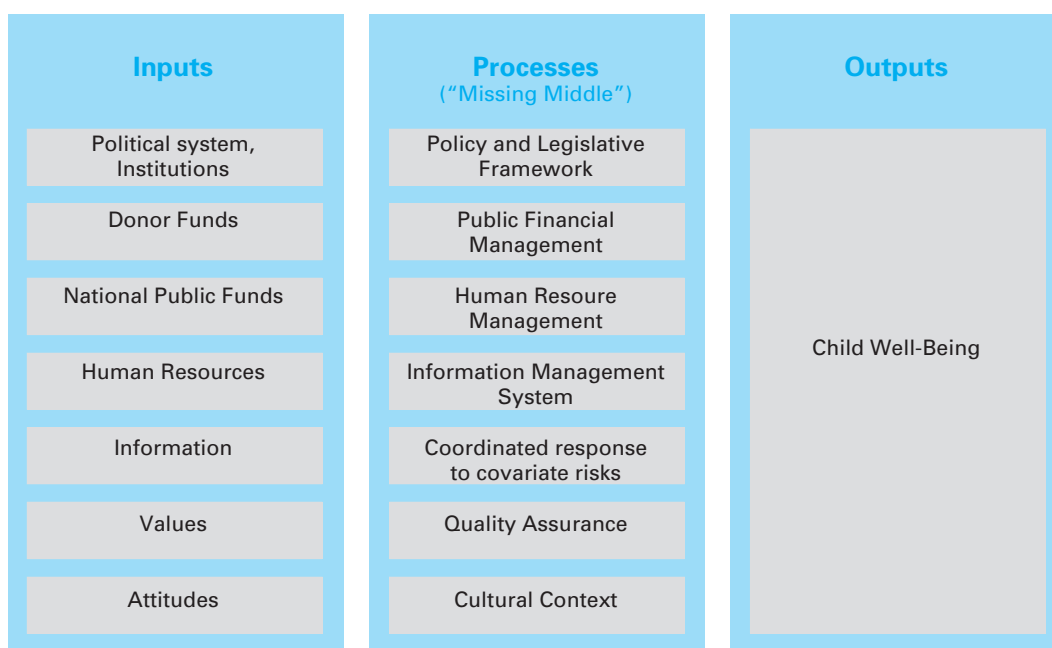
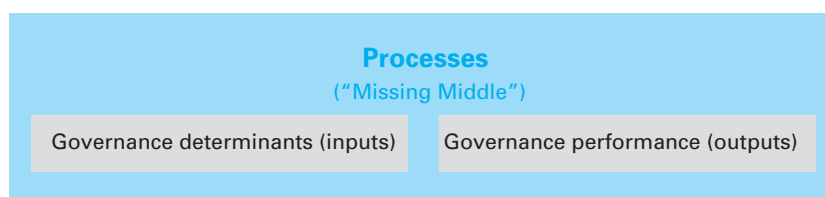


Figure 2. Endogenous governance indicators: Determinants and performance variables



and alongside other policy factors – such as policies to allocate resources and decision making to quasi-autonomous organizations (QUANGOs) or to sub-national (SN) tiers of governments (linked to processes of fiscal and administrative decentralization). The contracting-out of key functions to NGOs for public services such as social protection, health and education, and engaging private providers to deliver services to the government in related areas, such as criminal justice security in the UK, are also of relevance. Another important area of broader linkages taken on board by the governance analysis covers projects in child protection undertaken by the private sector within the corporate social responsibility agenda.

Concepts of governance and human rights are mutually reinforcing. The UNDP (1997) report observes that ‘good’ governance is development that prioritizes the poor, advances the cause of women, sustains the environment and creates needed opportunities for employment and other livelihoods. The human rights-based approach (HRBA) to development is essential to achieving this, and for reinforcing the fulfilment of all human rights – including children’s rights. In a pioneering study, Kaufmann, Kraay and Zoido-Lobaton (1999 and 2002) proposed different dimensions of governance measures. They measured good governance in terms of six aggregate indicators corresponding to six basic governance concepts, namely, voice and accountability, political stability and violence, government effectiveness, regulatory arrangements, rule of law, and corruption. Given that these concepts share a great deal of common ground with human rights, it has also been proposed that the concepts of governance and human rights are mutually reinforcing (UN Economic and Social Council 2004).

How can this Indicator Framework be used?

Possible applications and key requirements

The proposed Indicator Framework aims to serve as a platform for country stakeholders, led by the government, to build comprehensive monitoring systems for child protection. The key purpose of this Indicator Framework is to provide partners across the EAP region with a practical platform to achieve a number of goals, including providing a platform for joint work with local stakeholders under the leadership of local governments, constructing sets of standardized indicators for monitoring and assessing child protection at the national level, comparing progress between countries, analysing comparative strengths and weaknesses of existing systems, and jointly using emerging information to improve child protection systems. Table 1 lists some key ways in which this Indicator Framework can be used by stakeholders in policy making at the country as well as the regional level, specifying the individual features of the indicators, which make it possible.

Table 1. Some opportunities for using the Child Protection Systems Indicator Framework

The framework can be used to:	This is possible because of the following:
Provide information to stakeholders (both government and development agencies) on current strengths and weaknesses of child protection systems at a broad level.	Indicators are generic and comprehensive.
Assess and compare status of national child protection systems across countries of the EAP region.	Indicators are standardized, allowing cross-country comparisons.
Monitor policy and practice improvements (at the regional level as well as by individual countries). Assess whether policies and programmes to strengthen child protection systems are having an impact over time.	Indicators allow developing a baseline to measure the current status of child protection as well as its change over time.
Collect indicator-based evidence on roles of key ministries and departments involved in child protection.	The Framework includes both horizontal and vertical cross-cutting indicators.
Support local, national and regional advocacy to strengthen national child protection systems.	Indicators are transparent and supported with detailed guidelines for their measurement, which should help to collect objective evidence on issues salient for advocacy in child protection.
Raise profile of system-wide analysis of child protection.	Indicators are generic and focused on analysis of systems, rather than individual issues.
Consolidate stakeholders at all levels (such as line ministries or levels of government) around joint issues related to child protection such as systems of financing, human resource management, openness and adequacy of information or cultural context.	Indicators help professionals from all fields related to child protection to unite forces around joint barriers to effective services for children by delineating systemic governance problems and presenting them in a clear and measurable way.
Provide support to stakeholder dialogue on child protection systems, including on child protection reform measures.	Indicators are focused on aspects of system governance, indicating gaps and opportunities for change.
Foster dialogue with partners and civil society (e.g. NGOs) to promote systems-based approach to child protection.	The focus on governance implies thinking of child protection as an area that transcends the state and includes wider partnerships.
Support South-South exchanges and increase opportunities for cooperation around joint agendas of strengthening similar systems in child protection.	Benchmarks and standards for the indicators developed with regard to the challenges of emerging and developing systems of child protection, which can reveal joint challenges related to governance reforms across the region.

Commitment and leadership by governments is critical for collecting the necessary information and applying it to improve policies, and should be facilitated with technically rigorous advocacy.

A definitive feature of the data and analysis required by this Indicator Framework is the coverage of several sectors in public administration (such as public financial management, human resources management, decentralization arrangements, statistics and information management etc) and, at the same time, the need to break these data down by categories to make them relevant for sector-wide analysis specific to child protection. Moreover, many these areas are technically intensive and require considerable knowledge of related concepts and of local institutional contexts to arrive at meaningful assessments (such as, for example, analysis of spending allocations or fiscal relations between budget tiers). This means that successful utilization of these Indicators requires strong ownership and commitment by the government, facilitated by technically rigorous and strategically focused advocacy.

Most important, it should be noted that developing indicators, benchmarks and standards is as much about the process as it is about the product. Thus the approach presented in this Indicator Framework must be seen as a starting point rather than as a definitive result, requiring ongoing refinement and expansion in response to data as they become available and to related legal and policy developments. This initial Core Set of Child Protection Indicators is not only open to adaptation, but could actually be seen as a useful influencing tool for stakeholders in child protection to seek better understanding of measurement approaches, to monitor verifiable aspects of child protection outcomes, to use this information to critically assess existing policies, and based on this knowledge, to constantly adapt, and, if necessary, extend the stock of indicators, benchmarks and standards to improve governance in child protection.

The trade-off between quantitative measurements and qualitative assessments

Measuring diverse and complex systems with standardized indicators: Embracing the paradox

The trade-off between quantitative, indicator-based governance assessments and more context-oriented qualitative studies is central to the contemporary debate on how to understand, measure and influence governance systems. The recent OECD survey of Donor Approaches to Governance Assessment noted that donors are becoming increasingly aware of limitations of aggregate indicators in providing recipes for interventions at country level, and at the same time that they are becoming increasingly interested in understanding global and regional trends in the quality of governance, which requires comparable assessment tools.

In a diverse, globally unequal, but increasingly interconnected world, the task of drawing up indicators that take account of child well-being, child protection, and institutions and governance is far from straightforward. In a sense, it faces an inherent paradox. On the one hand, comparisons require a consensus on a universal set of indicators to compare countries i.e., a level playing field. On the other hand, any such set risks being little more than a lowest common denominator of basic indicators which tell little about the complexity of processes and outcomes in particular countries or regions of the world, and which are highly likely to miss key specificities in particular contexts. The issue of the diverse cultural perspectives on well-being is also relevant here (Gough 2004). In addition, the proliferation of indicators available – which by one recent estimate (World Bank Institute 2006) suggests there are now over 140 user-accessible sets of governance indicators alone comprising literally thousands of individual indicators – adds to the confusion. Indeed, a second paradox emerges in the seemingly never ending search for ‘new’ indicators: “If the indicators give an ‘expected’ result, they are liable to be dismissed as telling us no more than we know already; but if they give an unexpected result, they call into question the methodology” (Carter 2001).

Considerable regional diversity is a specific challenge in application of standardized governance indicators in the EAP. UNICEF’s East Asia and Pacific region embraces a diverse range of countries with a variety of governance traditions and administrative systems. This diversity is reflected in regional groupings and global affiliations that transcend geography. The East Asia region includes Cambodia, the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea, Lao People’s Democratic Republic, Malaysia, Mongolia, Philippines, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Viet Nam and two of the world’s most populous nations – China and Indonesia. The Pacific region forms a unique geographical area, which can be classified into three sub-regions based on ethnic, cultural and linguistic differences. The western region (Melanesia), which includes Fiji, Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands and Vanuatu; the south eastern region (Polynesia) comprised of the Cook Islands, Niue, Samoa, Tokelau, Tonga and Tuvalu, and the central and northern region (Micronesia) comprised of the Federated States of Micronesia, Kiribati, Marshall Islands, Nauru and Palau. The degree of variation across the East Asia and Pacific region is reflected in human development and gender equity indicators and in significant variations in demographic characteristics and poverty indicators.

The quest for reliable indicators is a reflection of the faith in the importance of objective evidence in influencing policies. The quest for reliable indicators, benchmarks and standards is in part a reflection of faith in the possibility, through measurable outcome indicators (such as well-being), of providing evidence to guide the development of efficient, effective and equitable policies. Such a faith is not new, of course, and can be traced to some of the core tenets of ‘the new public management’, in which accountability is increasingly secured through agreement on outcome-based performance criteria (Minogue n.d.). Inevitably, in this context, what to some seems a systematic, concerted and consistent application of indicators to fighting global poverty and exclusion and improving governance systems, seems to others as little more than a technical smokescreen behind which the status quo of ‘business as usual’ is maintained (Gould 2003), (Voipio 2003).

This Indicator Framework is linked to the drive to develop measurable indicators for a practical objective of stronger protection for children in the interest of the global community. As international investors, aid donors and international development analysts have increasingly come to understand the importance of governance, they have sought to render the concept operational for decision-making purposes and to develop systematic frameworks across various economic, social and environmental domains as part of national strategies, policies and plans with time-bound targets and timetables. Following the maxim that you can only manage what you can measure, they have thus turned widely to using quantitative and qualitative indicators for the quality of local governance. This Indicator Framework is structured to respond to the tasks of finding standardized, comparable benchmarks and standards for measuring progress in improving child protection systems throughout the EAP region, and using this regional perspective for tackling joint challenges and distilling lessons.

A balance between quantitative and qualitative analysis for using this Indicator Framework can be struck with the help of practical rules emerging from previous work in the area. While the EAP region is very diverse, and child protection systems represent a policy area with many ‘black boxes’ which are still difficult to operationalize, practical lessons and recommendations derived from previous research and similar indicator frameworks should help to maximize the utility and applicability of these indicators across diverse country environments. Below is a summary of lessons and considerations which are emerging in the current literature in terms of ways to strike a balance in the trade-off between qualitative and quantitative dimensions of governance indicators and to apply standardized indicator frameworks most productively across diverse and fast changing country contexts.

‘Three golden rules about governance indicators’

One of the most viable approaches to maximize applicability of indicators to country-level policy work was developed by the UNDP and is known as the ‘three golden rules’ about governance indicators (UNDP 2004). The essence of this recommendation is to think of governance indicators as supplementary, rather than self-sufficient, tools in the child protection reform process. In particular, these rules include:

■ **Golden rule 1: Use a range of indicators**

The single governance indicator which captures the subtleties and intricacies of national situations, in a manner that enables global, non value-laden comparison does not exist. Using just one indicator could very easily produce perverse assessments of any country and will rarely reflect the full situation.

■ **Golden rule 2: Use an indicator as a first question – not a last**

As an indicator becomes more detailed, it is more likely to point towards actions that could lead to an improvement in the result.

■ **Golden rule 3: Understand an indicator before you use it**

This is perhaps the most crucial rule of all, since by using an indicator you can be considered to be implicitly endorsing it, including its methodology and normative assumptions

Qualitative assessments converted into scored rankings

Although some sources of governance data are more likely to generate metrics than others, governance indicators always require additional qualitative analysis of quantitative statistics.

Generally, governance system assessment tools draw from five sources of information: written surveys (e.g. self-assessments), dialogue-based processes (e.g. interviews, focus groups), indirect observation (e.g. what the assessment team sees when it is in a government building or in a meeting with civil society actors), direct observation (e.g. shadowing a staff member over a day to see how decision processes work), and quantitative data (e.g. on services provided – such as the way children are treated by the juvenile justice system). It is often tempting to believe that tools and sources which generate metrics (numbers) are somehow providing more objective data. Unfortunately, such objectivity is largely illusory. Objectivity will depend on whose opinion is being quantified. For example, survey data, while presented in a quantitative fashion, are often perception-based. Also, many qualitative assessments are converted into scores or ratings, usually based on clear scoring criteria. Objectivity also depends upon the accuracy of the source when data are presented in the form of raw statistics. A good example is child abuse and neglect data or data on child trafficking, which can be problematic for countries to collect from ministries of the interior or ministries with responsibility for social welfare. In addition, cross-country comparisons are risky because of the different national definitions used by data generators and users. It is essential therefore for governance system data to dig beneath the surface of quantitative statistics.

In measurement of Child Protection Systems Indicators, distinctions between hard and soft data are often blurred. Many governance tools and sources rely heavily upon qualitative data, which are essential for measuring change processes in key thematic areas. For some tools, qualitative data are reported in a narrative format and, for others, they are converted to a score. Both qualitative and quantitative information are necessary for measuring components of governance, but neither is necessarily superior to the other. There is often less risk attached to qualitative data, whereas quantitative data can be spurious or inaccurate depending upon the source. Ideally, qualitative data should be substantiated by quantitative data. In practice, it is often difficult to generate the quantitative data required during the short time in which typical governance assessments take place, unless the government's information and statistical systems have already been designed to produce this information. One type of qualitative data – perceptions – are often treated dismissively, especially by professionals trained to search for numbers. Yet, the opinions of service users and the views of public officials can provide valid data concerning the strengths and weaknesses of particular governance themes⁶. Because the views of stakeholders affected by the performance of public services are extremely relevant, such soft measures can be legitimately regarded as hard data.

6 However, hierarchic and autocratic governments which have limited tolerance for criticism may be reluctant to accept the views of citizens and civil servants as valid or legitimate. And in many countries, civil servants and citizens may be reluctant to voice their true opinions where they fear that the questionnaire or survey is not truly confidential. This can even occur where the necessary safeguards have been put in place to assure the anonymity of opinions expressed. Such governments may also reject the views of experts.

Application of multiple methods is both an advantage and a risk, since it implies more costly and complex analysis. One advantage of using multiple methods is they have the potential to generate a wide range of information from a number of different sources, while permitting the validation and triangulation of data. However, employing many methods can be costly and complex to administer, and in the end quality may be compromised. Thus central- and sub-levels of government and civil society actors should not be encouraged to attempt too much research if they lack the capacity to process the data into meaningful information and provide feedback to those who volunteered the data. For instance, carrying out extensive surveys of civil servants and citizens may sound like a laudable endeavour, but it can backfire if the respondents do not see the results. It will simply confirm their prejudices that the government was not really interested in acting on the data in the first place.

This Indicator Framework is flexible so as to capture a significant amount of country-specific qualitative perspectives within the standardized scores. Indicators in this framework which measure aspects of governance systems in child protection most likely to depend on specific and variable country contexts are deliberately based on methods of data collection that require qualitative analysis of the context for identification of standardized scores. Moreover, a significant number of indicators that were originally proposed for measurement by more quantitative methods were replaced in the process of consultations at country level with indicators which represent qualitative assessments converted into scored rankings. The analysis could capitalize on this flexibility to allow users of the Indicator Framework to combine opportunities of broad regional comparisons with generating assessments useful for more in-depth policy work at a country level.

What are the limitations in using this Indicator Framework?

To make this Indicator Framework a practically useful tool for the EAP countries, it is important to outline some of the policy tasks which it cannot, and does not intend, to achieve.

In particular, the Indicator Framework cannot:

- **Provide a foolproof way of assessing progress in child protection systems over time.** While it can help to develop baselines to track broad progress of countries over time, it should be acknowledged that the speed with which systems in the region may be changing and the diversity of reactions countries have to dynamically evolving challenges, means that accurate assessment of progress may require revision of diagnostic tools.
- **Provide a definitive view of how well child protection systems are working at all levels.** Being aggregate and generic, these indicators aim to provide a broad view of the status of child protection systems, which should be an entry point to more in-depth analysis at country levels.
- **Provide a way of reliably ranking child protection systems across countries or comparing their details.** While standardized indicators can help to make broad cross-country comparisons and identify common challenges and lessons, this instrument is not sufficient to make far-reaching conclusions on the relative rank of individual countries. Standardized scores provided in the Indicator Framework should help countries to broadly assess their progress compared to regional averages to stimulate policy dialogue and reforms, rather than compete for higher ranks.
- **Provide a definitive menu of child protection reform measures.** As we discuss further, the Indicator Framework is a broad instrument aimed at initial diagnostic assessment; it should be treated as an entry point to the reform process, rather than a method for formulation of quick and concrete recipes for change. Design of detailed policy initiatives and interventions in each individual country is always highly contextual, and requires additional analysis and detailed consultations among stakeholders about how to address weaknesses in the country's child protection system and what concrete measures are needed. Assessment of the country's performance against governance indicators in child protection cannot provide answers to all these individual and particular questions. However, it can point to the principal gaps, weaknesses and distortions which require attention and change; and it can suggest ways in which the system needs to reform, which capacities it needs to establish and which priorities it needs to realign, so that more concrete roadmaps can later be developed at the domestic level.
- **Assess aggregate fiscal discipline.** While the Indicator Framework includes detailed analysis of the country's PFM systems, they cover a relatively narrow range of related issues and are not indicative of the overall status of the country's macro-fiscal performance.
- **Make any comment on the appropriateness of the use of public resources for child protection measures.** As in the above, indicators help to consolidate basic information on the ways child protection is funded, and whether core systems are in place to ensure strategic, realistic and efficient use of funds. However, these basic elements of an efficient PFM system are not

sufficient to make its ultimate assessment. Moreover, it should be noted that while indicators can help to analyse some aspects of how public funds are allocated for child protection, they cannot serve to judge whether respective policy decisions are appropriate in the country context.

- **Assess the risk of corruption.** Corruption is a complex phenomenon, which is closely linked to the quality of governance systems but is influenced by a large number of other factors far outside core indicators in this Framework.

Since this Indicator Framework covers a wide range of aspects of child protection systems, many of the difficulties in measuring and applying these indicators are related to specific problems linked to individual domains. For example, an analysis of a country's approaches to the financing of child protection may be significantly limited by problems of fragmented responsibilities for this area across ministries, resulting in difficulties with sector-wide analysis of child protection expenditures (which are not reported as a single budget line and are difficult to construct based on existing expenditure classifications). These guidelines explain and discuss challenges and limitations relevant to child protection for each individual domain and indicator in the respective parts of Section 2.

Users should also be aware of the parameters and potential challenges in applying this Indicator Framework, outlined below:

- **Relatively longer time required for implementation and advocacy.** This Indicator Framework is based on concepts which may appear relatively more abstract and theoretical in comparison to an issue-based and project-based focus on child protection. This may require more time and effort for engaged stakeholders to arrive at a common understanding, including with government partners.
- **Context-specific difficulties of communication around governance concepts.** It was noted during country-level consultations that some of the concepts utilized in this Indicator Framework may be sensitive or radically innovative for some countries and cultures. For example, the very notion of governance as such may sometimes be mistakenly perceived as rivalling national government structures, preventing them from engagement. Such difficulties highlight the need for additional and specifically designed communication strategies at the individual country level.
- **Difficulties if partnerships are limited, and other international actors have greater expertise in governance.** In countries where collaboration between international development agencies is less established or effective, acquiring a governance-focused approach may require additional work for UNICEF to strengthen partnerships with international actors with longer experience and stronger expertise in the area of governance, such as the UNDP and the World Bank.
- **Difficulties verifying the quality and objectivity of analysis behind the standardized scores.** Reliance on qualitative analysis, the flexibility of definitions, and the generalist nature of governance indicators is a double-edged sword: while it can help to capture specifics of the context, it may also create opportunities for manipulation with ratings and with the depth of analysis undertaken to arrive at standardized scores, which is difficult to verify.
- **Difficulties quantifying feedback loops between domains, indicators and standards.** In many instances in this framework, it is impossible or difficult to provide explicit empirical evidence of an actual link between the aspects of governance being measured and their specific influence on child protection outcomes, or between specific quantified choices of benchmarks and

standards and related governance performance or child outcomes. In the absence of such possibilities, the chosen indicators, benchmarks and standards rely on the best knowledge of the existing consensus among stakeholders on such linkages. This approach is not unusual in the contemporary literature: for example, it was utilized in the recently released framework for the assessment of quality of Official Development Assistance (Birdsall October 2010).

- **Focus on processes, rather than ultimate results for children.** As was discussed above, the key purpose of this Indicator Framework is to capture the quality of the processes which translate inputs into child protection systems into outcomes for children, called the ‘missing middle’ of the results chain in the Child protection system. The indicators focus deliberately on the **processes** relevant to child protection, and not on the actual **results** such as prevalence rates of maltreatment. While this is a deliberate and defining feature of the Framework, its lack of coverage of actual outcomes may be received with caution. It should therefore be highlighted and explained that the Governance Indicator Framework for Child Protection is only one integral part of the overall assessment of Child protection systems, which is complementary to, rather than an alternative of, an analysis of outcomes and results for children. In fact, a lot of the indicators in this framework are specifically designed to measure whether countries and donors are sufficiently alerted and capable of monitoring outcomes data, emphasizing their critical importance in the policy process.
- **Focus on general problems across child protection systems, rather than specific issues related to diverse and complex aspects of child protection as a field.** Child protection is a multi-faceted and complex area, which means that many of the general governance indicators may open up further discussions on the specific implications for individual issues for children.
- **Large size and scope of the Indicator Framework, with implications for feasibility, affordability, and sustainability of needed analytical effort.** Shifting analysis of Child protection systems from an issue-based towards a governance-based approach means taking on board a wide range of new questions. In practical terms, the sheer number of new themes and concepts that have to be analysed implies a significant effort is initially required.
- **Open question about perspective buy-in by country-level and regional stakeholders to ensure applicability and sustainability of the indicators.** Like any cross-country assessment framework, this instrument also strongly depends on the willingness of the countries to engage, and on their motivation to use the Framework as a meaningful policy tool, rather than an externally imposed requirement.
- **Applicability of full range of indicators across systems of differing degrees of advancement.** This Indicator Framework was refined via general consultations with UNICEF country offices across the EAP region and with in-depth inputs particularly from Indonesia, Lao PDR and the Philippines. However, it has not yet been comprehensively piloted and tested for applicability across the region, including in terms of whether a complete set of these indicators could be readily accepted and measured in all countries given their different degrees of advancement and sophistication. How to address this uncertainty remains an open policy question, with a variety of possible solutions including development of multi-level versions of this Indicator Framework to match existing levels of system sophistication in different countries.

How to apply this Indicator Framework in the context of decentralized governance systems?

Decentralization is a defining feature of governance and child protection systems in many EAP countries. One defining feature of many governance systems across East Asia and the Pacific (and especially in East Asia) is the transformation they have undergone since the 1990s in the process of decentralization reforms as part of growth-fostering and poverty reduction policy packages. Most notably, while decentralization policies have been widespread across the region, their actual implementation by individual countries has been “a highly differentiated, and differently motivated, range of practices and institutional forms” (Wescott 2002). According to some retrospective analysis of EAP decentralization, “the region’s experience defies any single application of the concept ‘decentralization’” (Wescott 2002). And yet, with all the diversity of ways in which many governance systems were decentralized, these reforms resulted in significant re-allocation of functions to sub-national levels of government in many of these countries. Decentralization reforms affected child protection systems in equally diverse ways, in terms of allocation of functions and responsibilities, and especially public financial management systems and financial flows.

The existing body of governance indicator systems is currently rather weak in capturing the diverse and extremely politically complex decentralization arrangements of various countries across the globe. In fact, attempts to extend existing approaches to increase the sensitivity of indicators to the nuances of intergovernmental dimensions have been at the forefront of recent work on the indicator systems (two examples of which are discussed in more detail below).

1. Sub-national adaptation of governance indicators

One approach to account for the multi-level dimensions of governance systems is to design adapted versions of governance indicator frameworks for application to individual segments of the aggregate systems, such as sub-national governments in highly decentralized states.

A prototype model for such an approach might be the PEFA Public Financial Management Performance Measurement Framework (PEFA Secretariat June 2005), which is a globally recognized champion in the measurable assessment of governance systems and was used as a basis for development of many parts of this Indicator Framework. Since fiscal decentralization is a critical aspect of many PFM systems, PEFA is also an important example of a possible way to capture the decentralized context in governance indicators.

A core set of aggregate PEFA indicators were developed for application at the level of the central government. These indicators recognize the role that sub-national levels of government usually play in a country’s PFM (e.g. in terms of managing a significant amount of public expenditure). Thus some of the indicators are designed specifically to capture intergovernmental fiscal relations (such as the share of public expenditures made by central as opposed to sub-national budgets and the nature of financial transfers among budgets of different levels).

However, since the core PEFA approach appeared less relevant to highly decentralized settings, PEFA developed a separate template adapted for application at sub-national levels (PEFA Secretariat March 2008). This adapted template is largely based on the structure and approach of the main/central level framework, in which the assessment process as well as some of the indicators, benchmarks and standards have been revised to suit the purposes of sub-national application.

The adapted template is based on in-depth analysis of the diverse possible models of decentralization, including distinctions between:

- Fiscal, administrative and political decentralization;
- Federal and unitary states;
- Francophone and Anglophone countries.

The sub-nationally adapted PEFA framework was successfully applied in numerous countries including Nigeria, Pakistan and India (whose governance arrangements are akin to those in countries like China and Indonesia).

The Child Protection Indicator Framework presented in these guidelines is developed for analysis of child protection systems at the aggregate/national level. As in the core PEFA Indicators, some of the indicators (across most Domains) were designed specifically to assess and measure the effectiveness of decentralization arrangements salient for child protection outcomes (these indicators are listed in Table 2).

Table 2. Child Protection Systems Indicators: Assessing a country’s decentralization arrangements salient for child protection outcomes

Domain	Indicator
1. Child Protection Policy Framework	1.2. Domestic mechanisms to give effect to international instruments ratified by the country (which include benchmark criteria on whether key child protection definitions and processes are sufficiently specified, precise, and supported by guidelines for implementation at relevant sub-national levels);
	1.3. Extent of policy coordination for child protection (which includes assessment of availability and effectiveness of policy coordination structures at sub-national level);
	1.4. Consistency of policy guidelines across levels of government.
2. Public Financial Management	2.3. Transparency of intergovernmental fiscal relations for child protection (measured as transparency and objectivity in the horizontal allocation of transfers linked to expenditures on child protection among SN governments);
	2.4. Conduciveness of public financing framework to development of balanced and child-focused menu of child protection services (measured as neutrality of financing framework with regard to types of child protection services and absence of financial incentives that have detrimental effects on children, for example, capitation payments that provide incentives to place children in residential care, which includes analysis of intergovernmental fiscal transfers);
	2.5. Realistic intergovernmental financing of child protection programmes (measured as accuracy of reimbursement of financial costs imposed on sub-national budgets by the central government within decentralized spending programmes related to child protection).
4. Statistics and Information	4.4. Quality and consistency of child protection information databases (which includes assessment of mechanisms to channel sub-national data to the central level).

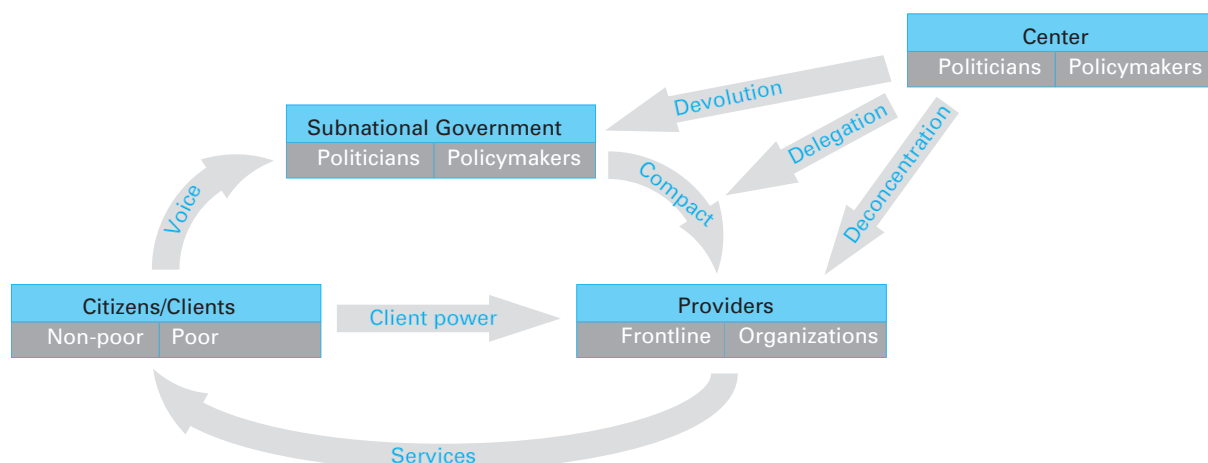
In principle, the overall Indicator Framework is also open for adaptation for possible application to individual segments of governance systems (although no adapted template is yet available). With the help of such adaptable templates, indicators can be applied to different segments of the multi-level governance system so that in highly (politically and fiscally) decentralized states such as Indonesia, and quasi-decentralized states such as China (Zhang January 2009) the indicators can be applied at the sub-national level. In more centralized states such as the small Pacific Islands or Lao PDR they can be applied at the national (aggregate) level.

One advantage of the approach taken for incorporation of the sub-national dimension by the PEFA framework – and which is possible to incorporate into this Indicator Framework – is that it can be adapted to the multi-level governance agenda in that public as well as non-public actors can be brought into the ‘picture’. The strategic advantage of a multi-level governance approach is that it is different from traditional models of intergovernmental relations, dominated by public actors. The role of satellite organizations, which are not formally part of the governmental framework, is taken into account. The diversity of actors results in multiple linkages between governance processes at different levels. The second key feature is that actors, arenas and institutions are not expected to be ordered hierarchically. The relationship is more complex and contextually defined, and typically involves tangled hierarchies and complex interdependencies which vary across time and space within national territories – thus taking account of the sub-national level.

2. Sector-wide or sector-based application at the level of individual service providers based on the Decentralized Service Delivery Framework developed by the World Bank.

One alternative approach to capture decentralization arrangements within governance indicators is to rely on a modelled framework of a decentralized system of provision of services in certain sectors – for example those relevant to child protection – or in sector-wide child protection areas, in order to develop Governance Indicators for Child Protection applicable at the level of service providers and designed to capture the impact on services of existing decentralization arrangements. A model of decentralized service provision that could be applied for this purpose is the Service Delivery Framework outlined in the WB World Development Report 2004, and presented in Figure 3. Under such an approach, individual Governance Domains – such as public financial management, human resource management or information management – would be adapted for measurement at the level of providers and surveyed through representative samples or administrative data at the national level.

Figure 3. WDR 2004: Decentralization and the service delivery framework (Figure 10.3 of the WDR, (The World Bank 2004))



How is child protection governance related to wider PFM or PAR reforms?

Analysis of the Child Protection Governance Indicators can contribute to identification of areas of strengths and weaknesses which affect wider processes in public financial management and public administration reforms, as well as help to monitor progress in those areas in terms of their linkages to the wider PFM and PAR reform agenda.

In turn, this Indicator Framework cannot be used to design a reform programme for child protection in isolation of wider PFM/PAR. In particular, it needs to be linked to:

- A government's own reform priorities identified in the process of in-country consultations;
- Policy dialogue on sequencing issues;
- Underlying causes for weaknesses identified in the child protection system assessment;
- Capacity constraints, including absorptive capacity for change; and
- Information needs and interplay of information within the public financial management and public administration system in a country.

The opportunities and limitations of applying child protection indicators for wider reforms in public finance and public administration are related to the advantages and disadvantages of narrowly-defined indicators (NDIs) versus broad-based governance indicators (BGIs), described in Box 1.

What could be the first practical steps to apply this Indicator Framework?

These guidelines provide *a conceptual and operational framework* for measuring Child Protection Systems Indicators. They aim to serve as a flexible and adaptable platform for further work *to actually implement* the systemic analysis based on the indicators, and *to apply* its results to improve country-level and regional policies through various measures including advocacy, capacity building and policy dialogue. Ensuring that this initiative adds practical value to child protection requires some specifically important next steps, outlined in this section.

1. Piloting of the core set of Child Protection Systems Indicators in various EAP country contexts.

These core indicators strongly benefited from consultations with the UNICEF Country Office Child Protection teams across the EAP region, and were ground-tested through detailed comments and corrections. However, they were not put against the practical realities of actual data collection and of building dialogue with local stakeholders and the government on the possible role of this tool. The Indicator Framework would greatly benefit from an actual ‘sea trial’ at a pilot level, which would help to establish validity, salience and relevance of the individual domains, indicators and benchmarks, as well as of the whole approach in terms of the role it could play in policy dialogue.

Box 1. Broad-based governance versus narrowly defined indicators

The design of governance indicators has traditionally focused on what are termed broad-based indicators – such as the World Bank World Governance Indicators (WGI) composed of seven different global surveys conducted by different organizations – which focus on aggregate or composite measures for assessing a country’s performance, rather than on specific and more narrowly defined indicators (NDIs), benchmarks and standards of a governance system such as child protection.

Advantages	Drawbacks
Broad governance indicators (BGIs)	
The advantages of BGIs relate to their composition and extensive scope	The drawback is comparability, specificity and their ability to inform and guide practical steps for action. Comparisons over time are also often problematic, as the methodologies and information sources of many BGIs change from year to year either due to improvements in the construction of indicators or the (un)availability of data sources.
Narrowly defined indicators (NDIs)	
The advantages stem from their specificity, which offers greater clarity regarding the steps governments and other stakeholders can take to improve their ratings in child protection. Because of their specificity, NDIs can assess and measure inputs, processes, outputs, performance and outcomes with less ambiguity about what is being measured	The drawbacks of NDIs relate to their narrow focus given that they do not present a broad picture of governance in a country (such as the ability to generate revenues to pay for child protection, health, education etc), and cannot be used to form judgments about the overall quality of governance systems (such as levels of personal safety, the risk of corruption, procurement systems, enforcement of the rule of law etc). NDIs for child protection must therefore be carefully constructed to establish the link between actions and indicators, benchmarks and standards.

One important task for the pilot stage would be to run this Framework through the contexts in which diversity was especially difficult to capture with the help of standardized indicators, such

as: highly decentralized versus highly centralized countries; developing countries versus middle income countries. For example, applying measurable child protection indicators to decentralized systems of child protection may require specific approaches, such as adaptation of the Framework for application at sub-national levels, or running the existing variables through the actual decentralization arrangements in country to check if they would remain valid and valuable for country partners.

2. Building up ownership in country. As with any other framework for the measurement of policy progress, Child Protection Indicators would be difficult to implement and sustain over time. Ensuring results are utilized in local policies would also be problematic if they are not 'owned' by a broad range of stakeholders in country (D. R. Kaufmann 2002). Local champions – especially the government, whose role is critical for both data collection and analysis, as well as for the utilization of the findings – hold the key to signalling political will to take this analysis forward, and to ensure that the findings are disseminated and fed into policy process. The key message of this approach is that the way various issue-based child protection measures are mediated is critical for the sustainable, systemic and comprehensive improvement in the quality of child protection. The protection measures must be mediated via systems of public financial management, human resource management, information and statistics management, general legislative frameworks, as well as cultural systems of values and attitudes to children and to child protection risks.

3. Building up technical expertise and capacity. Because of the multi-disciplinary nature of this approach, it is likely to require capacity building across stakeholders engaged in the initiative, building up their knowledge in areas previously not in focus within the issue-based work, and helping them to effectively engage in policy dialogue on improving child protection systems via influencing adjacent processes related to public finance, public administration, statistical systems, etc.

4. Establishing a participatory institutional mechanism for measurement and utilization of the Child Protection Governance Indicators. This approach would greatly benefit from working via a participatory and consultative mechanism (such as a task force or an inter-ministerial working group) engaging the government and, ideally, other stakeholders including, where applicable, civil society representatives. Such an institutional mechanism could benefit from complementary but systemic support such as technical training, 'learning by doing' activities, and information exchange. Where possible, it also proves useful to engage authoritative local organizations, think tanks or academic institutions, in the adaptation of empirical tools, data collection and analysis (D. R. Kaufmann 2002). The same institutional mechanism could play a vital role in sustaining the initiative through continued monitoring of progress and applying it in policy work.

5. Identification of costs of establishing and implementing child protection systems indicators, and their integration into stable governance and statistical structures. Monitoring and analysis of child protection governance is primarily designed to improve approaches on the ground, and to become an integral part of the national policy-making process. It is therefore desirable to work together with local partners to identify ways of integrating this initiative into local activities and structures, such as the government's analysis of spending allocations, statistical systems and surveys, etc.

6. Rollout at national and sub-national levels. Actual rollout of the Framework is the ultimate operational objective leading to the possibility of collecting and utilizing a cross-country indicator set. As mentioned earlier, however, governance assessments tend to add as much value in the process of the journey, as they bring in terms of the final destination. Improvement and revision of this Framework is therefore likely along the way.

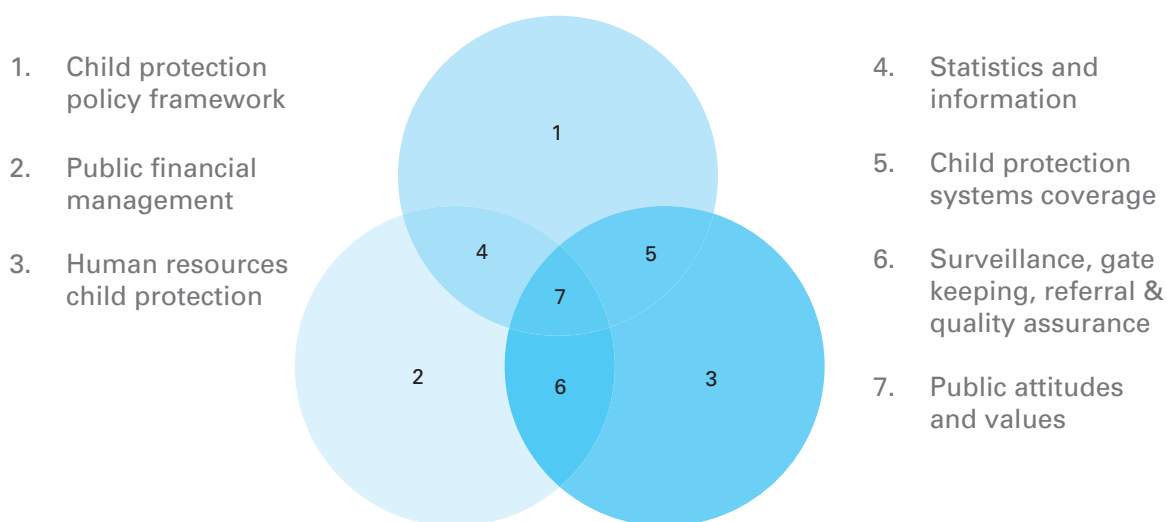
PART II

Domains and indicators

Overview

This chapter introduces the 37 Indicators of Child Protection System Governance representing seven major governance domains as outlined in figure 4.

Figure 4. Key child protection domains within the core indicator set



For convenience, each domain is ascribed an individual colour against the basic ‘Red-Green-Blue’ palette. The linkages across domains imposed by the colour palette are broad and symbolic and should not be treated as a self-sufficient model of governance. However, they describe certain aspects of governance systems which are broadly accepted in the literature: such as the key significance of policy frameworks, public financial management, and human resources, or the cross-cutting role of the cultural context, attitudes and values.

The Framework is based on a set of indicators, benchmarks and standards, which are understood as the following:

- **Indicators** – are distinct verifiable measures which track the performance of child protection governance systems. Indicators can refer to inputs, processes, outputs or outcomes;
- **Benchmarks** – are sets of related indicators which provide for meaningful, accurate and systematic comparisons regarding the performance of an institutional system or institutional sub-system at the same time. These can also be termed Indices;
- **Standards** – are sets of related benchmarks, indices or indicators which provide socially meaningful information regarding outputs or outcomes of distinct aspects of the governance system or sub-system.

Table 3 below provides the actual list of indicators, which are then described individually with details on:

- What is the scope and coverage of each domain/indicator;
- Why each domain/indicator is important for child protection;
- What are the major challenges in analysing each domain/indicator;
- How information on each domain can be used and analysed; and
- What specific comments should be noted with regard to benchmarks and standards on each indicator.

A summary table of the full set of indicators, benchmarks and standards is provided in Annex 5.

Child protection indicators: Short list

Domain 1. Child protection policy framework

1.1.	Ratification of relevant UN conventions salient to children's rights
1.2.	Domestic mechanisms to give effect to international instruments ratified by the country
1.3.	Extent of policy coordination for child protection
1.4.	Consistency of policy guidelines across levels of government
1.5.	Vitality of existing civil society for child protection
1.6.	Effective cooperation between the government and civil society for child protection
1.7.	National government support to civil society for child protection

Domain 2. Public financial management

2.1.	Credibility of budget allocations across Child protection-related sectors
2.2.	Robustness of budget expenditure classification
2.3.	Transparency of intergovernmental fiscal relations for child protection
2.4.	Conduciveness of public financing framework to development of balanced and child-focused menu of Child protection services
2.5.	Realistic intergovernmental financing of Child protection programmes
2.6.	Multiyear perspective in fiscal planning, expenditure policy and budgeting
2.7.	Policy-based budgeting for child protection

Domain 3. Human resources child protection

3.1.	Regulation of requirements and standards for social work professionals
3.2.	Professional training for personnel working on Child protection service delivery
3.3.	Government's capacity to attract qualified Child protection professionals
3.4.	Government's capacity to retain qualified Child protection professionals
3.5.	Diligence of staff working on child protection
3.6.	Overall size of civil service/public sector staff with responsibility for child protection (all social workers across all ministries, qualified and unqualified)
3.7.	Human resources dedicated to children and justice

Domain 4. Statistics and information

4.1.	Use of survey data on children at risk and in need of protection in the policy process
4.2.	Data analysis and evidence-based research for child protection
4.3.	Visibility of children in household surveys
4.4.	Quality and consistency of Child protection information databases
4.5.	Source data are soundly based for capturing required information on child protection
4.6.	Data disaggregation
4.7.	Linkages between data producers and data users on child protection statistics

Domain 5. Child protection system coverage

5.1.	Effective support to children who are exposed to multiple risks from different sources
5.2.	Children and cash transfer programmes (social and financial programmes to help families prevent crisis and protect their children)
5.3.	Disaster preparedness

Domain 6. Surveillance, gate keeping, referral and quality assurance

6.1.	Comprehensiveness of surveillance mechanisms for preventing and detecting children at risk of abuse, neglect and violence
6.2.	Credibility of gate keeping and referral system for children detected as being at risk of harm, neglect and violence
6.3.	Credibility of inspection and quality assurance regime for social welfare services, labour and juvenile justice

Domain 7. Public Attitudes and Values

7.1.	Appreciation of importance of attitudes and values for child protection
7.2.	Consistent collection of evidence on outcomes for children
7.3.	Advocacy and awareness raising to combat harmful attitudes and practices

Domain 1. Child protection policy framework

What does it include?

A public policy management system for child protection provides an assessment of the country's legal and normative framework, including legislative arrangements, policies and plans for promotional, preventative and protective measures, policy coordination, oversight of policy formulation and policy coordination, statistical and management information systems, approaches to partnerships with civil society actors, disaster preparedness for addressing covariate risks, etc.

Why is it important for assessing the child protection system?

Policy context is important in two major ways:

- (a) to understand how various policies affect the child protection system (including those policies which are not specifically related to children, such as laws on overall rights protection) and
- (b) to understand the capabilities of the state to design, implement and monitor legislative, regulatory and institutional measures to ensure effective protection for children.

The nature of the legislative environment, including the scope and content of the laws related to child protection, as well as the degree of their enforceability, is a fundamental factor in shaping child protection outcomes. Indicators under this domain also help to bring into analysis an international perspective on children's rights and how these are reflected in the national governance systems (Maestral International/UNICEF 2010).

What are the major challenges in analysing this domain?

Recent work on constructing traceable governance indicators acknowledges that formal rules in any governance system are, by definition, different from actual rules applied by the stakeholders in practice and therefore from the realities of policy design and implementation. In particular, Kaufmann and Kraay (2008) (D. K. Kaufmann 2008) define these different kinds of rules as "governance determinants" (that is *de jure* arrangements) and "measures/indicators of government practices and performance" which measure how policies work *de facto*.

Separating formal rules from actual practices is also the central challenge for assessing the realities of policy context for child protection. In particular, this concern was strongly voiced by most EAP country offices that participated in the consultations for designing this indicator set. Country child protection chiefs were concerned about the weakness of overly legalistic benchmarks in measuring actual policy processes and about the difficulties in capturing quality, rather than quantity of the assessed institutions and processes.

As a result of these considerations, indicators under this domain have been reconstructed. The current design allows users of indicators to apply their qualitative assessment of the institutional realities behind formal rules to establish the comparative rank of the country's policy context.

How can information under this domain be analysed and used?

Core indicators under this domain should help to:

- assess the current status of the legislative framework for child protection in a way which is comparable across the region;
- identify ways and patterns in which country systems deviate from international conventions and global rights regimes and use this information to identify barriers for change;
- outline a long-term agenda for policy reforms in child protection;
- use aggregate information about regulatory and legislative barriers to bring together key players in child protection to support reforms (Maestral International/UNICEF 2010).

Domain 1. Child protection policy framework indicators

Indicator 1.1. Ratification of relevant UN conventions salient to children’s rights

Benchmark	Number of relevant international conventions ratified.
Standard	A. All B. 70–99% C. 50–69% D. Less than 49%
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	<p>It is widely recognized that ratification of international conventions does not, by itself, automatically translate into actual consistency of domestic rules and institutions with international norms (even if it results in approval of relevant legislation). However, subscription to global commitments and initiatives is an important element of reforms at country level and normally facilitates – or even conditions – tangible follow up action (UNICEF EAPRO August 2009).</p> <p>Comprehensiveness of the country’s support of key global initiatives salient for child protection is therefore helpful in assessing the degree of adherence of the local policy framework to international child protection norms.</p>
Comments on benchmarks and standards	<p>It is proposed to measure this indicator as the percentage of ratified conventions out of the tentative list of 22 international agreements listed in Annex 3, based on the Legal and Policy Framework Matrix described in the 2009 UNICEF EAPRO report ‘Reversing the Trend: Child Trafficking in East and South-East Asia’, at the suggestion of UNICEF Lao PDR.</p> <p>Based on the data provided in the above mentioned report on the number of ratified conventions in seven countries of the EAP region (China, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand, and Viet Nam), the standards for this indicator represent a scale which matches the current levels of diversity within the region. For example, currently Lao PDR has ratified 14 out of 22 conventions (64 per cent), suggesting that it should be assessed at level ‘C’.</p> <p>At the suggestion of Lao PDR, it was also considered to include into the analysis ratification of regional and bilateral conventions and protocols for child protection. However, since such additional conventions may, in theory, represent specific sub-regional initiatives and concerns, they were left out of this set of indicators, which needs to be comparable across all EAP countries.</p>
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	<p>This indicator should outline the degree of the country’s compliance with international rights regimes, but it may also indicate some of the specific gaps and problems, such as specific areas of child protection, which make it difficult for the given country to accept reform agenda. While regional comparisons based on this indicator may provide impetus for change, it might not be sufficient without understanding and addressing specific barriers mentioned earlier.</p> <p>Another major challenge is that subscription to international conventions is conducive but not always sufficient to ensure that ratified principles actually translate into domestic rules and practices. Therefore, this indicator should also be analysed in close connection with 1.2, which attempts to measure enforceability of international commitments.</p>

Indicator 1.2. Domestic mechanisms to give effect to international instruments ratified by the country

Benchmark	<p>The country’s legislative framework provides for the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The country’s constitution contains provisions on child rights, consistent with CRC and other global and regional covenants and instruments; ■ The government has a national child protection policy statement or national framework document; ■ The government has prepared and/or adopted national plans of action on specific child protection issues such as the elimination of violence or the worst forms of child labour, the commercial exploitation of children, and the care and protection of orphans and vulnerable children; ■ Key Child protection definitions and processes are sufficiently specified, precise, and supported by guidelines for implementation at relevant sub-national levels. A mechanism is in place to eliminate any of the existing legal inconsistencies and fragmentation.
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Indicator 1.2. Domestic mechanisms to give effect to international instruments ratified by the country (continued)

Standard	<p>A. Legislative framework is consistent with all of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>B. Legislative framework is consistent with at least three of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>C. Legislative framework is consistent with at least two of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>D. Legislative framework is consistent with one or less of the benchmark criteria.</p>
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	<p>A much-expressed view during consultations with the country offices was that in order to assess consistency of domestic rules and policies for child protection with international norms it is important to go beyond formal ratification of global conventions and to measure how this translates into practices.</p> <p>However, assessing how feasible approved laws are; how well owned policies by all stakeholders are and how good law enforcement is remains extremely difficult and requires a much more in-depth assessment than a single quantifiable indicator. In particular, all respondents agreed that the mere number of respective laws is not an appropriate measure (the quality of the laws can vary, they are not always implemented, and sometimes an excessive number of laws can in itself be problematic). Therefore, this indicator is based on a qualitative analysis of the domestic legislative framework with a view to arriving at a standardized ranking of the degree to which ratified conventions translate into domestic rules and practices. In other words, it evaluates the determinants of enforceability of approved laws such as their consistency, clarity, and conformity with the existing political consensus on children's rights.</p>
Comments on benchmarks and standards	<p>The benchmark criteria describe four key elements of a legislative mechanism needed for a country to put child protection commitments into practice. To a significant extent, this view on needed legislative mechanisms relies on the Child Protection System Mapping and Assessment Toolkit (Maestral International/UNICEF 2010). Each criterion is flexible to incorporate variations in context-specific definitions of such concepts as 'national child protection policy statement', and attempts to capture the essence of what is needed to ensure practical response to child protection commitments.</p>
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	<p>Like most indicators which require qualitative policy analysis to establish quantifiable scores, this indicator needs in-depth analysis of domestic policy-making processes, which is normally a significant challenge. Moreover, legal traditions across the EAP region include countries of both civil and common law, which can make it difficult to assess local realities against these standardized criteria.</p>

Indicator 1.3. Extent of policy coordination for child protection

Benchmark	<p>Availability and effectiveness of policy coordination structures:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ There is a parliamentary or other oversight body on child protection which has a clearly defined mandate and meets regularly; ■ There is an interministerial mechanism that coordinates child protection activities, which has a clearly defined mandate, meets regularly and is attended by senior officials; ■ There are sub-national bodies which coordinate child protection policies or activities and which meet regularly; ■ There is a coordination mechanism to effectively engage international development agencies in child protection, which has a clear set of objectives related to child protection and meets regularly.
Standard	<p>A. Policy coordination for child protection is consistent with all of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>B. Policy coordination for child protection is consistent with at least three of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>C. Policy coordination for child protection is consistent with at least two of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>D. Policy coordination for child protection is consistent with one or less of the benchmark criteria.</p>
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	<p>Coordination between stakeholders is one of the major challenges to effective design, implementation and monitoring of policies for child protection. While policy dialogue is often problematic in itself, the challenge for child protection is compounded by the fact that responsibilities in this area are often fragmented across a variety of sectors, and that agencies and structures and related programmes are often decentralized and also dependent on the quality of underlying political institutions.</p>
Comments on benchmarks and standards	<p>While most country offices recognize the importance of policy coordination, they were unanimously sceptical about measuring it by the number of related bodies, the frequency of their meetings or complexity of their layers, since none of these quantifiable measures is reflective of the efficiency of respective structures. Therefore this indicator is based on a qualitative analysis of existing coordination capacities for child protection based on a list of benchmark criteria.</p>

Indicator 1.3. Extent of policy coordination for child protection (continued)

What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	The biggest challenge for measurement of this indicator is, again, the in-depth analysis of the country's policy coordination process. A lot of the benchmark definitions are flexible and represent entry points for engaging in consultations and expert discussions about whether the respective criteria are realistically satisfied.
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Indicator 1.4. Consistency of policy guidelines across levels of government

Benchmark	Key national policies for child protection are supported by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Regular consultations with sub-national stakeholders engaged in policy implementation; ■ Respective sub-national legislation (where this is applicable in the context of the country's decentralization setting); ■ Clear and well-defined communication, instructions and guidelines of national policies and legislation to other tiers of government.
Standard	A. Interface between national and sub-national measures in child protection include all of the benchmark criteria; B. Interface between national and sub-national measures in child protection include two of the benchmark criteria; C. Interface between national and sub-national measures in child protection include one of the benchmark criteria; D. Interface between national and sub-national measures in child protection include none of the benchmark criteria
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	Countries of the EAP region vary widely in terms of the organization of multi-layer government structures, ranging from highly centralized to highly decentralized systems of public administration. However, regardless of the degree and specific features of decentralization arrangements, child protection measures usually assume a certain role for sub-national stakeholders (ranging from purely administrative to regulatory and financially autonomous from the centre). Therefore, successful implementation of child protection policies strongly depends on effective engagement of sub-national tiers of governance in the role respective to the country's decentralization context. This indicator aims to assess a country's capacity to orchestrate relations between levels of government for child protection in ways which are consistent with child protection policy goals and international commitments.
Comments on benchmarks and standards	This indicator has evolved significantly in consultations with country offices, to capture the nuances of delivering child protection policy direction across several layers of government (rather than measuring availability and volume of guidelines as such). In particular, it tries to address the fact that central initiatives for child protection not only require clear communication to engage sub-national stakeholders, but also specific measures to ensure that central mandates are actually applied in practice by sub-national tiers, including through approval of necessary local legislation where this is required by the country's decentralization setting. Moreover, this was one of the indicators where the quantity of instructions was not accepted as a reliable measure, since it was not necessarily reflective of quality. The current version of this indicator relies on three benchmark criteria, which determine the successful process of policy communication across multi-layer structures, and help to rank a country's progress in a regionally comparable way.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	While engagement of sub-national stakeholders in policy consultations is conducive to effective outcomes for child protection regardless of the particular aspect of the decentralization arrangement, this view may not have traction with the national counterparts in the context of highly centralized cultures of public administration.

Indicator 1.5. Vitality of existing civil society for child protection

Benchmark	Ratio of active to registered civil society actors engaged with child protection.
Standard	A. More than 50:100 B. 40:100 to 49:100 C. 30:100 to 39:00 D. Less than 29:100

Indicator 1.5. Vitality of existing civil society for child protection (continued)

<p>Why does this indicator matter for child protection?</p>	<p>One aspect of significant diversity across the EAP region is in the views its societies share on the allocation of roles and responsibilities for child protection across sectors and stakeholders. In particular, views differ on the desirable role of civil society, which is often perceived as the space between the state and the private sector, functioning as a source of influence on state structures. However, to the extent that countries allocate a certain role to civil society in their child protection systems, it is important to ensure that respective organizations are actively and constructively engaged in child protection, and add value to the process of demanding and defending children’s rights. This indicator measures the degree to which existing civil society organizations represent viable and active actors in child protection rather than formalistic entities.</p>
<p>Comments on benchmarks and standards</p>	<p>The benchmark measures the ratio of active to registered civil society actors engaged with child protection, which covers international non-governmental organizations (INGOs), national NGOs, faith-based organizations, community-based organizations, trusts, foundations, charitable organizations, support groups, and similar organizations or groups that operate in the child protection arena. Following recommendations by the Child Protection Mapping and Assessment Toolkit, it is recommended that for countries where a great number of civil society organizations may be operational, analysis can focus on the activities of the major ones on the national and local levels (Maestral International/UNICEF 2010).</p>
<p>What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?</p>	<p>As already noted, a usual challenge in the analysis of indicators related to activities of civil society is to strike a balance between the need to understand barriers to effective engagement of non-state actors (their voice) and the need to acknowledge potential problems with their accountability (which may create detrimental outcomes for children). Therefore, measures of activity of existing civil society should be analysed in combination with additional indicators which assess the effectiveness of cooperation between state and non-state sectors for protection of children’s rights (in particular, 1.6).</p> <p>Information on this indicator should also be used with an appreciation of the sensitivity of the approaches to distribution of roles for child protection in various country systems, as indicated above, in order to highlight the possibilities of engaging civil society organizations via regional comparisons.</p>

Indicator 1.6. Effective cooperation between the government and civil society for child protection

<p>Benchmark</p>	<p>Regulatory framework for civil society in child protection includes the following (Maestral International/UNICEF 2010):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ An entity within the government which oversees civil society organizations working in child protection; ■ A mandatory procedure to license or register civil society organizations that directly care for children; ■ Regular monitoring of the quality of services for children provided by civil society; ■ A mechanism at the national level for the government and civil society to coordinate for child protection policy, legislation and programming.
<p>Standard</p>	<p>A. Regulatory framework for civil society includes all of the benchmark criteria; B. Regulatory framework for civil society includes at least three of the benchmark criteria; C. Regulatory framework for civil society includes at least two of the benchmark criteria; D. Regulatory framework for civil society includes one or none of the benchmark criteria.</p>
<p>Why does this indicator matter for child protection?</p>	<p>As indicated earlier, a key prerequisite for the effective engagement of civil society in child protection is to ensure that a balance is struck between the elimination of barriers for civil society to create added value to state structures and the need to acknowledge potential problems with the accountability of civil society organizations (which may create detrimental outcomes for children). This indicator therefore measures a country’s capacity to orchestrate a regulatory framework which would ensure that civil society is both active and effectively monitored.</p>
<p>Comments on benchmarks and standards</p>	<p>As with most governance dimensions that are not easily quantifiable, this indicator requires a qualitative analysis of existing policy structures against proposed benchmark criteria to arrive at a standardized ranking. The key determinants of an effective regulatory environment in this case are chosen as those which include accountability mechanisms (licensing, monitoring and oversight) as well as openness of the policy process to influence from civil society actors.</p>
<p>What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?</p>	<p>While the benchmark criteria include a balanced list of measures for ensuring both voice and accountability for non-state actors, it remains possible for countries to score above average by satisfying only one type of criteria – e.g. control and oversight (rather than engagement in the policy process). It is therefore important to interpret this indicator with caution and respect to the risk of such bias.</p>

Indicator 1.7. National government support to civil society for child protection

Benchmark	Share of total funds of child protection NGOs received from the national government on the basis of transparent competition.
Standard	A. Greater than 50% B. 30–49% C. 21–29% D. Less than 20%
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	<p>For civil society to engage successfully in child protection it is important to ensure non-state actors work in partnership with the government, helping it to deliver more efficient and cost-effective solutions for children, rather than being a burden on the state and on the state budget.</p> <p>For such a partnership to work, it may be beneficial for the state to invest in the development of civil society by providing grant financing, but such support does not have to be the only source of NGO funding, with other sources including private sector philanthropy. What matters for the efficiency of the government’s support for NGO engagement with child protection is not so much the size of grants allocated from the state budget, but the way such funds are allocated.</p> <p>This indicator aims to measure both the degree and the quality of state support to civil society in order to assess the nature of the emerging partnership between the two sectors.</p>
Comments on benchmarks and standards	<p>When civil society acts as a genuine partner to the state in joint projects, rather than a quasi-governmental organization, it receives budget support via transparent competition focused on finding the most cost-efficient solutions for child protection (and not via automatic line-item budgeting alongside other spending programmes). To determine both the degree of state support to NGOs and the nature of such cooperation for child protection, this indicator measures the share of funding they receive from the state based on transparent competition to deliver the most cost-efficient solutions for child protection.</p> <p>This benchmark represents a significant departure from the initial proposal, in response to intensive dialogue with EAP country offices. It responds to concerns over measuring simply the size of budget support to NGOs (which says little about the quality of civil society, the efficiency of budget spending on this or other programmes, or about the availability of alternative funding for NGOs, such as private sector donations).</p>
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	Allocation of state funds on a competitive basis poses a significant challenge for most countries and often involves a new budgeting approach. It is generally achieved gradually, by improving tender procedures and slowly expanding the coverage of tender-based projects. This can make it difficult to clearly define what is meant by transparent competition and would require qualitative judgment on behalf of analysts or experts.

Domain 2. Public financial management

What does it include?

Public financial management covers systems, processes and institutions related to management of budgetary funds, including financing and budgeting for child protection. In this set of indicators, the scope of analysis of financing for child protection covers key components recognized internationally as critical for any country to achieve sound public financial management, with particular importance for child protection: credibility, transparency and sustainability of child protection spending, linkages between expenditures and child protection policies, as well as a set of specific dimensions related to multi-tier financial management and decentralization.

To a significant extent, the approach to measuring performance of the country PFM systems utilized in this set of indicators relies on guidance of the PEFA framework designed by PEFA partners, in collaboration with the OECD/DAC Joint Venture on PFM as a tool that would provide reliable information on the performance of PFM systems, processes and institutions over time (PEFA Secretariat June 2005).

Why is it important for assessing the child protection system?

An open and orderly PFM system is essential for any country to ensure that it allocates budget funds on child protection in a strategic way coherent with policy objectives, delivers value for money in activities related to child protection, and yet remains realistic in terms of maintaining fiscal discipline. In other words, to provide efficient child protection, governments should be able to manage the use of resources making sure that services for children are delivered in cost-efficient ways, plan and execute national and sub-national budgets in accordance with child protection priorities and objectives, and impose effective control on budget totals.

What are the major challenges in analysing this domain?

The assessment of national PFM systems is linked to an analysis of budget data which are not always readily available or presentable in forms which are suitable for policies in child protection. In particular, child protection requires analyses which are 'sector-wide' and stretch across traditional boundaries of existing ministries and sectors (such as healthcare and education).

How can information under this domain be analysed and used?

Core indicators under this domain should help to:

- Assess the current state of PFM in terms of outcomes for child protection;
- Bring together key players in child protection around shared issues related to child protection PFM;
- Engage more effectively with the governments of middle-income countries, where the national budget is likely to represent a major source of funding for child protection reforms;
- Contribute to wider reforms in PFM and public administration, and thus help child protection actors engage in wider partnerships within the government and with other development agencies such as the World Bank and the IMF, potentially strengthening leverages for child protection reforms;
- Review public financing in child protection with the view of eventual development of sector-wide costing of child protection programmes (Maestral International/UNICEF 2010);
- Contribute to reforms related to a division of responsibilities for child protection across levels of government (in particular, decentralization) by highlighting financial aspects of related arrangements.

Indicator 2.2. Robustness of budget expenditure classification (continued)

<p>Comments on benchmarks and standards</p>	<p>The international standard for classification systems is the Government Finance Statistics (GFS) developed by the IMF (IMF December 2001) and the Classification of Functions of Government (COFOG) developed by the UN and included into the GFS Manual (IMF December 2001), which jointly provide the framework for the economic and functional classification of transactions. The functional classification (COFOG) is particularly helpful in analysing child protection policies since it presents public expenditures according to their purpose, independently of the government's structure. It is therefore critical to analyse the allocation of funds across programmes and spending on child protection with a historical perspective, comparing data for several fiscal years (Schiavo-Campo April 1999). In line with the recommendations of PEFA, the benchmark for this indicator assesses the country's approach to the classification system used for formulation, execution and reporting of the central government's budget (PEFA Secretariat June 2005).</p>
<p>What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?</p>	<p>While GFS/COFOG standards are useful for assessing administrative, economic, and functional dimensions of public spending, currently there is no international standard for programmatic classification. This type of classification is used in widely deviating ways across countries, even though programme classification can be an important tool in budget formulation, management and reporting (PEFA Secretariat June 2005). Therefore, although progress against this indicator is a very significant measure of the comprehensiveness and transparency of child protection spending, it does not substitute for the additional work that is needed at country level to introduce expenditure analysis across programmes, in particular for the purposes of sector-wide policy making for child protection.</p>

Indicator 2.3. Transparency of inter-governmental fiscal relations for child protection

<p>Benchmark</p>	<p>Transparency and objectivity in the horizontal allocation of transfers linked to expenditures on child protection among sub-national governments.</p>
<p>Standard</p>	<p>A. The horizontal allocation of almost all transfers (at least 90 per cent by value) from central government is determined by transparent and rules-based systems; B. The horizontal allocation of most transfers from central government (at least 50 per cent of transfers) is determined by transparent and rules-based systems; C. The horizontal allocation of only a small part of transfers from central government (10–50 per cent) is determined by transparent and rules-based systems; D. No or hardly any part of the horizontal allocation of transfers from central government is determined by transparent and rules-based systems.</p>
<p>Why does this indicator matter for child protection?</p>	<p>Decentralization arrangements differ widely across the EAP region, but in most countries sub-national tiers of government are engaged in child protection in some capacity (from administrative functions under de-concentrated hierarchical systems to fiscally and legally autonomous roles in significantly decentralized states). Moreover, there is an increasing global trend for primary service delivery to be managed by sub-national layers of government (PEFA Secretariat June 2005).</p> <p>The overall amount of funds allocated by the central budget to sub-national budgets for the implementation of programmes related to child protection is a policy decision by the central government and may be different depending on country context. However, the way such funds are allocated across individual sub-national governments/administrative-territorial units (that is, horizontally) is critical to ensure that funds available for child protection are predictable in the medium term and allocated across territories in a fair and transparent way (making sure that children living in one part of the country have the same opportunities of access to child protection services as children residing elsewhere in the same country).</p>
<p>Comments on benchmarks and standards</p>	<p>The benchmark for this indicator covers all transfers from the central budgets to sub-national tiers of government that are linked to expenditures on child protection. Regardless of the decentralization framework in each country, this benchmark attempts to assess the share of total transfers allocated based on transparent rules (a transfer formula or some other clearly defined mechanism).</p>
<p>What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?</p>	<p>While this indicator scores countries based on the availability of institutional mechanisms for the transparent horizontal allocation of funds for child protection, countries which have the same scores may differ in terms of whether formal mechanisms for allocation of budgeted amounts are supported by an equal transparency and fairness in actual (ex post) allocations. Moreover, depending on the quality of financial statistics, identifying the exact types of transfers which are relevant to child protection may appear challenging for some countries.</p>

Indicator 2.4. Conduciveness of public financing framework to development of balanced and child-focused menu of child protection services

Benchmark	Neutrality of financing framework with regard to types of Child protection services and an absence of financial incentives that have detrimental effects on children, for example, capitation payments that provide incentives to place children in residential care.
Standard	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. In most Child protection-related programmes funds are allocated based on objective child-focused criteria without detrimental incentives; B. Child protection financing framework contains at least one financial incentive which has a detrimental effect on children; C. Child protection financing framework contains two or more financial incentives which have a detrimental effect on children; D. Most of the Child protection funding is allocated in ways which are preferential to services which are inefficient or detrimental for children.
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	An effective system of child protection should place the child's best interests into the centre of the process of selection of types of services to be provided. In other words, the choice of services to be funded by the state should be dictated by what is best for the child, and not by any other criteria. Unfortunately, funding systems may create a number of additional incentives (direct and indirect) that could bias the choice of services towards specific types, and in particular, residential care. Such financial incentives include the allocation of intergovernmental transfers based on the number of children in residential institutions existing in each territory (rather than based on the objective need for services, such as child population) (Joshua, Recommendations for Consideration by the Ministry of Finance of Ukraine on Changes to the Intergovernmental Transfer Formula with specific Reference to Residential and Community-based Social Services: A Technical Paper March 2006), capitation payments for placement of children into residential care (Maestral International/UNICEF 2010), etc. The absence of such incentives shows that the system is financially neutral towards the choice of types of child protection services, and therefore opens the way for the selection of a service based on the best interests of the child.
Comments on benchmarks and standards	The benchmark for this indicator measures the neutrality of the financial system in terms of the absence of any financial incentives which may be detrimental for children.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	Assessment of progress against this indicator requires in-depth analysis of the national systems of financing Child protection programmes, focusing on the incentives they create for the choice of services or any other particular impact that may be detrimental for children, which may be a technical challenge.

Indicator 2.5. Realistic inter-governmental financing of child protection programmes

Benchmark	Accuracy of reimbursement of financial costs imposed on sub-national budgets by the central government within decentralized spending programmes related to child protection.
Standard	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Revenue sources allocated to sub-national budgets can fully cover all local expenditures arising from undertaking Child protection-related mandates imposed by upper government tiers; B. Revenue sources allocated to sub-national budgets can cover at least 75 per cent of local expenditures arising from undertaking Child protection-related mandates; C. Revenue sources allocated to sub-national budgets cover less than 75 per cent of local expenditures arising from undertaking Child protection-related mandates, but a policy process is in place to address the sources of this problem; D. Linkage between local commitments in child protection arising from central regulations and the financial means available to local budgets to cover these costs is not addressed in the policy process and results in systemic unfunded mandates for sub-national governments.
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	As in 2.3., regardless of the specific decentralization arrangement in the country, a general principle which should hold for meaningful engagement of sub-national units into child protection PFM is that any instructions or mandates created by the central government with regard to child protection at sub-national levels should be covered by the allocation of adequate financial resources. Ensuring that central mandates in child protection are covered by adequate resources is an important indicator that child protection policies are realistic and sustainable.

Indicator 2.5. Realistic intergovernmental financing of child protection programmes (continued)

Comments on benchmarks and standards	The division of responsibilities between tiers of government differs widely across the EAP region. The degree to which the central government is involved in formulating rules and requirements for child protection at the sub-national level also differs, as do approaches to sharing central resources between budgets (starting from the allocation of direct transfers to sharing sources of revenues such as taxes or the introduction of local taxes and fees which could be utilized to cover child protection expenditures). The benchmark for this indicator is formulated with flexibility to cover the whole range of child protection activities that should be funded from local budgets because of central regulations, which are then compared to the financial resources available to cover these costs.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	As in 2.4., assessment of progress against this indicator requires in-depth analysis of the national systems of intergovernmental financing of child protection programmes focusing on whether the allocation of revenues matches the allocation of expenditure responsibilities, which may be a technical challenge.

Indicator 2.6. Multiyear perspective in fiscal planning, expenditure policy and budgeting

Benchmark	Preparation of multiyear fiscal forecasts and functional allocations.
Standard	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Forecasts of fiscal aggregates (on the basis of economic, functional/sector classification) programmes are prepared for at least three years on a rolling annual basis; B. Forecasts prepared (on the basis of economic, functional/sector classification) for at least two years on a rolling annual basis; C. Forecasts of fiscal aggregates (based on economic classification) prepared for at least two years in advance); D. No forward estimates are undertaken.
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	As in other areas of public spending, policy decisions in child protection have multiyear implications, and must be aligned with the availability of resources in the medium-term perspective (Maestral International/UNICEF 2010). To ensure this, governments should prepare multiyear forecasts of their fiscal aggregates – including for expenditures on child protection, and other related fiscal aggregates such as overall totals for mandatory expenditures and potential deficit financing, since these affect the prospects of medium-term sustainability of expenditure commitments for individual programmes.
Comments on benchmarks and standards	As in 2.1., country-level consultations showed that it may be difficult to assess availability of expenditure forecasts for sector-wide amounts allocated to child protection, given that these expenditures are often fragmented across programmes and sectors. The benchmark for this indicator is focused on overall expenditure totals for all sectors of spending as well as other fiscal aggregates, which are usually prepared in an aggregated medium-term expenditure framework. What matters for the sustainability of child protection expenditure in terms of a multiyear perspective is the political willingness and technical capacity of the government to engage in medium-term budgeting, with a particular focus on forecasting resulting public deficits and debts, and preparing to fund them in a responsible way.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	<p>Fiscally responsible and results-oriented budgeting is, by definition, a compulsory requirement for the efficient delivery of public services in any sector, including for implementing reforms in the delivery of services for child protection. But measuring how policy-oriented the budgeting process is has proved to be an extremely difficult task across the globe. The reason is that neither policy budgeting, nor any of its individual tools such as MTEF, have strict, universally-accepted definitions or methodologies: they represent a system of broad principles which help to link policies to budgets. What matters in policy budgeting is the essential idea of a political consensus and commitment to choices of how to reconcile strategic goals with limited funding opportunities.</p> <p>A separate note, provided in Annex 2 in support of this indicator (as well as 2.7.), explains the dangers of interpreting the mere presence of multiyear expenditure forecasts as sufficient proof of a multiyear policy perspective in the country's budgeting for child protection. The annex explains that multiyear forecasts are the first step towards budgeting strategically. However, the key task is to ensure expenditure forecasts represent an outcome of meaningful negotiations on sector spending ceilings within a limited macro-fiscal envelope, rather than a formalistic 'bottom-up' forward projection by individual sectors related to child protection, which may be mutually conflicting or based on over-optimistic macroeconomic assumptions.</p> <p>It is therefore strongly recommended that this indicator be used as an entry point to a wider analysis of the state of policy-based budgeting for child protection within the country context, based on considerations summarized in Annex 3.</p>

Indicator 2.7. Policy-based budgeting for child protection

Benchmark	Existence of costed strategies for child protection.
Standard	<p>A. The government has a costed strategy or strategies for child protection which match Child protection priorities to resource allocation, based on consideration of costed options, and these strategies are considered explicitly during the budget process;</p> <p>B. The government has a costed child protection strategy(ies), but it does not match actual resource allocation and is not clearly articulated by sector staff as budget proposals;</p> <p>C. Sector strategies may have been prepared for some aspects of child protection, but not substantially costed for investment and recurrent expenditure, although activities are underway to prepare one that would feed into the budget process;</p> <p>D. There are no costed strategies for child protection and no activities are under way to prepare one.</p>
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	<p>An effective multiyear expenditure framework for child protection requires effective policy costing. To enable negotiations over expenditure ceilings across sectors that define resources available for child protection, the MTEF (or equivalent framework) requires all participating sectors to prepare comprehensive sector-level analysis of their policy priorities, which should also be comprehensively costed. These estimates allow the wider government to agree on overall prioritization of expenditures, as well as on ways to address cross-sector policies and issues related to child protection (for more detailed explanation of this requirement see Annex 2).</p> <p>Therefore, in order to determine whether current and new policies in child protection are affordable within aggregate fiscal targets and in relation to expenditure priorities in other sectors, it is critical for the government to describe its policy decisions and options for child protection in a strategy document which is fully costed in terms of estimates of forward expenditures (including expenditures both of a recurring nature as well as those involving investment commitments and their recurrent cost implications) (PEFA Secretariat June 2005).</p>
Comments on benchmarks and standards	The benchmark for this indicator is formulated based on the core PEFA framework but with a particular focus on policies for child protection. It attempts to measure both formal availability of costed strategies related to child protection and several aspects of their quality such as whether the costings match actual resource allocations within the budget, and whether they are actually and meaningfully utilized by the sector-ministries as a budget negotiation tool.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	The challenges of applying this indicator closely echo those described for 2.6. in terms of the difficulties of measuring progress on policy budgeting and in a similar way rely on considerations described in Annex 2.

Domain 3. Human resources child protection

What does it include?

Human resource management (HRM) is a child protection domain which covers approaches, systems and institutions utilized by the country to ensure people who work individually or collectively on child protection effectively contribute to achievement of policy goals in this area and in the best interests of children. HRM covers civil service management systems and personnel management for public employees working on child protection, qualifications, staff training and performance evaluation, codes of conduct for staff and measures to improve their motivation to protect children's rights and to share attitudes which are conducive to protecting children from abuse, exploitation and violence.

Why is it important for assessing the child protection system?

Policies and services for children are delivered by people, and the way in which they are organized, trained and motivated has an obvious profound effect on outcomes in child protection. But thinking of human resources as assets in child protection whose inputs can be maximized and employed strategically is not indispensable to many organizations, countries and cultures. Even in countries with relatively advanced traditions of HRM in public and private sectors, this area has originated fairly recently – in the 1980s – replacing an earlier concept of 'personnel management', which was more administrative in nature, seeing management tasks related to people as mostly about payroll, complying with employment law and handling paperwork.

Countries globally and in particular in the EAP region increasingly recognize the benefits of more strategic HRM in all sectors. However, research is still ongoing on whether conventional HRM approaches are equally applicable across cultures, especially in the context of powerful social institutions which are present across the EAP region (e.g. those related to centrally planned economies, hierarchical organization of the civil service – as demonstrated for example in a paper by Law, K. *et al*, which provides econometric evidence for the relevance of HRM approaches for China (Law 2003)).

In child protection, perhaps as in few other fields, making sure that people involved in working with children have proper skills, values and motivation is of critical importance to whether proper outcomes are achieved, given the major responsibility and leverage placed on staff engaged in service delivery, whether directly or indirectly.

What are the major challenges in analysing this domain?

This set of indicators measures the capacity of the country's key formal and informal structures (ministries, agencies, partners, communities, etc.) to develop, administer and effectively implement, monitor and evaluate their child protection responsibilities in accordance with best international practices for HRM and in line with the Child protection Systems Mapping and Analysis Toolkit (Maestral International/UNICEF 2010), but leaves the flexibility to use these indicators as an entry point to in-depth policy discussions at country level.

During consultations with country offices this indicator evolved to capture more qualitative dimensions of HRM, such as the quality of staff training (rather than just quantity). However, evidence-based analysis of HR-related dimensions of child protection remains problematic in the EAP context, given that a lot of necessary data are not systemically collected (such as attendance records to assess levels of absenteeism).

Another complication is the diversity of ways in which Child protection systems are organized across countries, which makes it difficult to define the types of positions to be covered by the analysis. This requires users of the indicators to apply qualitative analysis of respective structures against benchmark criteria to arrive at a standardized score comparable across the region.

How can information under this domain be analysed and used?

Core indicators under this domain should help to:

- Assess the current status of the HRM rules and practices in the country’s child protection system in a way which is comparable across the region; and
- Identify key current gaps and outline a long-term agenda for helping the government to maximize the human potential for child protection.

Domain 3. Human resources management indicators

Indicator 3.1. Regulation of requirements and standards for social work professionals

Benchmark	Regulatory framework for child protection includes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ A definition (in training or other institutions or in policy) of the professional responsibilities, skills and required training and/or standards to which social workers will be held accountable; ■ Within the above: specific requirements and standards for social workers working with children; ■ A certification, accreditation or licensing process for social workers and other professionals who work within child protection; and ■ A system of regular performance evaluation for all civil service staff working on child protection linked to practical measures affecting staff compensation and continued training.
Standard	A. Child protection regulatory framework includes all of the items in the benchmark criteria; B. Child protection regulatory framework includes at least three of the benchmark criteria; C. Child protection regulatory framework includes at least two of the benchmark criteria; D. Child protection regulatory framework includes one or none of the benchmark criteria.
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	As discussed in the introduction of this domain, strategic management of human resources for child protection is an open challenge for many countries in terms of establishing fundamental regulatory elements of HRM systems such as mandatory certification procedures for people working with children or systems for regular performance assessment linked to personal development programmes for staff. At the same time, availability of these core systemic elements of human resources management is critical for ensuring that people involved in the formulation, delivery and monitoring of policies for child protection have the appropriate skills and motivations for such work, including tasks at the level of service delivery which imply working directly with children.
Comments on benchmarks and standards	The benchmark for this indicator relies on the mapping of key elements of HR systems for child protection outlined in the Child protection Systems Mapping and Assessment Toolkit (Maestral International/UNICEF 2010). It requires users of the indicators to apply qualitative analysis of existing policy frameworks and practices to arrive at standardized scores comparable across the region.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	While this indicator provides ample space for qualitative analysis of existing systems, it is still focused on formal policies and requirements, and is not necessarily illustrative of actual practices applied in country. This limitation should be kept in mind in interpreting the scores for this indicator, which is best utilized in combination with other features assessed under this domain.

Indicator 3.2. Professional training for personnel working on child protection service delivery

Benchmark	<p>Education and continued development system contains:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ A university degree programme in social work whose curriculum includes courses on social services, developmental issues, protective and preventive topics, and therapeutic interventions; ■ A vocational qualification programme in social work or child development whose curriculum is approved by relevant authorities; ■ A system of accreditation of social work skills which is based on competency tests within relevant training programmes; ■ Training for education workers (such as teachers), health professionals and/or other professionals on abuse, violence and exploitation; ■ Specific training programme for staff within the ministries with lead interior and home affairs role and lead justice roles on children and justice.
Standard	<p>A. Education system includes all of the items in the benchmark criteria; B. Education system includes at least three of the items in the benchmark criteria; C. Education system includes one or two of the items in the benchmark criteria; D. Education system includes none of the items in the benchmark criteria.</p>
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	<p>A system of training for professionals engaged in child protection, integrated with regulatory requirements for service provision such as mandatory accreditation of social workers, is a core pillar of effective child protection HRM. To ensure staff working with children – as well as professionals engaged in child protection at the policy level – have skills appropriate to their responsibilities it is critical for countries to establish comprehensive systems that include respective legal requirements, a continuum of related education, and a system of regular inspection of skills levels.</p>
Comments on benchmarks and standards	<p>Benchmark criteria outline key aspects of the training and development system for child protection, including training in Child protection-related issues across ministries and agencies whose mandates involve working with children, such as healthcare and justice.</p>
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	<p>During consultations at country level a typical concern in analysing training systems was the quality of training programmes and the importance of linking these programmes to competency tests and accreditation requirements. In the benchmark criteria, only one of the requirements deals explicitly with this concern – recommending that countries approve systems of accreditation based on competency tests of the respective training programmes. However, this leaves it possible for countries to score relatively highly without satisfying this particular critical benchmark criterion. It is therefore essential in the country-level interpretation of the indicator to acknowledge the specific importance of accreditation mechanisms and whether the country has established relevant systems.</p>

Indicator 3.3. Government's capacity to attract qualified child protection professionals

Benchmark	<p>Average wage of staff working on child protection (across all ministries) as a percentage of the average public sector wage (weighted to ensure comparability of grades).</p>
Standard	<p>A. 100% B. 70% C. 50% D. Less than 50%</p>
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	<p>The level of financial compensation is by no means the only motive which contributes to effective and competent delivery of services for children and of policy-level work on related matters. How important salaries are for child protection outcomes was a matter of specific debate in consultations over this indicator at the country level. This set of indicators recognizes that wage levels are not paramount (as was noted by UNICEF Philippines), but also that in many countries salaries for social workers in child protection are significantly below average which represents a significant barrier for the attraction and retention of qualified staff (as was noted, e.g., by UNICEF Lao PDR). Making sure that wages in the sector do not deviate widely from the average in the public sector and are generally competitive is therefore significant to ensure that there is no financial disincentive for staff to remain in related services.</p>
Comments on benchmarks and standards	<p>The benchmark for this indicator was modified in response to country-level consultations to require that analysed averages are weighted to ensure comparability of grades across staff working on child protection.</p>
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	<p>This indicator relies on the availability of a considerable volume of administrative data, which may be problematic in some country contexts.</p> <p>Also, in view of the discussion about the importance of salaries outlined above, it is recommended to analyse this indicator in combination with other aspects of human resources development which should support staff motivation, education and non-financial incentives to remain in services (captured, to some extent, by 3.2 and 3.4).</p>

Indicator 3.4. Government's capacity to retain qualified child protection professionals

Benchmark	Annual turnover within civil service/public sector jobs with responsibility for child protection.
Standard	A. Less than 10% B. Less than 20% C. Less than 25% D. Greater than 25%
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	Staff turnover is the core indicator measuring the ability of the government to retain professionals employed to work in child protection. Low turnover rates indicate staff in posts related to child protection find their employment attractive enough to remain in their job. Turnover rates highlight the performance of the HRM system for child protection, resulting from a range of determinants such as financial and non-financial factors which make these posts attractive. High turnover rates can be harmful for the effectiveness of the child protection system as skilled workers often leave, with the result that the human resources pool engaged in this field contains a high percentage of novice workers without sufficient experience. A high turnover also results in extra costs for running child protection programmes, compounding detrimental results for children.
Comments on benchmarks and standards	The benchmark and standards for this indicator are chosen in line with the approach taken by the Framework of Actionable Governance Indicators for Human Resource Management developed by the World Bank (Reid October 2010). The indicator covers all posts with responsibilities in child protection across all relevant ministries and layers of government.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	The major challenge in measuring and analysing this indicator, noted during consultations at country level, is the need to identify related posts and to collect relevant data, which may not be routinely surveyed in many of the EAP countries, especially if data have to be collected from several government levels. Without the consistent collection of data in this scope, it would be difficult to compare results for this indicator across countries. This difficulty requires further research to understand how persistent it is throughout the region, in which case it could be substituted for a similar indicator measured for representative samples of respective groups of public servants (as in 3.5).

Indicator 3.5. Diligence of staff working on child protection

Benchmark	Average absenteeism rates in representative samples of different cadres of staff working on child protection
Standard	A. Less than 5% B. Less than 10% C. 10–20% D. Above 20%
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	The ethical principle of diligence requires staff working in the field of child protection to perform their duties to the best of their ability and in the best interests of the children according to the requirements of the post. The most straightforward measure of staff diligence is work attendance, which captures one of the most obvious aspects of employment obligations on the part of staff. Absenteeism is recognized as a largely un-researched social phenomenon, which involves “complex multi-dimensional issues involving interaction and subtle interplay between worker, employer, workplace, social, societal and economic factors” (The Australasian Faculty of Occupational Medicine December 1999). In simplified terms, high absenteeism is a sign that staff are not adequately motivated to work, which is likely to result in other violations of duty on top of low work attendance, leading to detrimental outcomes for children.
Comments on benchmarks and standards	The benchmark and standards for this indicator are chosen in line with the approach within the Framework of Actionable Governance Indicators for Human Resource Management developed by the World Bank (Reid October 2010). Since regular tracking of attendance records for all posts related to child protection is not the norm in most countries, this indicator is focused on a representative sample of all related posts with responsibilities in child protection across all relevant ministries and layers of government.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	The biggest challenge in measuring this indicator is access to relevant data, which in most cases is likely to require separate research or a survey.

Indicator 3.6. Overall size of civil service/public sector staff with responsibility for child protection (all social workers across all ministries, qualified and unqualified)

Benchmark	Ratio of social workers with responsibilities for child protection (= service delivery personnel) per head of the child population.
Standard	A. 1:20,000 C. 1:100,000 B. 1:50,000 D. Greater than 1:100,000
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	This indicator measures the overall human capacity available in the system of child protection to deliver services to children, regardless of qualifications and grades. By measuring the number of available social workers with related jobs as a ratio to child population, it makes it possible to compare existing human capacities across countries.
Comments on benchmarks and standards	The benchmark covers all related posts with responsibilities for delivery of services in child protection across all relevant ministries and layers of government.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	The indicator covers all types of jobs in child protection without regard to the level of qualification, which should be treated with caution when interpreting regional comparisons.

Indicator 3.7. Human resources dedicated to children and justice

Benchmark	In the ministries with lead justice and interior roles: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Structural units and individual positions are specifically dedicated to issues related to children and justice (department staff, police personnel, prison personnel, social workers, probation personnel, psychologists etc); ■ Most of these positions have clear job descriptions; ■ Most of these positions have job skills requirements adequate for the work to be performed; ■ Average wages in posts dedicated to working with children within the respective ministries (weighted to account for difference in grades) are no lower than elsewhere in the same ministry.
Standard	A. The system of HRM in both respective ministries is in line with all benchmark criteria; B. The system of HRM in both respective ministries is in line with at least two benchmark criteria; C. The system of HRM in the two ministries combined is in line with at least three benchmark criteria; D. The system of HRM in the two ministries combined is in line with less than three benchmark criteria.
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	Protection of children within the justice system is especially demanding in terms of human resources management. Children in detention face specific vulnerabilities related to their basic rights. Staff diligence, skills and values can have a profound impact on whether a child is protected from risks and abuses to their rights. At the same time, in most countries, in the justice system in particular, working with children is often regarded as a low profile job and often associated with lack of prospects for promotion or growth, which creates extra risks for staff morale and diligence. In this context, effective HRM, including trainings, performance evaluation systems, and competitive financial compensation, is critical to ensure that professionals in the justice system effectively contribute to the protection of children's rights.
Comments on benchmarks and standards	The benchmark for this indicator relies to a significant extent on the analysis of HRM for children and justice within the Child Protection Systems Mapping and Assessment Toolkit (Maestral International/UNICEF 2010).
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	Collecting data for measuring this indicator requires in-depth institutional analysis of the children and justice system, including existing practices for staff training, evaluation and remuneration, which may be problematic in some contexts.

Domain 4. Statistics and information

What does it include?

Statistics and information management is a domain which covers entities, systems and processes engaged for the purposes of data collection, research, analysis and communication as they relate to child protection (Maestral International/UNICEF 2010).

Why is it important for assessing the child protection system?

To develop effective child protection policies and to monitor their implementation to ensure accountability and best value for children, the government as well as non-state actors require access to timely and reliable data suitable for research and analysis focused on children (covering relevant dimensions of child protection, disaggregated across relevant categories, and presented in a clear and transparent way). Indicators under this domain help to measure the availability, scope and quality of statistical systems relevant to child protection, as well as the capacities of government structures to deliver and utilize respective statistics in the policy-making process.

What are the major challenges in analysing this domain?

The concept of information is closely related to the views and values held within each society on the nature of communication, control, knowledge, meaning and representation. This set of indicators is developed based on the assumption that information, including statistical data, represents an asset in child protection, whose potential should be maximized via optimal management systems. However, in many cultures, statistical data are primarily a tool to report against received instructions rather than an asset to be utilized for future policies and improvements. Such cultures of data management make it difficult to discuss and measure concepts like evidence-based policy making or the engagement of data users in the design of statistical tools.

Countries differ in their views on the role of information in society, how openly data should be disseminated, and how the roles for child protection should be divided between the government, private sector, civil society, families and individuals. Thus, there is a great difference of opinion on how governments actually ensure accountability for child protection responsibilities placed on them by the country's constitutional law. All these differences may have a significant effect on the functions of national statistics and for the analysis of this domain.

In particular, in many contexts, key organizations engaged in information generation and processing (such as the ministries of justice, interior and health with important mandates in child protection) may appear bound by their organizational cultures and find it difficult to reveal information necessary for this analysis.

An additional complication may be issues of personal privacy protection which may arise in relation to certain aspects of child abuse or violence.

How can information under this domain be analysed and used?

Core indicators under this domain should help to:

- Assess the current state of statistics and information management systems for child protection;
- Prioritize requirements for monitoring and evaluating child protection in the country (Maestral International/UNICEF 2010);

- Highlight linkages between MIS and child protection, underlining ways in which improved statistics can help to strengthen policies and outcomes for children;
- Identify additional data needs on less visible themes (Maestral International/UNICEF 2010); and
- Outline a long-term agenda for expansion in the coverage and depth of existing databases to more accurately address issues related to child protection.

Domain 4. Statistics and information indicators

Indicator 4.1. Use of survey data on children at risk and in need of protection in the policy process

Benchmark	Use of CDC, MICS, DHS, ILO-IPEC, national survey data or other relevant surveys in national policy documents on child protection.
Standard	A. All surveys used; B. 50–100 % of surveys used; C. Less than 50 % of surveys used; D. Surveys not used.
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	A major purpose of a statistics and information management system is to contribute to practical improvements in approaches to child protection. In turn, effective policy making should be built upon evidence-based research about options, costs and consequences of considered measures in child protection. This indicator attempts to measure the extent to which policy making in child protection is evidence-based and utilizes the data of major relevant surveys, as well as the practical applicability of the surveys in terms of how strongly they feature in the actual policy documents.
Comments on benchmarks and standards	The benchmark compares the number of existing surveys used in national policy documents to the actual number of conducted surveys, including, but not necessarily limited to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - CDC (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention) surveys; - MICS (Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys) - DHS (Demographic and Health Surveys); - ILO-IPEC (International Labour Organization – International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour) surveys; - National surveys on related issues. <p>In response to consultations with country offices, the benchmark was changed to the percentage of existing surveys used, rather than the absolute number, to ensure cross-country comparability and to keep the range of possible surveys open and flexible.</p>
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	Utilization of survey data in the policy documents does not necessarily guarantee the statistics were used based on appropriate methodology and is not indicative of the quality of the conclusions.

Indicator 4.2. Data analysis and evidence-based research for child protection

Benchmark	Child protection policy development and planning is based on the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Regular provision to key decision makers of relevant evidence-based analysis and research; ■ Existence of a national research agenda on child protection issues, which identifies priorities for improving data on child protection problems, and key risk factors; ■ Effective collection of information on children at risk for the purposes of collaboration between public and/or external agencies in emergency contexts; ■ Capacity building and training programmes in key ministries with responsibilities in Child protection for data management, statistical analysis and evidence-based policy making.
Standard	A. Policy making is based on all of the benchmark criteria for data utilization; B. Policy making is based on at least three of the benchmark criteria for data utilization; C. Policy making is based on one or two of the benchmark criteria for data utilization; D. None of the benchmark criteria for data utilization are satisfied during policy making for Child protection.
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	In order for statistics to be of practical help to children, a child protection system has to contain a range of specific mechanisms, which translate numbers into policy outcomes. Relevant stakeholders should engage in ongoing research on issues which are topical and important for children, and practical channels should exist so that the research findings and recommendations reach policy makers and influence their decisions. One requirement for this is to have policy makers acquire sufficient statistical skills.

Indicator 4.2. Data analysis and evidence-based research for child protection (continued)

Comments on benchmarks and standards	The benchmark and standards for this indicator strongly rely on the Child protection Systems Mapping and Assessment Toolkit (Maestral International/UNICEF 2010). It covers key elements of effective institutional interface between policy makers and entities responsible for the collection and processing of data. Specific attention is paid to management data capacities for children at risk in emergency contexts, where information management is central to the provision of effective protective measures.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	This indicator strongly relies on qualitative analysis of the country's systems for data management and of its capacity for institutional cooperation, which may represent a technical difficulty.

Indicator 4.3. Visibility of children in household surveys

Benchmark	Use of equivalence scales to assess child poverty rates
Standard	A. Equivalence scales always used; B. Used in 50 % or more surveys; C. Used in less than 50 % of surveys; D. Not used in any survey.
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	<p>Household surveys are a major source of data relevant to child protection, They present key information related to the situation of children at the household level, including data on household aggregate income and expenditure. Using such information for an analysis of per capita indicators such as poverty levels requires some assumptions about how decisions are made (or should be made) within the household on questions such as the allocation of income or on savings, based on economies of scale from joint consumption of certain goods.</p> <p>A straightforward approach which assumes that all members of the household are equal may overlook some child-specific problems: in particular, children often consume a relatively small amount of the household budget, thus treating them as adults in household comparisons may lead to an underestimation of child poverty levels. A conventional method to address this risk is to apply 'equivalence scales' for comparisons of households, which is a statistical correction to take into account an assumed distribution of consumption within households (Bellu November 2005).</p> <p>Applying equivalence scales to household data to account for the possibility that children are not always assigned equal priority to adults within households is an important measure to assess the situation of children more accurately and to bring attention to some of the factors that may explain such biases in priorities.</p>
Comments on benchmarks and standards	<p>As in 2.1., in response to consultations with country offices, the benchmark was changed to the percentage of existing surveys used, rather than the absolute number.</p> <p>The benchmark is focused on the application of equivalence scales for an analysis of child poverty, typically the reason for a comparison of the intra-household distribution of income. However, the openness of the statistical system to the application of equivalence scales to more accurately reflect child-related issues is also indicative of the overall visibility of children in the country's information management system. For example, an analysis of equivalence scales in poverty estimates by age groups in Viet Nam in 2002 revealed a number of specific problems related to discrimination against children within households (such as a stronger tendency for discrimination against female children in rural and male headed households) (White 2002).</p>
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	<p>While it is important to apply equivalence scales to capture assumptions about the allocation of consumption priorities within households, it is the accurate choice of equivalence rather than its mere application that matters most. In fact, the choice of a particular equivalence scale can have such a profound impact on the results of the analysis that it should be made with extreme caution (e.g. when scales give greater weight to each additional household member, the resulting poverty rates for children are likely to be higher) (Betson 2004). Therefore, for the purposes of in-country policy work, the interpretation of scorings against this indicator should be combined with additional in-depth analysis of the quality of applied scales.</p> <p>At the same time, OECD analysis of cross-country equivalence scales shows that "while the level and, in particular, the composition of income poverty are affected by the use of different equivalence scales, trends over time and rankings across countries are much less affected" (OECD n.d.), (Burniaux 1998), which means that this indicator should remain robust for regional comparisons.</p>

Indicator 4.4. Quality and consistency of child protection information databases

Benchmark	Consolidation of data related to child protection is characterized by the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Data relevant to child protection is sufficiently consolidated at the national level to enable analysis and policy making for child protection; ■ Reliable and consistent mechanisms to channel sub-national data to the central level; ■ Tasks of staff involved in data collection and reporting are clearly specified; ■ Sufficient amount of separate issue-specific databases related to specific Child protection priorities are in place at local and central level.
Standard	A. Data is consolidated based on all of the benchmark criteria; B. Data is consolidated based on at least three of the benchmark criteria; C. Data is consolidated based on one or two of the benchmark criteria; D. None of the specified benchmark criteria is satisfied.
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	An effective statistical system includes mechanisms for consolidation of information related to child protection into coherent databases which lend themselves easily to analytical purposes. These mechanisms include approaches to the design of the structure of relevant databases, coordination of engaged staff, and effective algorithms for the provision and sharing of necessary data across relevant stakeholders, such as sector-ministries and tiers of government.
Comments on benchmarks and standards	This indicator was modified in the process of country-level consultations to measure the organizational quality of databases, rather than their quantity. The number of existing databases was criticized as a poor indicator of the quality of the data consolidation process; in fact, a multiplicity of databases may lead to fragmentation and confusion, which would ultimately be detrimental. In addition, most peers were specifically concerned over the need to assess how consistently sub-national data is aggregated at the national level, whether the structure of the databases is free of parallel systems, and how to ensure data consolidation tasks are clearly divided across stakeholders so that excessive MIS duties do not interfere with the primary Child protection mandate of the staff. In response to this concern, the current design of the benchmark is focused on a qualitative analysis of the data consolidation mechanism leading to a standardized country score.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	This indicator strongly relies on a qualitative analysis of the country's systems for data management and of its capacity for institutional cooperation, which may represent a technical difficulty.

Indicator 4.5. Source data are soundly based for capturing required information on child protection

Benchmark	Administrative data on child protection recorded by national MIS: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Use definitions and concepts which are appropriate for statistical purposes; ■ Allow tracking performance of existing Child protection programmes and facilities (within and across sectors); ■ Allow tracking utilization of assets, expenditure and budget execution by Child protection programmes and facilities; ■ Cover variables sufficient to support decisions on most of the specific national Child protection policy priorities (e.g. migration-related risks, HIV, domestic violence, etc).
Standard	A. Administrative data on child protection recorded by national MIS satisfy all of the benchmark criteria; B. Administrative data on child protection recorded by national MIS satisfy at least three of the benchmark criteria; C. Administrative data on child protection recorded by national MIS satisfy one or two of the benchmark criteria; D. Administrative data on child protection recorded by national MIS satisfy none of the benchmark criteria;
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	This indicator assesses whether the available data related to child protection are sufficient and useful in ensuring that decisions that promote the best interests of the child can be made. In particular, the practical usefulness of collected administrative data depends on whether they have sufficient scope and breakdown, and whether they rely on correct and consistent definitions, both in terms of statistical analysis and child protection.
Comments on benchmarks and standards	Based on consultations at the country level, the benchmark for this indicator is qualitative: it assesses the features of existing administrative data related to children and scores progress of each country based on how many benchmark criteria are satisfied.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	This indicator is focused on administrative data related to child protection, and does not cover a comprehensive range of data which are required to analyse related issues (such as national surveys and especially those related to child protection outcomes). Therefore, progress on this indicator is important but not sufficient to ensure domestic child protection policy is comprehensively supported by needed statistics.

Indicator 4.6. Data disaggregation

Benchmark	Share of child protection data variables disaggregated by age, ethnicity, gender, and disability status.
Standard	A. 100% B. 80–99% C. 50–79% D. Less than 49%
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	Disaggregation of data such as by age, ethnicity, gender, and disability status is important to help policy makers conduct in-depth analysis of child protection issues related to these specific dimensions, to explore relationships between various aspects of child protection, and, in particular, to increase the accountability and fairness of existing policies across gender, ethnic groups or other potentially discriminated categories of children.
Comments on benchmarks and standards	The benchmark compares the amount of variables related to child protection within all existing sources of data (including administrative and survey data) which are disaggregated by age, ethnicity, gender, and disability status, to the overall amount of variables in collected data.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	It is strongly recommended that this indicator be used in combination with other indicators under this domain, since it measures the degree to which data are disaggregated but not the scope of variables they cover, and therefore says little about the comprehensiveness of existing information.

Indicator 4.7. Linkages between data producers and data users on child protection statistics

Benchmark	<p>‘Fitness to use’ of the collected data on child protection, including the following quality components:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Explicit reference to documentation on data quality and methodology in all released data; ■ Regular meetings with key users and producers of statistics and working in partnership with them; ■ Regular methodological updates to increase relevance and timeliness of released information to incorporate feedback from data users; ■ Ability of key data users to easily ascertain existence of information and access it via a sustainable medium.
Standard	A. Collected Child protection data satisfy all four of the benchmark criteria; B. Collected Child protection data satisfy at least three of the benchmark criteria; C. Collected Child protection data satisfy one or two of the benchmark criteria; D. Collected Child protection data satisfy none of the benchmark criteria.
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	In order for statistics to be useful in practical terms, the MIS must have the ability to productively engage users of data in the design of the methodologies for data collection (to ensure that the collected data match their purposes and expectations) and to clearly and effectively communicate to them the approaches to data collection so that they are able to use data well and correctly. In child protection in particular, consultations with users is important both in terms of engaging their views on priorities for data collection and in terms of raising their understanding of the methodologies behind existing data.
Comments on benchmarks and standards	The benchmark criteria describe key elements of a successful interface between producers and users of data in child protection (such as regular consultations, transparent explanations of data collection and processing methodologies, and openness of relevant information).
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	While this indicator measures the availability of the key elements of engaging users in MIS, it does not provide insights into the quality of the respective mechanisms (such as the quality of released information on the methodology of data collection or of consultations with data users).

Domain 5. Child protection system coverage

What does it include?

This domain covers aspects of the child protection system which measure its capacity to address complex idiosyncratic and covariate risks to which children are exposed. This domain includes the comprehensiveness of existing programmes and measures, the integrity of the continuum of care in terms of types of services available to children at different stages and levels of exposure to risks, and, most importantly, the ability of the child protection system to intervene at the earliest possible stage to support children at imminent risk of abuse, exploitation or violence with social and financial programmes to help families prevent the crisis and support their children.

Why is it important for assessing the child protection system?

The Child Protection Framework delineated in the EAPRO strategy and the accompanying toolkit, explicitly highlight the inter-relationship between a range of idiosyncratic and covariate risks that children are exposed to. An effective response to such risks – both ex ante and ex post – requires governments to engage in measures that are pre-emptive and multi-disciplinary, and to champion wider partnerships across ministries, programmes and non-state stakeholders.

What are the major challenges in analysing this domain?

The major difficulty in using this indicator is that it brings the analysis very close to the paradigmatic debate on the linkages between children's rights, child protection and child well-being, described in detail in Annex 1. As the annex explains, current literature shows a prominent divide between a 'child rights' and a 'developmentalist' perspective on child well-being.

This dichotomy results in a difference of views on the focus within the continuum of measures in child protection: while the child rights perspective is focused on prevention of specific risks in children's lives as well as specific services that are required to address problems when things go wrong, the developmentalist perspective is more focused on measures aimed at the accumulation of human and social capital which would serve as a preventive measure against future vulnerabilities of the child.

The ability of the child protection system to address covariate risks and invest in early intervention by tackling emerging risks at their source is closely linked to the willingness of the government to invest in the accumulation of the relevant human and social capital to ensure against emerging vulnerabilities of children (e.g. one area where the two are closely linked is cash transfers which prevent crisis at the family level by addressing the financial and social pressures on families).

How can information under this domain be analysed and used?

Core indicators under this domain should help to:

- Assess comprehensiveness of the structure and functions of the current child protection system and its ability to address complex risks;
- Identify gaps in the existing protective framework;
- Stimulate debate on the priorities and coverage of child protection systems at the country level as well as across the region.

Domain 5. Coverage of idiosyncratic and covariate risks by child protection system indicators

Indicator 5.1. Effective support to children who are exposed to multiple risks from different sources

Benchmark	Existing programmes for child protection include a range of activities and services such as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Promotional (ex ante) measures which focus on risk reduction by providing information on the nature of risks, their probability, and on options available to minimize these risks; ■ Preventative measures which focus on risk mitigation by providing related community-based services and support; ■ Protective (ex post) programmes which help children and families with children to cope with materialized risks by providing related community-based services and support (shelters, legal advice etc); ■ Protective (ex post) programmes which help children and families with children to cope with materialized risks by providing support via residential services.
Standard	A. Existing range of Child protection programmes includes all of the benchmark measures and no legal, institutional or financial incentives which would bias it towards one kind of measure (e.g. residential support); B. Existing range of Child protection programmes includes all of the benchmark measures but is biased towards residential support; C. Existing range of Child protection programmes includes at least three of the benchmark measures; D. Existing range of Child protection programmes includes two or less of the benchmark measures.
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	This indicator is assessing whether the existing continuum of measures in child protection cover a full range of vulnerability stages and situations. In particular, it assesses whether efforts are made within the child protection system to prevent risks from materializing – including through activities such as awareness raising and delivery of information on options available to minimize risks (including on access to financial, social or psychological support).
Comments on benchmarks and standards	Upon consultations with country offices, this indicator was redesigned to avoid comparisons in numbers of existing programmes (which is not applicable given the regional diversity) and to introduce elements of more qualitative analysis of existing measures.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	One significant challenge in analysing this indicator is in applying consistent definitions with regards to promotional, preventive and protective measures in child protection, an issue that raised concerns during consultations at the country level. Another notable problem is that the indicator describes the existence of various programmes without detecting any possible biases towards some of the specific interventions (e.g. protective measures rather than prevention or risk reduction).

Indicator 5.2. Children and cash transfer programmes (social and financial programmes to help families prevent crisis and protect their children)

Benchmark	Average coverage rates of existing child focused cash transfer programmes.
Standard	A. 100% B. 70–99% C. 50–69% D. Less than 50%
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	Cash transfers are emerging as a potentially positive response to addressing covariate risks – including risks of abuse, exploitation, and violence – resulting from child poverty, although evidence suggests that they become most effective when combined with additional preventive interventions. In particular, cash transfers were shown to have a positive impact on reducing the incidence of child labour (N. H. Jones n.d.).
Comments on benchmarks and standards	The benchmark for this indicator is an average of the coverage rates of all child- focused cash transfer programmes which exist in country. The term ‘coverage rate’ here refers to the proportion of children affected by the specific contingency (on which the cash transfer programme is focused) who receive the benefit payment that is conditional on that contingency (Immervoll December 2004).
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	The coverage rate is an important but not exhaustive indicator of the quality of cash transfer programmes. Other aspects not covered by this indicator include the quality of targeting (in terms of the size of inclusion and exclusion errors) and the effectiveness in terms of the impact on desired child outcomes.

Indicator 5.3. Disaster preparedness

Benchmark	Existence of disaster preparedness strategies for managing covariate risks that have significant impacts on children.
Standard	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Strategies for disaster preparedness covering more than 20 risks that affect children; B. Strategies for disaster preparedness covering 10–19 risks that affect children; C. Strategies for disaster preparedness covering five–nine risks that affect children; D. Strategies for disaster preparedness covering less than five risks that affect children.
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	The literature on disaster preparedness acknowledges that disasters represent covariate risks and that therefore most effective responses are usually unlikely to result from activities in any single sector but require the formation of partnerships that are both international and cross-sectoral. Moreover, vulnerability has been shown to affect different social groups and genders disproportionately, which means that to effectively protect children governments should design specific strategies to reduce particular vulnerabilities related to children (World Bank Disaster Management Facility/UNDP n.d.).
Comments on benchmarks and standards	The benchmark for this indicator specifically assesses the number of risks to children which are covered by the country’s strategies for disaster preparedness.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	While the indicator measures the coverage of multiple risks by strategies for disaster preparedness, it is not capable of assessing whether these strategies approach covariate risks by orchestrating multi-sectoral and international partnerships, rather than planning for activities by single sectors. This limitation should be kept in mind in using this indicator as an entry point for country-level policy discussions.

Domain 6. Surveillance, gate keeping, referral and quality assurance

What does it include?

This domain covers mechanisms within the child protection system that ensure quality and efficiency in the process of service delivery to children. It includes rules and processes engaged in the inspection of quality at the aggregate level, and the robustness of gate keeping and referral systems.

Why is it important for assessing the child protection system?

Quality assurance is a requirement of obvious importance. It refers to a specific framework for the systematic monitoring and evaluation of various aspects of services related to child protection to ensure standards of quality are being met.

What are the major challenges in analysing this domain?

The meaning of 'quality' is dependent on the existing policy framework including the system of standards in service provision, described by other indicators, which should be applied jointly with indicators under this domain.

How can information under this domain be analysed and used?

Core indicators under this domain should help to:

- Assess the current state of the service delivery framework;
- Identify and prioritize opportunities to improve service delivery.

Domain 6. Surveillance, gate keeping, referral and quality assurance indicators

Indicator 6.1. Comprehensiveness of surveillance mechanisms for preventing and detecting children at risk of abuse, neglect and violence

Benchmark	Frequency of assessments by government departments of the efficacy of existing promotional, preventive and protective measures in the Child protection system at aggregate level.
Standard	A. Annually; B. Once every two years; C. Once every three years; D. Once every five years.
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	The basic requirement for a quality assurance system in child protection is that government departments which oversee respective measures engage in regular analysis of the efficacy of ongoing activities. Such analysis by the key ministries is different from the ongoing systemic inspection of individual service providers and therefore does not have to comprehensively cover individual services provided to all children (which represents a different but related mechanism linked to the accreditation and licensing frameworks). However, to ensure existing programmes represent value for children they should be analysed in terms of the impact and costs with the help of administrative data and representative surveys.
Comments on benchmarks and standards	It should be noted that the frequency of programme efficacy assessments at the aggregate level – reflected in the standards for this indicator – is fundamentally different from the frequency with which inspections should take place at the level of individual services for children.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	The quantity – or frequency – of inspections undertaken are not indicative of the quality of analysis which they include. Another challenge in using this indicator is that since it covers a total range of inspections undertaken by all ministries engaged in child protection, it is difficult to use cross-country data to identify country-level biases towards better quality assurance in some of the specific sectors, which should be addressed by specific in-country analysis.

Indicator 6.2. Credibility of gate keeping and referral system for children detected as being at risk of harm, neglect and violence

Benchmark	Linkages between gate keeping and referral systems within and across child protection agencies.
Standard	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. All children are consistently assessed and referred on the basis of clear guidance and criteria; B. The majority of children are consistently assessed and referred on the basis of clear guidance and criteria; C. Many children are not assessed or referred; D. Referrals and assessment are not linked.
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	Within the aggregate system of inspection of the efficacy of child protection measures, a critical individual sub-system relates to the inspection and quality assurance function that focuses on safeguarding children. In particular, an effective inspection system should guarantee that the referral process is transparent and clearly regulated, giving basis to consistent and regular assessments and referrals for all children requiring protective services.
Comments on benchmarks and standards	The benchmark for this indicator lists the key expectations for an effective inspection system at the level of individual services provided to children, and requires a qualitative assessment of the existing approaches to arrive at a standardized score.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	Based on feedback received from country-level consultations, the major challenge in applying this indicator lies in the availability of needed data – which may be problematic for most countries. If this indicator is found relevant, this would imply the need for additional representative surveys or long-term policy dialogue for the benefit of extending the coverage of existing administrative reports.

Indicator 6.3. Credibility of inspection and quality assurance regime for social welfare services, labour and juvenile justice

Benchmark	Frequency of inspection and quality assurance for social welfare services, labour and juvenile justice.
Standard	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. All entities responsible for child protection in social welfare services, labour and juvenile justice are inspected at least once every two years; B. 75% are inspected; C. 50% are inspected; D. Less than 50% are inspected.
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	This indicator is focused on the quality of inspection at the level of individual service providers and is an integral part of the overall measure of quality assurance in the system.
Comments on benchmarks and standards	The benchmark for this indicator covers all providers of services in social welfare, labour and juvenile justice.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	As in 6.2, the major challenge in applying this indicator lies in the availability of needed data – which may be problematic for most countries. If this indicator is found relevant, this would imply the need for additional representative surveys or long-term policy dialogue for the benefit of extending the coverage of existing administrative reports.

Domain 7. Public attitudes and values

What does it include?

This domain covers a part of the protective environment represented by positive attitudes towards child protection and open discussion of child protection issues (Maestral International/UNICEF 2010). It includes both current values and attitudes to child protection and to children's rights as well as measures and approaches to promote more positive attitudes, to raise awareness around the core issues and maintain values conducive to child protection in the face of new, emerging and dynamically changing risks and vulnerabilities (e.g. those related to the emergence of the internet).

Why is it important for assessing the child protection system?

As shown in Figure 4, public attitudes and values regarding child protection and child rights are at the core of the protective framework for children and are a powerful determinant of how the system of child protection is likely to evolve in the long term since – as was recognized by the UNICEF Child Protection Strategy – norms and values also play an important role in the functioning of formal institutions (UNICEF 2008). As indicated by the Child Protection Systems Mapping and Assessment Toolkit, public attitudes to children are no less important for child protection as are services to assist families, communities and countries to prevent violence, exploitation, abandonment and abuse (Maestral International/UNICEF 2010). On the other hand, discriminatory social and cultural attitudes towards children, as well as harmful traditional or religious attitudes and practices can represent strong barriers to reforms in child protection (N. Jones 2008), (Wulczyn 2009).

What are the major challenges in analysing this domain?

The two major challenges in using this indicator relate to a lack of relevant data and to the frequent sensitivity surrounding cultural attitudes to children in some country contexts.

How can information under this domain be analysed and used?

Core indicators under this domain should help to:

- Mainstream child protection issues and raise awareness of the importance of positive attitudes and values;
- Make the case for new surveys at the national and international level.

Domain 7. Public attitudes and values towards

Indicator 7.1. Appreciation of the importance of attitudes and values for child protection

Benchmark	Number of barometric or other attitudinal national surveys conducted over the last five years to assess and measure public attitudes towards child abuse, exploitation, and violence.
Standard	A. More than five; B. Three to four; C. One to two; D. None.

Indicator 7.1. Appreciation of the importance of attitudes and values for child protection (continued)

Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	As was recognized by the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, every social grouping in the world has specific traditional cultural practices and beliefs, some of which are beneficial to all members, and others that are harmful to a specific group such as children (Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights n.d.). All too often values and practices that are detrimental to children persist despite their harmful nature and their violation of international human rights laws because they are not questioned and are perceived as moral in the eyes of those practicing them. Thus, the first step towards promoting positive public values to help protect children from abuse, violence and exploitation should be to recognize the importance of public opinion and to invest in an analysis of it to bring about change towards more positive values where they are needed.
Comments on benchmarks and standards	The benchmark for this indicator measures the number of surveys sponsored by national sources (state or non-state) aimed at measuring and analysing existing views in society on child abuse, exploitation, and violence. Surveys covered by this indicator may cover various aspects of public opinion on child abuse, exploitation, and violence (narrow or wide ranging), and could originate from a diverse array of organizations (state, private, academic and civil society).
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	Questions on attitudes related to child abuse, exploitation and violence may be spread across diverse surveys which may not be immediately visible and may make them difficult to track. However, gathering information for this indicator may also serve as an opportunity to mobilize data from related surveys and build partnerships across engaged organizations and researchers.

Indicator 7.2. Consistent collection of evidence on outcomes for children

Benchmark	Number of surveys over the last five years to assess and measure outcomes for children related to key specific Child protection priorities in country (e.g. violence against children).
Standard	A. More than five; B. Three to four; C. One to two; D. None.
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	Country-level consultations stressed that even more important than an analysis of values is information about outcomes for children related to key specific Child protection priorities in the country (e.g. violence against children, abuse or exploitation), which can lead to awareness raising initiatives on the need to protect children. UNICEF EAPRO recently noted the lack of verifiable statistical data on existing levels of violence against children as one of the greatest obstacles for the protection children in the region.
Comments on benchmarks and standards	The benchmark measures the total number of surveys undertaken in country over the last five years on outcomes for children in relation to abuse, violence and exploitation, and covering all sources of funding.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	Prevalence studies are an important element of research into the nature of existing problems related to the violation of children's rights, including abuse, violence and exploitation. They are especially important for the purposes of advocacy and awareness raising to gain public and political commitment for children's protection. However, the collection of information on the prevalence of abuse and violations of children's rights is only an intermediate step in assessing the overall impact of child abuse on society. This impact includes wider lifetime outcomes resulting from the experience of violence in childhood, such as related long-term costs to the economy and society channelled via labour markets, weaker education and professional skills, poorer health (and larger healthcare expenditures), reduced potential for innovation, entrepreneurship and economic growth. All these linkages require additional research, for which this indicator is only the first step.

Indicator 7.3. Advocacy and awareness raising to combat harmful attitudes and practices

Benchmark	Activities and programmes under way to combat existing attitudes, customs and practices which are contrary to a child's well-being, and which aim to promote open discussion with a view towards changing opinions.
Standard	A. More than 20 programmes under way; B. 519 programmes under way; C. Less than five programmes under way; D. No programmes under way.
Why does this indicator matter for child protection?	For a complete picture of how countries address the impact of social values on child protection it is critical to assess how proactive the government and non-state actors are in promoting behaviour change, raising awareness about the risks to children and their negative effects, and stimulating more positive attitudes and values.
Comments on benchmarks and standards	The benchmark covers all activities and programmes related to the promotion of more positive attitudes and values about child protection, including those which stimulate open discussion, regardless of the funding sources, duration and nature of such projects.
What are the major challenges in analysing this indicator?	This indicator is not limited to any specific type of risk facing children and covers programmes which address a broad range of opinions about the violation of children's rights. In particular, it does not highlight the evolving nature of some risks and emerging problems such as those related to the rising use of the Internet and child pornography. In using this indicator for in-country policy discussions, it is important to note that an awareness-raising agenda should remain focused on the most imminent risks depending on the country context, and should evolve to respond to new and emerging problems.

Annexes

Annex 1. Framing the linkages between children's rights, child protection and child well-being

Children's rights, child protection, and child well-being

Although child protection, child well-being and child rights are intrinsically related concepts, their actual measurement is not straightforward and highlights complex linkages. For the purposes of developing indicators, benchmarks and standards, we define child rights measures as focusing on the broader interaction between children, the state and society. Child protection, on the other hand, is defined as focusing on risks (or acts of commission and omission) that adversely impact the well-being of some groups of children (WHO/ISPCAN 2006) and is increasingly linked with social protection (European Union 2008, Asian Development Bank 2006, UNCEB 2009). Child well-being measures can be described as outcome measures revealing the 'state' or quality of children's lives⁷. However, as simple as these concepts sound, there is – based in a review of the literature⁸ – no unique, universally accepted way of actually developing indicators, benchmarks and standards for these terms.

Child well-being can be defined both as a positive outcome (as the realization of child rights) and as an absence of negative outcomes (deprivation) for children. Child well-being and deprivation represent different sides of the same coin. From a child rights perspective well-being can be defined as the realization of children's rights and fulfilment of the opportunity for every child to reach his or her full potential as a result of the effective protection and assistance provided by families, the community, society and state. The degree to which this is achieved can be measured and assessed in terms of positive child outcomes, whereas negative outcomes and deprivation point to the neglect of children's rights. Child outcomes however are not static. They are the result of the interplay between resources and risk factors concerning the personal situation of the child, his or her family, the quality of governance, and attitudes and values within society.

7 For example, Heshmati 2007, K. Land, Measuring Trends in Child Well-being; An Evidence-based Approach 2007, K. Land, The Foundation for Child Development Child and Youth Well-being Index (CWI), 1075–2005, with Projections for 2006 2007, UNICEF 2007, Richardson 2008.

8 Over the last 20 years numerous efforts have been made to define (and redefine) the concept of child well-being in the context of child indicators. The concept of developmental transitions between different stages in life is well documented, including the transition from adolescence to adulthood Avard 1997, Settersten 2005. Similarly, developmental theories of child well-being abound, especially their psychological development Limber 1999, but also their physical, social, moral, and spiritual development Flekkoy 1999, Hodgkin 1998, Rushton 1997, Thompson 1999, Tourney-Purta 1999. These transitional or developmental concepts typically focus on one dimension of the child's life (for a good overview see Furstenberg 2000 or Bronfenbrenner 2000). Often, especially among young children, the standards for development are based on a preferred adolescent or adult outcome, implying the need to prepare children for their transition into later stages in life or to monitor the developmental process. Similarly, several studies use an ecological framework for understanding child well-being Bronfenbrenner 2000 or a framework that builds on the concept of children in society, Bennet 2004. Both of these approaches are useful in understanding child well-being, but they do not encompass the full spectrum of children's lives.

Any measure of child well-being should take into account its multi-dimensional nature. Overall, there are two broad approaches to defining and measuring child well-being. The first approach is to consider well-being as a multi-dimensional concept. Researchers decide on important life dimensions, delineate key aspects of governance systems and populate these dimensions with indicators, benchmarks and standards. The second approach is to ask children directly about how they view their well-being. In a recent literature survey, child well-being is defined as “a multi-dimensional construct incorporating mental/psychological, physical and social dimensions” (Pollard 2003) (p. 65). This definition, however, omits a material aspect, which is important in many other studies that consider child poverty or child material deprivation. More recently, Ben-Arieh and Froner (A. F. Ben-Arieh, Indicators of Children’s Well Being – Concepts, Indices and Usage 2007) (p. 1) have offered the following definition, also indicators-based:

“Child well-being encompasses quality of life in a broad sense. It refers to a child’s economic conditions, peer relations, political rights, and opportunities for development. Most studies focus on certain aspects of children’s well-being, often emphasising social and cultural variations. Thus, any attempts to grasp well-being in its entirety must use indicators on a variety of aspects of well-being.”

There exists a dichotomy in views on child well-being, dividing the ‘developmentalist’ perspective and the ‘child rights’ perspective. This definition bridges two prominent divides in the literature on child well-being. The first divide is between what might be termed a ‘developmentalist perspective’ and a ‘child rights perspective’. The second is between those who consider well-being outcomes from the point of view of socially and individually costly outcomes (i.e., indicators that measure undesirable things like poverty) and those who wish to take a more positive perspective. The developmentalist perspective is more likely to be associated with a greater focus on poor child outcomes and the child rights perspective with a focus on child well-being.

For child protection, the dichotomy translates into the following differences in views:

- **The difference between seeing child protection as preparation for improvements tomorrow (‘well-becoming’) versus ensuring better well-being here and now, although this difference is often more apparent than real.** Within this broad dichotomy are concerns with child protection which focus on the prevention of specific risks in children’s lives as well as specific services that are required to address problems when things go wrong. The developmentalist perspective focuses on the accumulation of human capital and social skills for tomorrow. This long view of child well-being has been described as focusing on ‘well-becoming’. The child rights perspective, on the other hand, places a strong rights-based emphasis on children as human beings who experience well-being in the here-and-now. The rights perspective also seeks the input of children in the process of deciding what their well-being might be and how it might be best measured (Casas 1997), (A. F. Ben-Arieh, Indicators of Children’s Well Being – Concepts, Indices and Usage 2007). In most cases, the differences between the two perspectives are more apparent than real, since what is self-evidently good for the child’s current well-being is also important for the child’s future. For example, child abuse harms the well-being of children in the here-and-now, as well as damaging their longer-term well-being outcomes as adults (Hood 2007), (Currie 2006). However, in other situations there are clear trade-offs. A child may favour his or her current well-being, for example playing with their friends (which a child rights perspective might support), over learning in school to improve future life-time prospects (which a developmentalist perspective might support).

- **The difference between the 'deficit approach' and 'strength-based' approach to child protection outcomes.** A second divide in the child well-being literature is between those who place a focus on poor child well-being outcomes and those who prefer to conceive of child well-being as a positive continuous variable. The latter group sometimes describes the former approach as a 'deficit approach' and their own approach as a 'strengths-based' one (A. G. Ben-Arieh 2001), (Pollard 2003), (Fattore 2007).

Historically, the measurement of child well-being has focused on children with behaviour problems, disorders and disabilities rather than attempting to measure a continuum of well-being for all children. A focus on deficits is often criticized in the academic literature. Taking a 'deficit approach' is used pejoratively. However, there are some very good reasons why policy makers choose to focus on well-being for children in terms of so-called deficit measures. These policy reasons encompass both efficiency and equity rationales. An efficiency rationale for a policy focus on child deficits is that they often generate high costs for the rest of society. These include monetary and non-monetary costs, which can be large for example in countries where disability, crime and poverty rates are high. Preventing the multifarious costs of disability, crime and poverty is one of the strong arguments behind intervention early in the life cycle of socially disadvantaged children. Similarly, deficits in terms of human capital formation or health create third-party costs via raising claims made on various social protection programmes, thus necessitating higher average tax rates (Currie 2006).

A focus on deficits can also be rationalized by equity concerns for the more disadvantaged children in society. For example, including indicators of child abuse or child mortality in the measure of well-being is important in an equity sense, even though such problems do not affect a sizeable majority of children. Considering child well-being as a positive continuous variable directs policy attention away from the less well-off children who are picked up by deficit measures. However, it certainly remains the case that relying only on deficit measures misses the focus on the quality of governance that has a significant impact on enhancing child well-being.

The definition of child well-being in this Framework is based on a pragmatic attempt to capture key dimensions of child well-being which are relevant to child protection, are amendable by policy measures, and allow cross-national comparisons. For the purposes of this Indicator Framework, child well-being is located within an institutional framework – using multiple, policy amenable measures that incorporate child protection. In practice, and partly for pragmatic reasons, child well-being is usually considered as a multi-dimensional concept. The dimensions are identified by consensus, with justifications drawn from the child research, the governance literature and the Convention on the Rights of the Child. However, cross-national comparisons of child well-being require decisions about how many and which dimensions to include, how many indicators in each dimension, and the placement of which indicators in what dimensions. There are also aggregation decisions to be made. Various methods can be used to add up indicators within dimensions and then add up dimensions to arrive at country aggregate measures of governance that influence child well-being. A problem with aggregation approaches is that they infer common priorities for all countries across all dimensions by placing the same country valuation on outcomes.

Child protection, social protection and governance

A distinct feature of child protection is that it involves multiple risks which are interrelated in complex ways, are not always fully researched and quantified, and include material deprivation and poverty. As discussed in the introduction to this paper, one major risk which strongly covariates with most child protection vulnerabilities, and yet whose impact is not straightforward, is material deprivation and poverty. Families who face economic hardship, and especially extreme shocks related to an inability to meet basic human needs, might find it more difficult to protect their children because of more transient residence, poorer education and a higher likelihood of substance abuse and emotional disorders, as well as bigger difficulties of access to support systems assisting parents with their child care responsibilities. As a result, some countries register a higher incidence of child maltreatment in poorer families. However, despite these income-related correlations, the same research finds very substantial numbers of maltreated children at all income levels, including in middle- and upper-income levels. This points to the presence of additional factors which lead to child abuse, neglect, violence and maltreatment – via acts of omission or commission – and which make it difficult for these children regardless of income groups to access effective protection programmes (DHHS 2001).

In terms of an overall risk management framework, poverty is but one of many factors affecting vulnerable children. However, it is a factor that often has strong and complex correlations which could be effectively influenced by systemic policy interventions. The main idea behind social risk management typology, which is widely used in the EAP region, is that all individuals, households, and communities are exposed to multiple risks from different sources, and that poorer adults and children are often more vulnerable than other population groups because they are typically more exposed to risk and have little access to appropriate social care risk management instruments. Although, as discussed above, child protection risks are often profound in all income categories, policies to reduce covariate social risks such as poverty prove to be of direct and significant importance to many of the child protection outcomes. In terms of a social risk management framework, such policies and measures could be classified as elements of child protection systems which address risks based on possible covariations between them. As such, they fall under the categories of promotional measures and preventative measures, which aim to reduce or mitigate packages of covariate risks *ex ante* (more details on the social risk management framework are provided in Box 2).

Social risk management typology links child protection closely with social protection systems, as was recognized by UNICEF. The aim of addressing as many covariate risks as possible at the earliest possible stage makes the case for close policy coordination between child protection and social protection systems operational in each society. The importance of structural and systemic links between child protection measures and social protection have been highlighted by numerous programmatic documents produced by UNICEF and its partners, such as the 2003 UNICEF Protective Environment Framework (PEF), the Global Strategy for Child Protection (2008–2018) (UNICEF 2008), and the UNCED Social Protection Floor. In particular, the Global Strategy:

- Stated that child protection comprises the set of laws, policies, regulations and services needed across all social sectors – especially social welfare, education, health, security and justice to support prevention and respond to protection-related risks;
- Acknowledged that child protection systems are part of social protection, and extend beyond it;
- Emphasized that social protection reform should contribute to the achievement of child protection outcomes.

The UNICEF EAPRO strategy on child protection (UNICEF EAPRO 2007) elaborates on UNICEF's global strategy and articulates a vision for strengthening broad-based prevention and response systems, which is relevant for building structural linkages to social protection, albeit with a distinct focus on child protection outcomes. This guidance is elaborated in the EAPRO Child Protection Toolkit (UNICEF EAPRO 2009), which builds on the systems approach and focuses, among other priorities, on prevention of problems. The framework delineated in the EAPRO strategy and the accompanying toolkit explicitly highlight the inter-relationship between children's rights, child protection and child well-being and cover a range of idiosyncratic and covariate risks that children are exposed to.

Social protection is generally understood as a set of public actions that address poverty, vulnerability and exclusion as well as provide means to cope with life's major risks throughout the life cycle. Social protection can increase the effectiveness of investments in health, education, and water and sanitation as part of an essential package of services. Broadly speaking, social protection consists of cash and non-cash benefits (the latter include in-kind provisions of goods and services). Typically, the largest social protection programmes are the contributory, social insurance programmes, like old age pensions, disability and unemployment benefits. The non-contributory programmes include the child-conditioned child and family allowances, and largely universal, flat-rate benefits that are predominantly means-tested, targeted on the poor, and play a residual role in the social protection system.

The recent global trend is to recognize child protection as an explicit concern of any social protection system, and this trend has strong champions in the EAP region. Child protection is not always explicitly recognized as an important concern of social protection systems. In contrast to the definitions of social protection offered by the ILO, OECD and World Bank, the Asian Development Bank (ADB) provides a regional perspective for the EAP region and incorporates some distinctive elements in its definition of social protection. Not only does it include "the set of policies and programmes designed to reduce poverty and vulnerability by promoting efficient labour markets, diminishing people's exposure to risks, and enhancing their capacity to protect themselves against hazards and interruptions/loss of income," Asian Development Bank 2000, but its definition goes beyond the traditional risks and social insurance policy responses. It includes social assistance, micro and community-based social service programmes, and child protection. The point is made that although labour market and employment-related benefits and social insurance are included in every social security system throughout the world, social assistance, social services and child protection are not so consistently included. However, the recent joint statement on child sensitive social protection – issued by intergovernmental organizations (including UNICEF), international financial institutions, bilateral donors and NGOs – classifies child protection measures as an integral part of social protection, DFID, HelpAge International, Hope & Homes for Children, Institute of Development Studies, International Labour Organization, Overseas Development Institute, Save the Children UK, UNDP, UNICEF and the World Bank 2009.

Box 2. Social risk management: Social protection and child protection

The main concept behind social risk management is that all individuals, households, and communities are exposed to multiple risks from different sources, and that poor adults and children are more vulnerable than other population groups because they are typically more exposed to risk and have little access to appropriate social care risk management instruments such as:

- **Promotional Measures** that focus on risk reduction: ex ante, which include the provision of **information** and **advice** to individuals, children, families and communities which is designed to overcome poor understanding of different types of risk and their probability. Examples include: linking and referring individuals and groups to relevant services – such as health, education, social welfare services, community support groups, and cash transfers; changing public attitudes to particular groups and individuals; needs assessment and implementation of action plans for support; communication and mass media programmes to promote awareness of risks and measures for their mitigation or avoidance such as drug and substance abuse, trafficking of children, FMG, safer sex and avoidance of HIV/AIDs.
 - **Preventive Measures** that focus on risk mitigation: ex ante, which include the provision of **community-based services** which are provided in people's homes, or in non-residential settings. Examples include home-based care, early childhood education, day-care services for children with disabilities – including palliative care; community-based rehabilitation for children with disabilities; guardianship, fostering and adoption of children; drop-in centres for homeless children; drug rehabilitation centres; diversion and alternatives to custodial sentences.
 - **Protective Measures** that focus on risk coping: ex post, which include the provision of **residential services** for: children without primary care givers or when informal care arrangements break down; children with physical and learning disabilities; children with mental health problems when they are at risk of endangering themselves and/or others; and custodial sentences for children when they have committed serious offences, and services for their reintegration into society.
-

How to capture complex linkages between child protection and broader systems: Focusing on 'what matters'

Child protection policies are made in such complex environments that policy makers need to focus on 'measuring what matters'. Governance systems to promote and protect children's rights and to measure the effectiveness of child protection and monitor child well-being encompass a broad range of formal and informal actors, all of which are so inextricably linked that policies designed to affect any one of them invariably impact the others as well. Effective policy making cannot therefore take place in an information vacuum. Policy makers must have access to and consistently utilize reliable, pertinent, and integrated information on children's rights, child protection and child well-being in order to evaluate the criticality of any given problem; support informed priority setting and policy development; monitor the effectiveness of existing and proposed policies; and build and strengthen public support for those measures. This requires grappling with the question of how best to **'measure what matters'**. More specifically, the development of indicators has to be linked to policy making for four major purposes:

- To evaluate the seriousness of child protection problems;
- To support priority setting and policy development
- To monitor the effectiveness of governance systems for policy; and
- To strengthen public support for policy measures

A significant challenge for measuring what matters for children's rights, child protection and child well-being is that children remain largely invisible in debates about how countries are governed.

For example, the rights and needs of children are not included in UNDP user guide on measuring public administration performance (UNDP 2009), and the World Bank's World Governance Indicators (WGI) do not appear to take into account the status of children and the risks posed by weak systems of governance. The root causes of the gap between the production of child protection-related information and its uptake and use for governance and policy making can be linked to:

- Prevalence rates of particular acts of commission and omission that fall under the realm of child protection (such as child trafficking, child labour, child abuse) are subject to the inherent problems of collecting information and the measurement of hidden crimes. This can make it too difficult or costly to determine prevalence rates or for assessing the efficiency and effectiveness of different measures for providing child protection⁹;
- Information salient to child protection is often spread across many ministries, departments and administrative/territorial units (e.g. health, justice, immigration, social welfare, education and tiers of SN governments) or contracted out to NGOs. Consequently, the responsibility for developing and reporting on various aspects of child protection information is often equally fragmented. This is compounded by weak statistical and management information systems;
- Roles and responsibilities for coordinating child protection indicator information and working with policy makers is not usually positioned at a sufficiently high level in the government hierarchy to ensure the cooperation of policy and decision makers in all departments and agencies. Without this level of cooperation and coordination, child indicator information cannot be as effectively incorporated into the strategic policy process to the degree that it needs to be¹⁰;

9 The prevalence of crime is not, for example, a traditional indicator for assessing the efficiency and effectiveness of criminal justice systems.

10 This is in stark contrast to longstanding systems and protocols for coordinating and incorporating economic indicator information into strategic policy processes.

- Changing governments, political priorities and bureaucratic leadership often results in sweeping reorganizations, reassignment of key personnel and funding reallocations. Since the stewardship of information on child protection is rarely seen as one of the core programme functions of any single department, it is particularly prone to frequent disruptive changes. Such changes are fundamentally dysfunctional because indicator information requires long-term, consistent baselines to be at all meaningful. Moreover, in the absence of explicit legislative mandates to the contrary, line departments are often inhibited in reporting on matters that may result in media and public attention that may be construed as having a potentially negative impact on the standing of the government of the day;
- Injecting indicator information into a policy system from the outside has a chequered history and does not tend to work very well. Outsiders trying to inject new ideas or information typically appear to find both processes difficult to break into and, even if they succeed, set patterns of thinking and operating may limit up-take by policy makers. Indicators therefore need to flow out of the policy transformation process as the policy makers identify what their information needs are within the context of the policy system and policy priorities. The critical success factor for most indicator-driven policy processes is its integration into annual or multi-annual budgetary cycles. Indicators are only truly meaningful (and hence valued) when the information that they provide is used to determine where funding or public administration reforms can best be applied to achieve measurable changes that are linked to outcomes for children’s well-being.

This Indicator Framework is constructed with an attempt to capture broad-based structural causes of child protection violations within adjacent governance domains, including social protection measures (Domain 5). Such information in this concise and standardized format should make it possible for policy makers across government departments, sector ministries and non-state actors to incorporate child protection dimensions into related policy initiatives. It should also allow child protection stakeholders including related ministries, to more effectively voice child protection concerns in the dialogue on broader matters such as the allocation of public funds, human resources management policies or information management, as well as the design and implementation of social protection frameworks.

Annex 2. Importance and difficulties of assessing the policy basis of a country's budgeting for child protection

Why is policy-based budgeting important for effective child protection?

Policy-based budgeting helps governments to use their budgets as a means for achieving policies: that is, to implement strategic goals in an efficient and financially realistic way. Implementation of complex, multiyear and cross-cutting government policies requires any government to inter-relate a large number of financial and institutional constraints. Achieving this requires a special approach to management of public funds, which should be, at one and the same time, strategic, efficient, and realistic. Policy-based budgeting integrates a number of budgeting tools, which allow to link together indicators of policy costs, benefits, and macro-fiscal sustainability in the medium term. It unites budgeting techniques which start at the level of long-term macroeconomic constraints and cover all levels of resource allocation all the way down to provision of individual services. Combined, these tools ensure that government activities are affordable (stay within collected revenues), correspond to agreed policy priorities, and achieve the highest value at a minimum cost to taxpayers.

In other words, this budgeting approach is intrinsic to strategic policy making, which is still lacking in many EAP countries. The budgeting tradition in some countries of the region is often a direct opposite to the policy-based approach: resources are allocated without consideration of hard budget constraints (including macro-fiscal, inter-sectoral or intergovernmental constraints), based on already existing ways of spending (rather than on strategic goals), and without considering achieved value for money spent.

Fiscally responsible, results-oriented budgeting is, by definition, a compulsory requirement for the efficient delivery of public services in any sector, including for implementing reforms in delivery of child protection services. Any efficient public service delivery programme – including programmes of change in the ways services are delivered – requires a results-oriented budgeting platform (Joshua, Assessment of Public Expenditure Management: Developing a Technical Framework for the Financial Reform of Social Services 2006):

- **A fiscal commitment (resource envelope)**, sustainable in a mid-term perspective (resources secured for a sufficient period of time);
- (including measurable and verifiable indicators of success); and
- **An approach to maximize value delivered for the money spent** (including ways to detect public preferences, to compare benefits to costs, and to select the most efficient policy scenarios).

Changing childcare to make it serve the genuine interests of children, in the best available and most affordable way, is impossible without allocating resources based on the logic described above. Without policy-based logic behind the budget, any change will either be inert and path-dependant (spending on existing services rather than anything new), fail to react to a child's best interest (ignoring the assessment of value), inefficient (choosing the wrong value-for-money option), or unaffordable; or a combination of the above.

Moreover, it is usually critical to extend the policy-based budgeting platform to cover more than just one year, especially if policies imply significant expenditure reforms, because of (Ljungman 2007):

- **Time lags.** Implementing policy decisions usually takes time. Multiyear expenditure projections help to detect processes which require intervention in the early stages, thus allowing for timely policy revisions.
- **Delayed effects.** Multiyear expenditure forecasting helps to predict and analyse deferred effects of policy decisions, e.g. the fiscal impact of long-term investment programmes or changes in programmes such as cash transfers (which have long-term behavioural effects and also depend on longer-term changes in sizes of entitled categories).
- **Time scope for reallocation of funds.** Announcing plans for reallocation of expenditures early on could support difficult reforms. A multiyear forecast is usually a more flexible policy instrument than an annual budget, making it easier to introduce changes that affect the allocation of public funds.

Policies and reforms which are sector-wide or cross-sectoral (such as policies for child protection) are especially dependent on strategic budgeting tools. Introducing change to public policies, which cut across responsibilities of individual spending units or even across central ministries, is the most demanding institutional and budgeting task. It is by definition impossible to succeed in a cross-sector task without specifying what exact results of activities of individual spending units would be required for a joint overarching policy objective. If, on top of effectiveness, these policies should be cost-efficient and long term, they also require routine mechanisms for public value delivery and the respect of a medium-term fiscal framework.

Reforms in the provision of child protection are an example of a widely cross-sectoral public expenditure policy. Administrative, financial and regulatory responsibilities for social services to children are usually dispersed through a number of authorities, representing various traditional public sectors. These sectors usually include, at the very least: education, healthcare, social protection and welfare, justice, and family and youth affairs. Quite often this problem is compounded when providers of services belong to fragmented vertical accountability lines and fragmented funding flows. In view of this problem, tools for sector-wide policy making are especially important for reforming and implementing policies in this difficult sector.

What is the essence of policy-based budgeting?

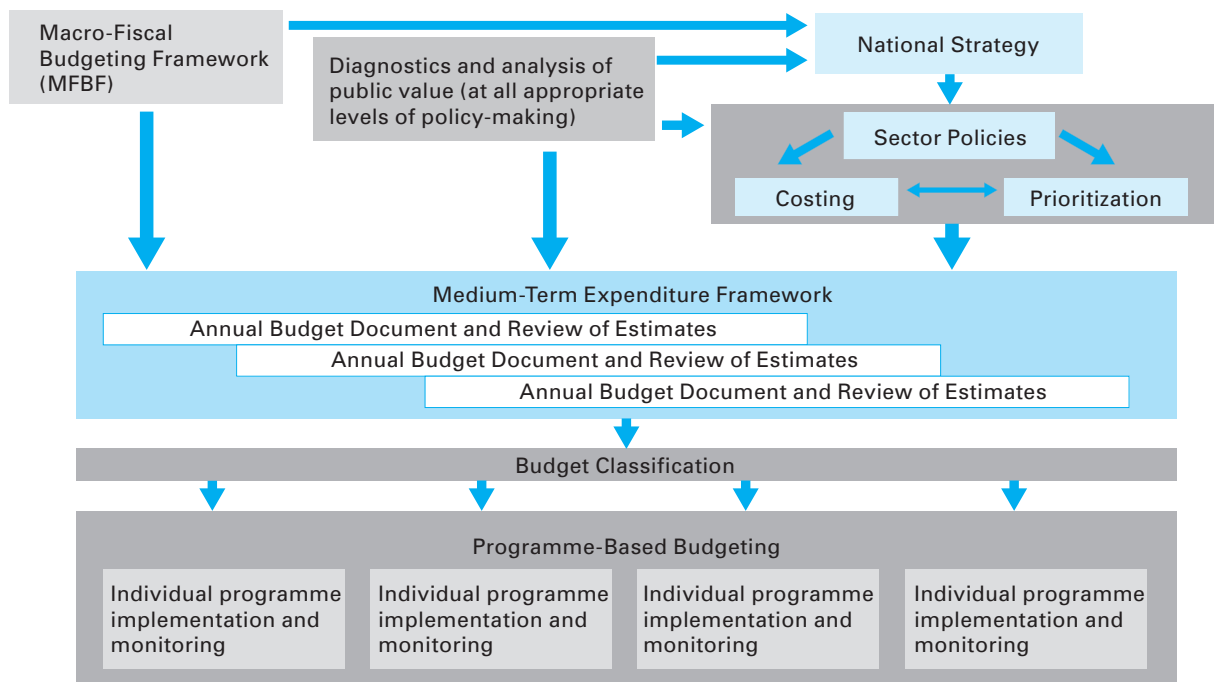
Neither policy budgeting, nor any of its individual tools, possess strict, universally accepted definitions or methodologies: they represent a system of broad principles which help to link policies to budgets. Countries all over the world, including OECD countries, name these instruments differently and implement them according to their individual political, institutional and administrative contexts. What matters in policy budgeting is the essential idea of a political consensus and commitment to choices of how to reconcile strategic goals with limited funding opportunities (Petkova 2009).

At the heart of this exercise is the medium-term expenditure framework (MTEF). Figure 5 below illustrates the traditional logic of how policy budgeting usually works. In essence, the MTEF represents a dialogue between all stakeholders, which should lead to agreement on how, based on the current macro-fiscal forecast (potentially available funds) and current government policies (jointly for the economy and for individual sectors), limited resources should be allocated across individual spending programmes. Ideally, this agreement – the MTEF, reviewed annually within

annual budget laws – creates a platform for classifying, and then implementing and monitoring further spending based on individual results-oriented programmes.

The MTEF is a macro-level tool which creates a platform for negotiating sector spending ceilings based on already existing (previously designed) sector-level policies. The primary function of the MTEF is to coordinate the resource requests of various sectors competing for funds within a limited macro-fiscal envelope. Policy-based budgeting – and MTEF in particular – originates from advanced OECD economies (notably the UK, Australia and New Zealand), who invented them as a way to eliminate growing fiscal deficits in the late 1980s/early 1990s (Petkova 2009). At the time, one of the key issues these instruments had to address was irresponsible expenditure bids routinely submitted by individual sectors in the process of budget negotiations. The new policy-budgeting philosophy increased the extent of top-down budgeting in the process of these negotiations: finance ministries started to impose harder top-down expenditure constraints (consistent with macroeconomic projections) on levels of sector spending, leaving it to the individual ministries to prioritize within their sectors to make sure the constraints were met. In other words, these tools represented a way to enhance fiscal discipline and to share the sense of responsibility for affordability of spending with the sector representatives. It moves hard budget constraints away from the central financial authorities and onto the shoulders of sector policy makers.

Figure 5. The logic of policy-based budgeting



All OECD countries use some form of multiyear policy-based budgeting framework. They are the same in principle but vary significantly in legal and methodological details. To understand the essence of policy-based budgeting, it is helpful to look at the differences between various forms of advanced multiyear fiscal frameworks and analyse why the variables are insignificant to the philosophy of the MTEF. Understanding these differences should also help countries which start implementing an MTEF avoid selecting any of these non-essential technical aspects as the key target for their MTEF reforms and to focus on the essence instead.

- **Legal enforcement and link to approved budget documents.** The core function of the multiyear fiscal frameworks is to improve the quality of annual budgeting. How governments ensure that their multiyear fiscal projections influence annual budgets varies among countries. Only in very few countries are multiyear estimates actually approved by parliaments; in most cases they are attached to approved annual budgets and revised on an annual basis. In most cases, even where submission of such estimates is required by law, the actual incorporation of this information is a result of policy-making tradition rather than a formalistic legal feature. For example, in Sweden, the budget approved by the parliament is still annual, and a multiyear forecasting framework is used to strengthen annual budgets. Attached to each appropriation is an explanation of its purpose and expected results, and also additional information showing how it is likely to develop in the next two years (Ljungman 2007). On the other hand, as will be discussed later, many (developing and transition) countries which require an MTEF by law find that it has very weak relevance to the actual budgeting process and to real resource allocations in any given year. It is also noteworthy that multiyear frameworking is sometimes referred to as a ‘Commonwealth approach to budgeting’, indicating the especially advanced level of instrument usage in these countries. Significantly, most of these countries have legal traditions rooted in common law, which is more conducive to policy making based on consensus and dialogue than on law enforcement.
- **Match point between top-down and bottom-up budgeting.** As already discussed, the central task of an MTEF is to agree on conflicted budget ceilings and to fix agreed ceilings with a medium-term perspective. It is up to a country to define where in the chain of vertical expenditure administration the hard budget constraints of an agreed ceiling will be located, and what flexibility this level of administration will have in later re-allocation of resources within their agreed envelope. Usually for OECD countries, these ceilings are defined for individual sectors, represented by respective major spending units – usually sector ministries. However, the key point is the division of responsibility, and the fixation of hard budget constraints at a certain level.

It is not difficult for any spending unit to estimate its expenditures for a number of years forward; the difficult part is commitment perseverance. In transition countries, many MTEFs are generous in numbers, containing estimates at the sectoral as well as intra-sectoral level, and have been criticized for trading substance (consensus) for numbers. Although they make medium-term estimates, these estimates tend to change very quickly (e.g. in Ukraine, this happens usually during the first submission of the annual budget for parliamentary consideration) (Ministry of Finance of Ukraine, Main Department of the Civil Service of Ukraine 2006). Box 3 below provides an example of an MTEF from the Kyrgyz Republic. It illustrates this problem: on the one hand, expenditure estimates are defined at the sectoral level (in this case, education), but on the other hand it also has a great deal of detail at the intra-sectoral level. Referring specifically to, for example, services for children without parental care, the key idea of the MTEF is to select an administrative level, such as the ministry of education, which would be responsible for keeping its spending within the ceiling agreed with the higher level. It would also include that administrative authority taking responsibility for reallocating resources within its domain, if necessary (e.g. cutting some providers and expanding funds to others). Too much detail in an MTEF (e.g. exactly how much is to be spent on each type of provider) could be, in some cases, excessive, because it discriminates this commitment (the spending agent has to remain free to reallocate between providers so that it stays within its agreed resource envelope).

- **Coverage of decentralized expenditure programmes.** It is typically difficult for a complex tool like an MTEF to cover decentralized aspects of public service provision. In most cases, MTEFs are limited to central-level budgets (although they can cover transfer allocations to sub-national budgets). Some of the MTEF champion countries are federal countries, which allows them to have autonomous sub-national MTEFs at the level of states (like in Australia). One exception to this rule is South Africa, whose MTEF covers all levels of budgets (central, regional and local) (Petkova 2009). This current limitation of MTEFs is critical for child-care reform since public programmes for children are usually funded through decentralized expenditure programmes. Moreover, there are various modalities of decentralization in services for child protection, which means that central budgets can capture decentralized spending in very different ways, ranging from earmarked transfers for concrete services (when local autonomy is weak) to block equalization transfers which cover several large sectors (when local autonomy is stronger). Thus the role of central MTEFs for child-care services can vary greatly, depending on the type of decentralization arrangement in any given country.

One example to illustrate this could be Ukraine, where responsibilities for child protection are fragmented between all levels of governments. In this case, a multiyear budget framework at the central level would still be very useful for providing an overall picture of what central ministries will spend and what will be available to sub-national governments in the form of block grants. However, **comprehensive** multiyear planning for child care, for example with a view to designing reforms, would require a complex co-operation arrangement between central and sub-national governments where they could agree on future plans – something which lies beyond the scope of an MTEF. In Ukraine, the first attempt at such long-term coordination is visible in the area of regional development, where the Ministry of Economy has started to sign contracts with certain regions, based on agreed action strategies at all levels, and agreed funding flows for these activities.

- **Time coverage and revision cycles.** Multiyear expenditure frameworks can cover two to five years (typically, they are three years) and can be either rolling or periodic. Rolling frameworks mean that every cycle overlaps with the previous and subsequent cycle by one or two years, while periodic frameworks do not overlap. However, both types of MTEFs can be revised during implementation. In other words, it does not matter how many years an MTEF covers in terms of child care expenditures and how often a government chooses to revise it. What matters is the decision to agree on spending priorities in a multiyear framework and to keep these estimates updated on a periodic basis.

Box 3. Example of expenditures for education in 2008–2010 MTEF of Kyrgyz Republic

The 2008–2010 MTEF of the Kyrgyz Republic is focused on defining and explaining expenditure ceilings at the level of key sectors, based on the priorities identified in the country's Development Strategy: *"In (the MTEF table), cumulative expenditures of the state budget of the Kyrgyz Republic by sectors for 2008-2010 are broken down by basic sections of state expenditures within the priorities defined in the Country Development Strategy. (...) The arguments of sectoral strategies for financing of priority programs were regarded in the process of defining the mid-term sectoral ceilings. It is necessary to strengthen work in sectors on further prioritisation of programs with a view to more exact planning and increasing the efficiency of budgetary expenditures."*

One strategic priority is Education, which this box discusses as an example:

MTEF 2008–2010 keeps strategic priorities of the Government of the Kyrgyz Republic: Increase education expenditure's share of GDP to ensure the availability of, and equal opportunity for all categories of the population to receive, a quality education. At the same time, to improve education efficiency for the purpose of budgetary savings.

The MTEF further explains that its (increased) ceiling for education assumes that these funds will be spent according to a sector strategy, and will achieve several strategic objectives through administration of eight vertical budget programmes. This box proposes a table which summarizes this part of the original MTEF. The document itself explains the nature of each programme and whether it would represent a relative priority for funding in future years. However, these expectations remain secondary within the aggregate ceiling for education, which remains the key focus of the MTEF.

Development programmes forming the basis of a sectoral strategy for education financing for 2008–2010 are built within the basic regulations of the Mid-term Strategy of Financing Education in the Kyrgyz Republic approved by the Governmental Decree of the Kyrgyz Republic of December 28, 2006.

Vertical budget programmes	Pre-school	Primary and secondary	Extra-curriculum	Vocational	Higher	Methodology and support services	Management and admin	Other (vulnerable categories)
Strategies within sector								
Overall level of priority for funding	Not a priority (expect support from off-budget sources)	Priority for funding	Not a priority for funding; try to save here and redirect funds to rural schools.	Reduction in funding based on new funding methods	Economy of funds expected to fund larger grant schemes for vulnerable students – overall size maintained	Funding level to be maintained	Funding level to be maintained	Funding level to be maintained
Accessibility and quality		X		X	X			
Preservation and development of institutions network	X	X					X	X
New funding tools (capitation, min. standards).	X	X	X	X	X		X	
Technical improvement (more efficient methodologies, curricula, programmes)	X	X				X	X	

Effective multiyear expenditure framework requires effective policy costing. To enable these negotiations, the MTEF requires all participating sectors to prepare comprehensive sector-level analysis of their policy priorities, which should also be comprehensively costed. These estimates allow the wider government to agree on overall prioritization of expenditures, as well as on ways to

address cross-sectoral policies and issues. The outcome of an MTEF is a set of expenditure ceilings for all sectors for a multiple number of years, with a possibility of annual revision in the future.

Performance budgeting – and programme-budgeting in particular – help to ensure policies are effective and efficient. As described above, paying for results in public service delivery – or results-oriented budgeting – is a system-wide philosophy of policy making at all levels. It combines macro-level tools (like ceilings for costed policies in the MTEF) with micro-level tools for actual delivery of those policies. In particular, breaking policies down into individual, efficiently managed programmes is known as ‘programme budgeting’. In other words, programme budgeting is an element of performance budgeting which allows for the implementation of sector-level and cross-sectoral policies through a tangible number of strategic and efficient programmes.

‘Performance budgeting’ is different from ‘line-item budgeting’ because it transforms the notion of an ‘item’ in the budget classification from automatic dispersal of funds against approved lines to a ‘programme’, which is managed strategically and efficiently.

Programme budgeting is a dimension of the MTEF since it is a vehicle which ensures policy priorities agreed at the macro level are formulated as service results and that they would be achieved at the lowest possible cost. It makes it easier to understand what should be done within each programme and how it could be measured, and provides programme managers with stronger administrative tools to deliver results.

OECD countries have different ways of structuring budgets through programmes. For example, in the Netherlands, the budgets of individual sector ministries are broken down into ‘policy articles’ (Petkova 2009).

Although MTEFs and related budgeting tools are common to OECD countries and are actively promoted in other parts of the world, even advanced economies have had mixed success with their implementation. Policy-based, multiyear budgeting remains at the forefront of PFM development in all countries, including in more advanced Western economies. OECD countries assess their own success in implementing these tools as mixed (Independent Evaluation Group (IEG), The World Bank Group 2008). The reasons why multiyear results-oriented budgeting is difficult for advanced countries, as well as for countries in transition, include:

- High vertical and horizontal complexity of individual sectors, and multiple cross-linkages between sectors, which makes it difficult to accurately predict, negotiate and coordinate sector-wide ceilings;
- Tendencies for over-optimistic macroeconomic assumptions; and
- Tendencies of individual sector agencies to prepare their budgets ‘bottom up’, which conflicts with agreed MTEF ceilings.

Are MTEFs enough?

Using MTEFs well requires understanding their frequent weaknesses and limitations. This section explains the key specific features of policy-based budgeting reforms pursued in developing and transition countries on the basis of internationally promoted toolkits. Understanding these special features should help the reform stakeholders in these countries to clarify expectations for these budgeting tools and to improve the way they are currently used for reforms in public policies, including policies for children.

■ **Issues with strategies (including policy strategies) on which the budgeting package is based.**

The backbone of this resource allocation process is the government's central programmatic document(s), which establish(es) social and economic development priorities for the country in general.

- **Level of complexity.** The nature of central programmatic platforms across countries differs depending on their political systems and administrative capacity. Respectively, these platforms have different degrees of complexity. More advanced democracies tend to have more complex development strategies, normally represented by entire systems of various policies developed through political consultations. An example of one such policy is the UK policy for reduction of child poverty (Minoff 2006), (Tomlinson 2009). Countries which transit towards policy budgeting from a planned economy tend to have weak strategizing capacities. Most MTEFs in developing and transition countries tend to have anchors in generalistic programmatic documents which rarely capture the political, administrative and institutional complexity of their proposed reforms.
- **Local political ownership.** The central idea of an MTEF – and policy-based budgeting overall – is committed political consensus. This is also the most difficult task for any country, especially young democracies in economic and social transition. In less advanced countries most MTEFs, even where required by approved national legislation (e.g. budget codes etc), tend to at least start off as parallel documents to real parliamentary debates on political and expenditure priorities, which sidelines the role of the national legislature in the resource allocation process.
- **Supranational commitments.** For any country, a government's central programmatic document, or strategy, is usually a combination of various factors, and often acknowledges supranational drivers of change and the government's international commitments. One example of supranational commitments with fiscal implications from the more advanced EU countries is the *Stability and Growth Pact*, which requires all members to keep their annual budget deficits below 3 per cent of GDP, and their debt to GDP ratio below 60 per cent. However, this external influence has been especially strong within the strategies accepted as 'anchors' for MTEF-centred policy-budgeting toolkits in transition countries. Possible reasons for this were weak national systems for setting strategic goals combined with financial leverage attached to aid flows from development organizations. As a result, most government strategies which lie behind transition MTEFs are usually strongly influenced by the international development agenda including Millennium Development Goals and Poverty Reduction.

■ **Focus on central budget (typical especially for MTEFs), with risks of overlooking key issues for social services.**

As discussed above, the MTEF is a highly technically demanding tool, which makes it difficult to apply to more than one level of government – even in advanced OECD economies. In many countries social expenditures, including programmes for child protection, tend to be administered through complex multi-layer intergovernmental systems, usually through delegation or de-concentration of related allocations to sub-national budgets. Therefore, planning instruments which focus on the central budget either entirely overlook an overwhelming portion of these expenditures or treat them in overly simplistic ways which nullifies the value of the exercise (e.g. without ensuring the commitment of all stakeholders, realistic policy costing, etc).

- **Lack of attention (or entire omission) on the analysis of public value.** Figure 5 shows that one of the three pillars of policy-based budgeting is maximization of public value: making sure that policies are not only realistic and strategic, but also directed at what taxpayers – or clients – would value most at respective costs.

This part of policy making is easy to confuse with setting strategic policy goals. After all, at least in theory, governments are supposed to represent people and choose strategic goals in people’s interest. However, any policy usually faces a number of trade-offs, and selecting the optimal option is a matter of public choice. In expenditure management, understanding this choice usually requires more frequent (actually, constant) technical analysis of public value than just a periodic vote for a given government’s platform. In other words, at all levels of service provision, respective stakeholders have to use appropriate tools for mapping the preferences of clients, identifying marginal costs of these preferences, and designing a menu of service options which satisfies these preferences at lowest cost.

The simplified policy-budgeting toolkits typically suffer from very weak attention to this element of policy making. Analysis of public value is primarily an internal political task, while budgeting reforms often originated from the focus of international development agencies on their respective strategic agendas rather than on the internal political processes in countries. Understanding the complexities of public choice in recipient countries was therefore less of a priority compared to designing budgeting systems which best served the strategic values of these international agendas.

- **Excessive standardization – therefore bound to be too simplistic and less attentive to country context.** As often happens with prêt-a-porter reform packages, MTEFs often fall victim to implementation at the cost of acknowledging local contexts.

- **(Low) degree of integration into national budget cycles.** While most countries have introduced MTEFs as legal requirements in their budget legislation and it is normal for them to be analytical rather than legally binding tools, in many transition countries this instrument is still excessively detached from real processes for resource allocation. According to the 2008 IEG evaluation of the WB’s public sector and public financial management reforms (Independent Evaluation Group (IEG), The World Bank Group 2008), in a majority of developing countries the MTEF and programme budgeting systems are parallel to domestic budget cycles:

“Program budgeting is still considered separately from the real budget preparation, however; there is little time devoted to substance; performance indicators focus on outputs rather than outcomes; and program managers are not accountable for results. In addition, budget execution does not take place on a programmatic basis, which reinforces the view that the program budget is not the real budget. Even where MTEFs are proving useful, a less-detailed and more strategic planning exercise might serve the purpose better.”

- **Frequent focus on the budget commitment of donors rather than domestic stakeholders.** According to the WB assessment, MTEFs in developing countries often served, to a large extent, to coordinate the financial commitments of international donors. This observation underlines the difficulty of using some of the existing MTEFs as credible tools for ensuring the political and fiscal commitment of spending units to their spending and policy targets.

Summary: how to use policy budgeting to achieve the best results for children

- **Without proper integration of budgeting tools (including multiyear budgeting) into the local institutional context, no policy for children will ever bring tangible results.** The progress of countries in introducing policy-based budgeting was weak where new instruments were introduced without sufficient analysis of, and integration into, local institutional systems. The standardized MTEF package is intrinsically weak in capturing the complexity of these systems, and at the same time, this context is too complex for any simplified budgeting approach to work well.
- **Effective policy-based budgeting for reforms in services for children should be linked to the country's system of intergovernmental relations.** It is impossible to design a successful child protection reform without understanding – and acknowledging – the way expenditure and policy responsibilities are divided across levels of government. Since child care responsibilities are often to some extent decentralized, related reforms should understand existing decentralization arrangements and, ideally, reform them to achieve necessary policy change.
- **Using policy-based budgeting for children (including the MTEF) in a locally integrated way requires investment in institutional diagnostics and analysis of public value trade-offs.** Setting strategic policy goals should be combined with constant diagnostic analysis of what is best for the children. These choices might not always be as straightforward as they seem. A policy maker might have certain overall strategic goals (for example making sure that, all other things being equal, children have an opportunity to access care which is close to a family setting). However, no policy maker can know what the concrete needs of children in every community are, and what is the share of children requiring specific professional or medical assistance, or specific legal support etc. Such specific needs and levels of dependency on additional social support vary across populations, across various categories of vulnerable children, and across communities, regions, countries, and cultures. Reforms should work on introducing concrete tools which can be applied to best satisfy these choices. These include various forms of social commissioning (when a state purchaser represents the interests of the child, assesses the child's needs and commissions appropriate services on a competitive basis) and the 'Balance of Service Provision' model, when a policy maker at any given tier of government allocates its resource envelope across a balanced menu of services, depending on the composition of needs among children in a community, and on the marginal costs and benefits of these services.
- **Institutional obstacles to reallocation of resources during reforms are deeper than traditional inter-ministerial rivalry.** Shifting approaches in child protection (for example introducing innovative services on top of residential options) can lead to difficult but unavoidable managerial decisions about shifting responsibilities and funds between ministries. Reallocating funds between spending units, and cutting some of them thin, is never easy. But the bad news for children does not stop there. Spending public funds to get results, not reports, is such a dramatic change in the ways policies are made in many countries that it requires a principle change in most roles and relations: those of international donors and recipient governments, executives and legislators, financial and sector authorities, and state and non-state actors. Changing these roles is sometimes even more difficult to achieve – and more difficult to admit – than the task of cutting a budget line for a ministry or a residential home. Perhaps this is one reason why these other institutional challenges are so often neglected.

Annex 3. Proposed list of UN Conventions salient to children's rights*

Major UN Conventions with implications for the protection of children's rights which are being ratified by governments across the EAP region:	
Forced Labour Convention (1932)	C29
Migration for Employment Convention (1952)	C97
Convention relating to the Status of Refugees (1954)	
Abolition of Forced Labour Convention (1959)	C105
Convention relating to the Status of Stateless Persons (1960)	
International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (1969)	CERD
International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1976)	
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1976)	
Minimum Age Convention (1976)	C138
ILO Convention concerning Migration in Abusive Conditions and the Promotion of Equality of Opportunity and Treatment of Migrant Workers (1978)	C143
Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979)	CEDAW
Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (1987)	CAT
Convention on the Rights of the Child (1990)	CRC
Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (1990)	CMW
Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention (1991)	C169
Hague Convention on Intercountry Adoption (1995)	
Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention (2000)	C182
Optional Protocol to the CRC on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography (2002)	
Optional Protocol to the CRC on the involvement of children in armed conflict (2002)	
Convention against Transnational Organised Crime (2003)	
Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (2003)	
Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2008)	CPRD

* This list is based on the [Legal and Policy Framework Matrix](#) described in the 2009 UNICEF EAPRO report '[Reversing the Trend: Child Trafficking in East and South-East Asia](#)', on the suggestion of UNICEF Lao PDR.

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Annex 5. Child protection indicators: Complete framework

	Indicator	Benchmark	Standard
1. Child protection policy framework			
1.1	Ratification of relevant UN conventions salient to children's rights	Number of conventions ratified	A. All B. 70–99% C. 50–69% D. Less than 49%
1.2	Domestic mechanisms to give effect to international instruments ratified by the country	The country's legislative framework provides for the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The country's constitution contains provisions on child rights, consistent with CRC and other global and regional covenants and instruments; • The government has a national child protection policy statement or national framework document; • The government has prepared and/or adopted national plans of action on specific child protection issues such as the elimination of violence or the worst forms of child labour, the commercial exploitation of children, and the care and protection of orphans and vulnerable children; • Key Child protection definitions and processes are sufficiently specified, precise, and supported by guidelines for implementation at relevant sub-national levels. A mechanism is in place to eliminate any of the existing legal inconsistencies and fragmentation. 	A. Legislative framework is consistent with all of the benchmark criteria; B. Legislative framework is consistent with at least three of the benchmark criteria; C. Legislative framework is consistent with at least two of the benchmark criteria; D. Legislative framework is consistent with one or less of the benchmark criteria.
1.3	Extent of policy coordination for child protection	Availability and effectiveness of policy coordination structures: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There is a parliamentary or other oversight body on child protection which has a clearly defined mandate and meets regularly; • There is an inter-ministerial mechanism that coordinates child protection activities, which has a clearly defined mandate, meets regularly and is attended by senior officials; • There are sub-national bodies which coordinate child protection policies or activities and which meet regularly; • There is a coordination mechanism to effectively engage international development agencies in child protection, which has a clear set of objectives related to child protection and meets regularly. 	A. Policy coordination for Child protection is consistent with all of the benchmark criteria; B. Policy coordination for Child protection is consistent with at least three of the benchmark criteria; C. Policy coordination for Child protection is consistent with at least two of the benchmark criteria; D. Policy coordination for Child protection is consistent with one or less of the benchmark criteria.

	Indicator	Benchmark	Standard
1. Child protection policy framework (continued)			
1.4	Consistency of policy guidelines across levels of government	Key national policies for child protection are supported by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Regular consultations with sub-national stakeholders engaged in policy implementation; Respective sub-national legislation (where this is applicable in the context of the country's decentralization setting); Clear and well-defined communication, instructions and guidelines of national policies and legislation to other tiers of government. 	<p>A. Interface between national and sub-national measures in Child protection include all of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>B. Interface between national and sub-national measures in Child protection include two of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>C. Interface between national and sub-national measures in Child protection include one of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>D. Interface between national and sub-national measures in Child protection include none of the benchmark criteria.</p>
1.5	Active role of civil society for child protection	Ratio of active to registered civil society actors engaged with child protection	<p>A. 50:100</p> <p>B. 40:100</p> <p>C. 30:100</p> <p>D. Less than 30:100</p>
1.6	Effective cooperation between the government and civil society for child protection	Regulatory framework for civil society in child protection includes the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> An entity within the government which oversees civil society organizations working in child protection; A mandatory procedure to license or register civil society organizations that directly care for children Regular monitoring of the quality of services for children provided by civil society; A mechanism at the national level for the government and civil society to coordinate on child protection policy, legislation and programming. 	<p>A. Regulatory framework for civil society includes all of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>B. Regulatory framework for civil society includes at least three of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>C. Regulatory framework for civil society includes at least two of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>D. Regulatory framework for civil society includes one or none of the benchmark criteria.</p>
1.7	National government support to civil society for child protection	Amount of national government grants to child protection NGOs as percentage of total grants to NGOs.	<p>A. Greater than 50%</p> <p>B. 30–49%</p> <p>C. 21–29%</p> <p>D. Less than 20%</p>
2. Public financial management			
2.1	Credibility of budget allocations across Child protection-related sectors	Composition of expenditure out-turns compared to original approved budgets on Child protection-related programmes (administrative and functional) over the last three years	<p>A. Variance in expenditure composition less than 5% in any of last three years;</p> <p>B. Variance in expenditure composition by 5% in one year over three years;</p> <p>C. Variance in expenditure composition by 10% in no more than one of the last three years;</p> <p>D. Variance in expenditure composition by 10% in two out of last three years.</p>
2.2	Robustness of budget expenditure classification	Use of (GFS/COFOG) administrative, economic and functional classification standards	<p>A. Use of full standards;</p> <p>B. Use of at least 10 standards;</p> <p>C. Use of GFS of less than 10 standards;</p> <p>D. Use of different standards.</p>

	Indicator	Benchmark	Standard
2. Public financial management (continued)			
2.3	Transparency of intergovernmental fiscal relations for child protection	Transparency and objectivity in the horizontal allocation of transfers linked to expenditures on Child protection among SN governments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. The horizontal allocation of almost all transfers (at least 90% by value) from central government is determined by transparent and rules-based systems; B. The horizontal allocation of most transfers from central government (at least 50% of transfers) is determined by transparent and rules-based systems; C. The horizontal allocation of only a small part of transfers from central government (10–50%) is determined by transparent and rules-based systems; D. No or hardly any part of the horizontal allocation of transfers from central government is determined by transparent and rules-based systems.
2.4	Conduciveness of public financing framework to development of balanced and child-focused menu of Child protection services	Neutrality of financing framework with regard to types of Child protection services and absence of financial incentives that have detrimental effects on children, for example, capitation payments that provide incentives to place children in residential care	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. In most Child protection-related programmes funds are allocated based on objective child-focused criteria without detrimental incentives; B. Child protection financing framework contains at least one financial incentive which has a detrimental effect on children; C. Child protection financing framework contains two or more financial incentives which have a detrimental effect on children; D. Most of the Child protection funding is allocated in ways that are preferential to services which are inefficient or detrimental for children.
2.5	Realistic intergovernmental financing of Child protection programmes	Accuracy of reimbursement of financial costs imposed on sub-national budgets by the central government within decentralized spending programmes related to Child protection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Revenue sources allocated to sub-national budgets can fully cover all local expenditures arising from undertaking Child protection-related mandates imposed by upper government tiers; B. Revenue sources allocated to sub-national budgets can cover at least 75% of local expenditures arising from undertaking Child protection-related mandates; C. Revenue sources allocated to sub-national budgets cover less than 75% of local expenditures arising from undertaking Child protection-related mandates; but policy process is in place to address sources of this problem; D. Linkage between local commitments in Child protection arising from central regulations and the financial means available to local budgets to cover these costs is not addressed in the policy process and results in systemic unfunded mandates on sub-national governments.
2.6	Multiyear perspective in fiscal planning, expenditure policy and budgeting	Preparation of multiyear fiscal forecasts and functional allocations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Forecasts of fiscal aggregates (on the basis of economic, functional/sector classification) are prepared for at least three years on a rolling annual basis; B. Forecasts prepared (on the basis of economic, functional/sector classification) for at least two years on a rolling annual basis; C. Forecasts of fiscal aggregates (based on economic classification) prepared for at least two years in advance); D. No forward estimates are undertaken.

	Indicator	Benchmark	Standard
2. Public financial management (continued)			
2.7	Policy-based budgeting for child protection	Existence of costed strategies for child protection	<p>A. The government has a costed strategy or strategies for Child protection which match Child protection priorities to resource allocation, based on consideration of costed options, and these strategies are considered explicitly during the budget process;</p> <p>B. The government has a costed Child protection strategy(-ies), but they do not match actual resource allocation and are not clearly articulated by sector staff as budget proposals;</p> <p>C. Sector strategies may have been prepared for some aspects of child protection but are not substantially costed for investment and recurrent expenditure, although activities are underway to prepare one that would feed into the budget process;</p> <p>D. There are no costed strategies for Child protection and no activities are under way to prepare one.</p>
3. Human resources child protection			
3.1	Regulation of requirements and standards for social work professionals	<p>Regulatory framework for child protection includes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A definition (in training or other institutions or in policy) of the professional responsibilities, skills and required training and standards to which social workers will be held accountable; • Within the above: specific requirements and standards for social workers working with children; • A certification, accreditation or licensing process for social workers and other professionals who work within Child protection; • A system of regular performance evaluation for all civil service staff working in Child protection linked to practical measures affecting staff compensation and continued training. 	<p>A. Child protection regulatory framework includes all of the items in the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>B. Child protection regulatory framework includes at least three of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>C. Child protection regulatory framework includes at least two of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>D. Child protection regulatory framework includes one or none of the benchmark criteria.</p>

	Indicator	Benchmark	Standard
3. Human resources child protection (continued)			
3.2	Professional training for personnel working in Child protection service delivery	<p>Education and continued development system contains:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A university degree programme in social work whose curriculum includes courses on social services, developmental issues, protective and preventive topics, and therapeutic interventions; • A vocational qualification programme in social work or child development whose curriculum is approved by relevant authorities; • A system of accreditation of social work skills which is based on competency tests within relevant training programmes; • Training for education workers (such as teachers), health professionals and/or other professionals on abuse, violence and exploitation; • Specific training programme for staff within the ministries with lead interior and home affairs role and lead justice roles on children and justice. 	<p>A. Education system includes all of the items in the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>B. Education system includes at least three of the items in the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>C. Education system includes one or two of the items in the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>D. Education system includes none of the items in the benchmark criteria.</p>
3.3	Government's capacity to attract qualified Child protection professionals	Average wage of staff working on child protection (across all ministries) as a percentage of average public sector wage (weighted to ensure comparability of grades)	<p>A. 100%</p> <p>B. 70%</p> <p>C. 50%</p> <p>D. Less than 50%</p>
3.4	Government's capacity to retain qualified Child protection professionals	Annual turnover within civil service/public sector jobs with responsibility for child protection	<p>A. Less than 10%</p> <p>B. Less than 20%</p> <p>C. Less than 25%</p> <p>D. Greater than 25%</p>
3.5	Diligence of staff working on child protection	Average absenteeism rates in representative samples of different cadres of staff working in child protection	<p>A. Less than 5%</p> <p>B. Less than 10%</p> <p>C. 10%–20%</p> <p>D. Above 20%</p>
3.6	Overall size of civil service/public sector staff with responsibility for child protection (all social workers across all ministries, qualified and unqualified)	Ratio of social workers with responsibilities for child protection (service delivery personnel) per head of child population	<p>A. 1:20,000</p> <p>B. 1:50,000</p> <p>C. 1:100,000</p> <p>D. Greater than 1:100,000</p>
3.7	Human resources dedicated to children and justice	<p>In the ministries with lead justice and interior roles:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Structural units and individual positions are specifically dedicated to issues related to children and justice (dpt staff, police personnel, prison personnel, social workers, probation personnel, psychologists, etc); • Most of these positions have clear job descriptions; • Most of these positions have job skills requirements adequate for the work to be performed. 	<p>A. More than 10%</p> <p>B. 3–10%</p> <p>C. Less than 3%</p> <p>D. No specifically dedicated staff in either ministry</p>

	Indicator	Benchmark	Standard
4. Statistics and information			
4.1	Use of survey data on children at risk and in need of protection in the policy process	Use of CDC, MICs, DHS, ILO-IPEC, national survey data in national policy documents on child protection	A. All surveys used; B. 50–100% of surveys used; C. Less than 50% of surveys used; D. Surveys not used.
4.2	Data analysis and evidence-based research for child protection	Child protection policy development and planning is based on the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regular provision to key decision makers of relevant evidence-based analysis and research • Existence of a national research agenda on child protection issues, which identifies priorities for improving data on child protection problems, key risk factors • Effective collection of information on children at risk for the purposes of collaboration between public and/or external agencies in emergency contexts; • Capacity building and training programmes in key ministries with responsibilities for Child protection on data management, statistical analysis and evidence-based policy making. 	A. Policy making is based on all of the benchmark criteria for data utilization; B. Policy making is based on at least three of the benchmark criteria for data utilization; C. Policy making is based on one or two of the benchmark criteria for data utilization; D. None of the benchmark criteria for data utilization are satisfied during policy making for Child protection.
4.3	Visibility of children in household surveys	Use of equivalence scales to assess child poverty rates	A. Equivalence scales always used; B. Used in 50% or more surveys C. Used in less than 50% surveys D. Not used in any survey
4.4	Quality and consistency of Child protection information databases	Consolidation of data related to Child protection is characterized by the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Data relevant to Child protection are consolidated at the national level sufficiently to enable analysis and policy making for Child protection; • Reliable and consistent mechanisms to channel sub-national data to the central level; • Tasks of staff involved in data collection and reporting are clearly specified; • Sufficient amount of separate issue-specific databases related to specific Child protection priorities are in place at local and central level. 	A. Data are consolidated based on all of the benchmark criteria; B. Data are consolidated based on at least three of the benchmark criteria; C. Data are consolidated based on one or two of the benchmark criteria; D. None of the specified benchmark criteria are satisfied.

	Indicator	Benchmark	Standard
4. Statistics and information (continued)			
4.5	Source data are soundly based for capturing required information on child protection	Administrative data on child protection recorded by national MIS <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use definitions and concepts which are appropriate for statistical purposes; • Allow tracking performance of existing Child protection programmes and facilities (within and across sectors); • Allow tracking utilization of assets, expenditure and budget execution by Child protection programmes and facilities; • Cover variables sufficient to support decisions on most of the specific national Child protection policy priorities (e.g. migration-related risks, HIV, domestic violence, etc). 	<p>A. Administrative data on child protection recorded by national MIS satisfy all of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>B. Administrative data on child protection recorded by national MIS satisfy at least three of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>C. Administrative data on child protection recorded by national MIS satisfy one or two of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>D. Administrative data on child protection recorded by national MIS satisfy none of the benchmark criteria;</p>
4.6	Data disaggregation	Child protection data disaggregated by age, ethnicity, gender, and disability status	<p>A. 100%</p> <p>B. 80%</p> <p>C. 50%</p> <p>D. Less than 50%</p>
4.7	Linkages between data producers and data users on child protection statistics	<p>'Fitness to use' of the collected data on Child protection, including the following quality components:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explicit reference to documentation on data quality and methodology in all released data; • Regular meetings with key users and producers of statistics and working in partnership with them; • Regular methodological updates to increase relevance and timeliness of released information to incorporate feedback from data users; • Ability of key data users to easily ascertain existence of information and access it via a sustainable medium. 	<p>A. Collected Child protection data satisfy all four of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>B. Collected Child protection data satisfy at least three of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>C. Collected Child protection data satisfy one or two of the benchmark criteria;</p> <p>D. Collected Child protection data satisfy none of the benchmark criteria.</p>

	Indicator	Benchmark	Standard
5. Child protection system coverage			
5.1	Effective support to children who are exposed to multiple risks from different sources	Existing programmes for child protection include a range of activities and services such as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promotional (ex ante) measures which focus on risk reduction by providing information on the nature of risks and their probability, and on options available to minimize these risks; • Preventive measures which focus on risk mitigation by providing related community-based services and support. • Protective (ex post) programmes which help children and families with children to cope with materialized risks by providing related community-based services and support (shelters, legal advice etc); • Protective (ex post) programmes which help children and families with children to cope with materialized risks by providing support via residential services. 	<p>A. Existing range of Child protection programmes includes all of the benchmark measures and no legal, institutional or financial incentives which would bias it towards one kind of measure (e.g. residential support);</p> <p>B. Existing range of Child protection programmes includes all of the benchmark measures but is biased towards residential support;</p> <p>C. Existing range of Child protection programmes includes at least three of the benchmark measures;</p> <p>D. Existing range of Child protection programmes includes two or less of the benchmark measures.</p>
5.2	Children and cash transfer programmes (social and financial programmes to help families prevent crisis and protect their children)	Coverage rates of different child-focused cash transfer programmes	<p>A. 100%</p> <p>B. 70–99%</p> <p>C. 50–69%</p> <p>D. Less than 50%</p>
5.3	Disaster preparedness	Existence of disaster preparedness strategies for managing covariate risks that have significant impacts on children	<p>A. Strategies for disaster preparedness covering more than 20 risks that affect children;</p> <p>B. 1019 risks;</p> <p>C. 5–9 risks;</p> <p>D. Less than five risks.</p>
6. Surveillance, gate keeping, referral and quality assurance			
6.1	Comprehensiveness of surveillance mechanisms for preventing and detecting children at risk of abuse, neglect and violence	Frequency of assessments by government departments of efficacy of existing promotional, preventive and protective measures in the Child protection system at an aggregate level.	<p>A. Annually;</p> <p>B. Once every two years;</p> <p>C. Once every three years;</p> <p>D. Once every five years.</p>
6.2	Credibility of gate keeping and referral system for children detected as being at risk of harm, neglect and violence	Linkages between gate keeping and referral systems within and across child protection agencies.	<p>A. All children are consistently assessed and referred on the basis of clear guidance and criteria;</p> <p>B. The majority of children are consistently assessed and referred on the basis of clear guidance and criteria;</p> <p>C. Many children are not assessed or referred;</p> <p>D. Referrals and assessment are not linked.</p>

	Indicator	Benchmark	Standard
6. Surveillance, gate keeping, referral and quality assurance (continued)			
6.3	Credibility of inspection and quality assurance regime for social welfare services, labour and juvenile justice	Frequency of inspection and quality assurance.	A. All entities responsible for child protection are inspected at least once every two years; B. 75% are inspected; C. 50% are inspected; D. Less than 50% inspected.
7. Public attitudes and values			
7.1	Appreciation of the importance of attitudes and values for Child protection	Number of barometric or other attitudinal surveys conducted over the last five years to assess and measure public attitudes towards child abuse, exploitation and violence.	A. More than five; B. Three to four; C. One to two; D. None.
7.2	Consistent collection of evidence on outcomes for children	Number of surveys over the last five years to assess and measure outcomes for children related to key specific Child protection priorities in country (e.g. violence against children).	A. More than five; B. Three to four; C. One to two; D. None.
7.3	Advocacy and awareness raising to combat harmful attitudes and practices	Activities and programmes under way to combat existing attitudes, customs and practices which are contrary to child well-being, which aim to promote open discussion with a view to changing minds.	A. More than 10 programmes under way; B. 5–10 programmes under way; C. Less than five programmes under way; D. No programmes under way.

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