Assessing Labor Abuses in the Coffee Supply Chain in Peru

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ABBREVIATIONS

CDRPETI	*Comités Directivos Regionales para la Prevención y Erradicación del Trabajo Infantil* (Regional Steering Committees for the Prevention and Eradication of Child Labor)
DEMUNA	*Defensoría Municipal del Niño y del Adolescente* (Municipal Child and Adolescent Defense Offices)
HS	Harmonized System
ILO	International Labor Organization
KII	key informant interview
MIMP	*Ministerio de la Mujer y Poblaciones Vulnerables* (Ministry of Women and Vulnerable Populations)
MT	metric tons
PPE	personal protective equipment
SELTI	*Sello Libre de Trabajo Infantil* (Child Labor Free Seal)
TDM	Trade Data Monitor
USDA	U.S. Department of Agriculture

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Peru is a major coffee producer, and the sector serves as a vital source of income for hundreds of thousands of rural families, with smallholder farmers dominating the landscape. Despite its economic importance, the sector faces persistent challenges related to labor rights, particularly the prevalence of child labor. Coffee production in Peru is characterized by highly manual, labor-intensive work with minimal mechanization. The sector relies heavily on unpaid family labor, including children, and informal labor arrangements. This report explores the presence of child labor and supply chain dynamics in Peru's coffee sector, focusing on the nature and drivers of child labor, the effectiveness of certification programs, and the limitations of traceability systems.

PURPOSE OF STUDY

The research aimed to (1) identify the presence and characteristics of child labor in coffee production, and (2) map the supply chain to assess traceability and the impact of certification programs.

METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

The geographic focus of the study was Cajamarca and Junín, and it employed a mixed-methods approach, combining quantitative surveys of adult coffee workers (n=127), qualitative interviews with adults (n=16) and children (n=11) working in coffee farming, and 31 key informant interviews with supply chain and labor experts. Respondents were also asked to identify a child who regularly works alongside them in coffee farming, referred to as a focal child. Respondents were asked to provide the focal child's socio-demographic information and work characteristics. Data collection took place in August and September 2025. The survey sample is not statistically representative, so findings reflect only those interviewed and not the sector as a whole.

FINDINGS

Presence and Drivers of Child Labor

The findings revealed that child labor is present in Peru's coffee sector. Eighty-four percent of the focal children meet the criteria of child labor based on International Labor Organization standards related to working hours and exposure to hazards. Qualitative evidence shows that children of all ages participate in coffee production, in some cases beginning as young as five years old, with work intensity and expectations increasing significantly during adolescence. Economic pressures, including poverty, labor shortages during harvest, and low coffee prices, drive families to rely on children's labor. Cultural norms further normalize child participation, framing it as reciprocal support between generations and character-building. Although key informants sometimes minimized the extent of child labor, survey and interview evidence revealed that children's work frequently exceeds Peruvian legal limits on hours and exposes them to hazardous conditions.

Exposure to hazardous conditions is common. Nearly half (45%) of focal children were reported to use sharp tools, and 43% performed repetitive tasks in uncomfortable positions. Notable proportions were exposed to cold or rainy conditions (35%), carried heavy loads (18%), operated machinery (17%), or worked long hours under the sun without adequate rest (12%). Children working on third-party farms were identified as particularly vulnerable to hazardous conditions. More than one-third (35%) of focal children were reported to have been injured or become ill due to their work. Respondents attributed these illnesses and injuries to working outside in all weather, falling down (e.g., steep slopes), and tool accidents.

On average, children involved in coffee production worked 13.3 hours per week, with boys working substantially more hours than girls. Work hours increased sharply with age, from an average of 7.0 hours per week among children aged 5–11 to nearly 20 hours per week among adolescents aged 15–17. For younger children, accompanying parents to the farm often functions as informal childcare, whereas adolescents are expected to contribute meaningfully to harvest activities.

Children's involvement in coffee production negatively affects education along a continuum of severity. Impacts range from limited time for homework, to temporary absences from school during harvest periods, and, in the most severe cases, complete school dropout. While most children continue to attend school, farm work after school often leaves insufficient time for academic work. Survey data show that 9% of focal children missed school to work in the coffee harvest, with adolescents accounting for the majority of these cases. Economic vulnerability is a key driver, as the poorest households are the least able to hire sufficient adult labor and therefore rely on children to meet labor demands.

Certification Programs: Reach and Limitations

Certification programs, such as Fairtrade International, Rainforest Alliance, and Fair Trade USA, have played a role in promoting safer labor practices and raising awareness about child labor. These standards require regular audits, physical segregation of certified beans, and policies to prevent and remediate child labor. In this study, adults working on farms participating in certification schemes, including both labor-focused certification schemes and organic certification, generally reported lighter workloads and lower exposure to hazards for the focal children who work with them. Children on certified farms worked fewer hours and faced fewer hazards than those on non-certified farms (10.7 vs. 14.3 hours per week; 1.6 vs. 2.3 hazards), and they were less likely to meet the child labor threshold (78% vs. 90%). They were also less likely to be injured or become ill due to work (32% vs. 45%) and far less likely to miss school for labor (4% vs. 15%). Therefore, the evidence suggests that while certification is associated with improved conditions for some children, it is not a comprehensive solution.

In addition, the reach of certification is limited. Only a minority of coffee producers participate in certified cooperatives or associations, and market incentives for certification are not always present or sufficient. Many smallholder farmers remain outside these systems, and even within certified supply chains, demand for certified coffee often falls short of supply, forcing producers to sell certified coffee at conventional prices.

Traceability: Challenges and Gaps

Traceability in Peru's coffee supply chain is fundamentally demand-driven and faces significant challenges. Certified coffee is subject to stricter traceability requirements, but mixing of beans from multiple sources is reported to occur, and key informants noted that producers may misrepresent the origin of beans prior to collection. Paper-based record-keeping is common, and technical capacity for detailed tracking is limited. As a result, coffee produced with child labor can enter both domestic and international markets, including certified supply chains.

For non-certified coffee, traceability is minimal. Mixing and aggregation of beans at collection centers, during drying, and at mills make it nearly impossible to trace coffee back to individual farms. Even labels such as "single-origin" do not guarantee farm-level traceability. The lack of robust traceability systems undermines efforts to ensure ethical sourcing and prevent coffee produced with child labor from reaching consumers.

Structural Barriers

Structural barriers—including informality, limited oversight, and geographic isolation—further complicate efforts to eliminate child labor. The exclusion of smallholder farms from certain labor

regulations, lack of liquidity, and reliance on informal intermediaries reduce oversight and access to alternative livelihoods. Public institutions responsible for child protection and labor enforcement lack the resources and coordination needed to intervene effectively in rural areas. Most direct prevention efforts are driven by private sector actors, particularly certified cooperatives, but these initiatives are contingent on market incentives and certification status.

Coffee Exports

Most Peruvian coffee is exported as unroasted beans to major international markets. In 2024, Peru exported coffee beans valued at approximately $1.13 billion, ranking 12th globally. The vast majority (99%) consisted of raw, unroasted coffee beans. The United States was the top destination (27% by value), followed by Germany (20%), Canada (8%), Belgium (8%), and Sweden (5%). Major U.S. companies, including Starbucks, Keurig Dr. Pepper (Green Mountain Coffee Roasters), and specialty importers such as Cafe Imports and Royal Coffee, sell products made with Peruvian coffee beans.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The persistence of child labor in Peru's coffee sector reflects the interplay of economic necessity, cultural norms, and systemic barriers. Certification programs and traceability systems have made important contributions but are not sufficient on their own. Addressing these challenges will require not only stronger enforcement and prevention programs, but also broader reforms to reduce poverty, improve education, and enhance supply chain transparency.

Coordinated action among government, industry, and civil society is essential to ensure that progress in the coffee sector does not come at the expense of children's rights and well-being. The findings of this report underscore the need for comprehensive, sustained efforts to eliminate child labor and promote ethical, sustainable coffee production in Peru.

Recommendations

To the Government of Peru:

- Scale up proven initiatives, including the *Sello Libre de Trabajo Infantil* (Child Labor Free Seal) certification and the Municipal Model for Identification and Response to Child Labor, providing adequate funding and technical support for implementation across major coffee-producing regions.
- Improve inter-institutional coordination between agricultural agencies, labor authorities, and child protection entities, ensuring that institutions working directly with coffee-growing families systematically integrate child labor considerations into their programs.
- Ensure that the technical assistance and training carried out by the Ministry of Agrarian Development and Irrigation through its decentralized offices, such as the agricultural agencies, incorporate child labor-related issues to help farming families recognize work that is hazardous or impedes education.
- Expand social protection programs and educational support in coffee-growing communities, particularly targeting families most vulnerable to economic pressures that drive child labor, and strengthen enforcement of compulsory education requirements.
- Conduct research to address the lack of representative quantitative data on child labor in coffee production in Peru.

To Private Sector Actors:

This study provides practical information for U.S. and other international companies sourcing, trading, or marketing from Peru. The study's findings highlight specific risk factors relevant to corporate due

diligence, including the prevalence of smallholder farmers in Peru's coffee sector, reliance on unpaid family labor, labor shortages during harvest, aggregation and mixing of beans, gaps between certified production and certified sales, and limitations of both public enforcement and voluntary certification systems. Companies can use these insights to stress test existing risk assessment, compliance, and certification strategies, and to design more targeted prevention, monitoring, and remediation approaches. More broadly, the study supports companies' efforts to meet evolving regulatory, investor, and consumer expectations.

Downstream consumers and processors of Peruvian coffee—including mills, exporters, roasters, importers, and retailers—should implement the following supply chain due diligence and monitoring mechanisms to identify and address child labor risks:

- Prioritize sourcing from cooperatives and associations with demonstrated child labor prevention programs, and incentivize positive outcomes by developing preferred supplier programs and rewarding high-performing cooperatives with long-term contractual commitments.
- Establish proactive monitoring programs that include unannounced field visits to coffee suppliers, focusing especially on harvest periods and operations involving contractors or day laborers.
- Supplement monitoring programs with binding contractual obligations that require supply chain partners to uphold international labor rights standards and to ensure full remedy for workers whenever violations occur.
- Invest in traceability systems that allow segregation of suppliers by level of child labor risk, even where complete farm-to-consumer traceability remains challenging due to co-mingling at processing facilities.
- Support and expand educational programs that incentivize students to remain in school through secondary education, including scholarship programs, school supply provision, and partnerships with technical schools for post-secondary agricultural training.
- Discourage payment practices based purely on production quotas, which incentivize the use of unpaid family labor, including child labor, transitioning toward direct payment systems supplemented by reasonable productivity incentives.
- Ensure through active verification that certification standards are effectively implemented on the ground, not just on paper, and that certified farms demonstrate meaningful differences in labor practices compared to uncertified operations.
- Subsidize the costs of certifications, so that these are not the responsibility of small producers, as is mostly the case today.

To Civil Society and Other Stakeholders:

- Expand the participation of rural workers' associations and cooperatives in monitoring labor practices, ensuring that workers and community members have an effective voice in identifying and addressing child labor.
- Promote independent, multilateral audits that include civil society organizations, workers' associations, and researchers in monitoring labor practices in certified operations.
- Support community empowerment initiatives and accessible reporting channels so families can safely report child labor concerns without fear of economic retaliation.
- Conduct further research on child labor prevalence across different regions, production systems, and supply chain configurations to inform targeted interventions, with particular attention to children working as day laborers on third-party farms and the impact of certification programs on child labor.

1 INTRODUCTION

Peruvian coffee is known for its low acidity, moderate body, and well-balanced taste. Peruvian coffee beans are prized as premium single-origin products by specialty roasters and are also widely blended with other South American coffee beans in mainstream offerings. Coffee has historically been central to Peru's agricultural exports and continues to sustain rural livelihoods.

Coffee cultivation in Peru spans multiple regions (Figure 1) and occurs primarily along the eastern slopes of the Andes. The main coffee-producing regions include Junín, San Martín, Cajamarca, and Amazonas (U.S. Department of Agriculture Foreign Agricultural Service, 2025a). Most coffee production takes place between 1,000 and 1,800 meters above sea. Lima province functions as the main export hub for Peruvian coffee, and facilities for fermenting, drying, and limited in-country roasting are found throughout the coffee-growing regions. Overall, the Northern (Amazonas, Cajamarca, and San Martín) and Central (Junín, Pasco, and Huánuco) zones are the main centers of coffee cultivation, acting as vital links between Peru's agricultural sector and global coffee supply chains.

Figure 1. Coffee-producing regions of Peru

Source: Desarrollo y Autogestión, ICF

While coffee cultivation contributes substantially to rural incomes globally, it is also associated with persistent labor rights concerns. Coffee cultivation and harvesting are labor-intensive and frequently depend on unpaid family labor, including the labor of women and children. Child labor in coffee production is well-documented in countries such as Colombia, Guatemala, and Ethiopia, but there is

limited evidence available for Peru (Ergon Associates, 2023; U.S. Department of Labor, 2024). Furthermore, there has been no comprehensive effort in Peru to trace how coffee produced with child labor moves through supply chains to reach downstream domestic and international markets. This gap in research is notable, given the widespread presence of Peruvian coffee in global markets and the predominance of smallholder family farms in Peru.

This study attempts to address these research gaps through two interrelated objectives. The first objective was to identify the presence and work characteristics of children engaged in coffee production in the Cajamarca and Junín regions of Peru to better understand the nature of child labor in the sector. These regions were selected because they are among the country's most productive coffee-producing areas and differ substantially in terms of child labor incidence and educational outcomes. Cajamarca has the highest estimated child labor rate (across all sectors) and the lowest literacy rate among the top coffee-producing departments (ComexPerú, 2023; Instituto Nacional de Estadística e Informática, 2024). In contrast, Junín has the lowest estimated child labor rate (across all sectors) and is tied for the highest literacy rate among these departments (ComexPerú, 2023; Instituto Nacional de Estadística e Informática, 2024). Together, these regions provide contrasting contexts that enable examination of a wide range of circumstances shaping child labor in coffee production in Peru. The second objective was to map the supply chain of coffee in the Cajamarca and Junín regions of Peru to determine traceability of coffee and understand gaps and limitations of current certification programs—which verify that coffee is produced in compliance with certain sustainability and labor standards—and other efforts to identify and address child labor in coffee production.

1.1 ECONOMIC OVERVIEW

Coffee is Peru's main agricultural export, making up one-fourth of national agricultural income (Trade Data Monitor [TDM], 2025; Campos, 2024). The industry supports the livelihoods of an estimated 223,000 producer families and involves more than 2 million Peruvians in its production chain (United Nations Development Programme, 2020; U.S. Department of Agriculture Foreign Agricultural Service, 2025a). Coffee plantations occupy approximately 40% of farmland nationally and 70% of farmland in the highlands (United Nations Development Programme, 2020).

In 2024, Peru exported coffee beans valued at approximately $1.13 billion, accounting for around 2.5% of the global coffee bean trade by value and ranking 12th among all coffee-exporting countries (TDM, 2025). The vast majority of these exports consisted of raw, unroasted coffee beans, with Peru shipping 4.5% of the world's total unroasted coffee by value, making it the sixth largest exporter in this category (TDM, 2025).

Over the past 5 years, 3 countries have accounted for more than half of Peru's coffee exports: the United States (25.5%), Germany (21.2%), and Belgium (10.9%) (TDM, 2025). The United States predominantly imports unroasted caffeinated beans (TDM, 2025). Several major U.S. companies, including Starbucks Coffee Company and Keurig Dr. Pepper (parent company of Green Mountain Coffee Roasters) sell products made with Peruvian coffee beans (Keurig Dr. Pepper, 2025; Starbucks, 2025). Specialty coffee importers such as Cafe Imports and Royal Coffee also play a significant role (Cafe Imports, 2025; Royal Coffee, 2025). Direct trade companies like Counter Culture Coffee and Intelligentsia Coffee work directly with Peruvian coffee cooperatives and farmers (Counter Culture Coffee, 2025b; Intelligentsia Coffee, 2025). Many of these companies source certified coffee, which means that the beans are produced in compliance with certain sustainability, environmental, and labor standards verified by third-party organizations.

1.2 LABOR IN COFFEE PRODUCTION AND PROCESSING IN PERU

Coffee production in Peru is characterized by highly manual, labor-intensive work with minimal mechanization. Employment relationships in the sector vary across farm types and from season to season, but as a whole, the sector relies heavily on unpaid family labor and informal labor arrangements (United Nations Development Programme, 2025; U.S. Department of Agriculture Foreign Agricultural Service, 2025a). Nearly 60% of jobs in the coffee sector are informal, below the overall informality rate of the labor force in Peru, which stands at 72%, according to the International Labor Organization (ILO) (International Labour Organization, 2025; Red de Comunicación Regional Peru, 2025). Many coffee-growing families live in poverty with limited infrastructure and access to basic services (Ministerio de la Produccion, 2024; Vargas & Willem, 2017).

The seasonal nature of coffee harvesting—concentrated in a few months each year—generates intense labor demand that smallholder families often cannot meet without mobilizing household members of all ages (Ergon Associates, 2023; Roland et al., 2023; Verité, 2024). In addition, cultural norms in coffee-growing communities view children's participation in agricultural work as part of family contribution and skills development. This normalization of child labor, combined with economic pressures faced by smallholder families, creates conditions in which children's work becomes integrated into household production strategies. Some children work exclusively on their family's farms under parental supervision, and others work as hired laborers on third-party farms, often without adequate oversight or protection.

1.3 PERU'S LEGAL FRAMEWORK ON CHILD LABOR IN AGRICULTURE

Peru's legal framework[1] on child labor has evolved in line with its international commitments, with the stated aim of protecting children and adolescents from exploitation while safeguarding their health, education, and development. At its core is the Code of Children and Adolescents (Law No. 27337), which establishes a minimum working age of 15 for non-industrial agricultural work "for someone else or that is provided in a dependency relationship" and of 14 "for the other work modalities" (Article 51), and permits only light work for children aged 12 to 14 under strict limits on hours and conditions. The Code expressly prohibits work that is dangerous, unhealthy, or interferes with schooling, a provision especially relevant in rural agricultural contexts in which physical risks and disruptions to education are common.

This framework is reinforced by Supreme Decree No. 009-2022 *Ministerio de la Mujer y Poblaciones Vulnerables* (MIMP, or Ministry of Women and Vulnerable Populations), which updates the list of hazardous activities prohibited for minors. Many of these banned activities are typical of agricultural labor, including handling agrochemicals, carrying heavy loads, using sharp tools, working in extreme weather, and operating in unsafe environments. Although the decree allows narrow exceptions for supervised, family-based training, most tasks associated with coffee farming fall within the definition of dangerous work, rendering child participation legally prohibited.

Law No. 31110, which regulates the agricultural labor regime, further reinforces the ban on child labor in agro-industrial and irrigation sectors, including coffee production. However, its scope is limited, as it excludes smallholder farms under five hectares, on which the majority of coffee cultivation takes place. This exclusion, combined with weak enforcement and the absence of preventive mechanisms, leaves informal and unpaid child labor largely unregulated in rural coffee-growing areas.

[1] For more detail, see Appendix 5: Peruvian Legislation Regarding Child Labor in Peru and Its Specificity in Agricultural Child Labor.

The structural characteristics of Peru's coffee sector—dominated by smallholder farms, reliant on family labor, and concentrated in remote regions—create conditions in which child labor persists despite legal prohibitions. In practice, the gap between legal protections and on-the-ground realities is significant. Economic pressures, cultural norms that normalize children's participation in farm work, and structural informality all contribute to the persistence of child labor. Understanding these factors is essential for interpreting labor findings and evaluating the effectiveness of current interventions, including certification programs and national strategies to reduce child labor.

The sections that follow build on this analysis. Section 2 outlines the research methodology and implementation. Section 3 presents the findings, beginning with global coffee production, followed by Peru's domestic supply chain and export patterns. It then examines the main certification programs operating in Peru, traceability efforts, and existing gaps. Finally, it details labor conditions, including the characteristics of child workers, drivers of child labor, working conditions and hazards, and initiatives to reduce child labor. Section 4 provides conclusions and recommendations for government, private sector, and civil society actors.

2 METHODOLOGY AND STUDY IMPLEMENTATION

This study was guided by the following research questions:

- What are the characteristics of child workers in coffee production with regards to their demographic background and household characteristics, work environment and working conditions, work activities, work schedules and work hours, exposure to workplace hazards, and the impacts of these factors on their ability to access education? Is child labor present among focal children within the sample, and what conclusions could be drawn about child labor in the sector more broadly? What government policies are in place to limit child labor in coffee production, and what factors limit their effectiveness?
- What degree of traceability is possible within the Peruvian coffee supply chain? How does traceability and risks of child labor entering the supply chain vary between certified and non-certified coffee?
- What are the main certification programs currently active in the sector? What are their gaps and limitations?

2.1 METHODOLOGY

The methodology used for the study combines qualitative and quantitative approaches, integrating secondary data analysis, quantitative surveys with adult coffee farmers, qualitative interviews with adult and child coffee farmers, and key informant interviews (KIIs) with supply chain and labor experts. The overall study design was informed by an initial scoping trip to interview initial stakeholders, choose regions of focus, and determine the research questions.

Secondary literature review: The study began with an extensive review of existing literature and trade data to understand the structure of the coffee supply chain in Peru as well as children's role in cultivation and harvesting. Sources included statistics on production volumes, sales, and exports, and cultivated area; existing certification programs; relevant labor regulations; and public policy efforts to address child labor in the country.

Quantitative workers' survey: The survey sought to identify the presence and characteristics of child labor in coffee production, following ILO definitions and standards. It captured respondents' socio-demographic information, work activities, and perceptions of working children. Respondents were also asked to identify a child who regularly works alongside them in coffee farming, hereinafter referred to as a focal child, and 106 such children were identified. Respondents were asked to provide the focal

child's socio-demographic information and work characteristics. Focal children were considered to be experiencing child labor if they engaged in hazardous work or exceeded the prescribed number of working hours for their age group.

The survey included 127 adult coffee farmers who had cultivated coffee within the past year. Data collection was conducted using hand-held tablets on the SurveyCTO platform. Because no comprehensive list of coffee farmers was available, the sampling strategy combined snowball and purposive methods. A key criterion for respondent selection was ensuring representation of both farm owners and employed farm workers. The research team also intentionally recruited participants from both certified and non-certified farms.

In-depth interviews with coffee farmers: As part of the qualitative component of this study, in-depth interviews were conducted with adult (n=16) and child (n=11) coffee farmers. One children's interview was conducted as a group session with three participants, and the remaining interviews involved individual participants. These interviews allowed a more nuanced and contextually grounded understanding of the quantitative findings from the survey. In particular, the in-depth interviews focused on motivations for children's work in coffee production, children's work schedules and activities, health and safety conditions in the fields, and children's school attendance. Two anthropologists with extensive training in research with vulnerable populations and specializing in child labor carried out the interviews. They worked closely with the quantitative data collection team to identify cases of child labor and coordinate household visits.

Supply chain and child labor KIIs: KIIs were conducted with 21 supply chain experts and 10 labor experts. These interviews provided additional information about child participation in coffee production, traceability and monitoring systems, certification, market dynamics, and policies and programs to address child labor.

The research instruments were adapted from ICF's global research instruments to fit the context of the coffee supply chain in Peru. All instruments were translated into Spanish. Quantitative data analysis was performed using Stata 15, and interview notes and transcripts were thematically coded for analysis. All interview notes and transcripts were translated into English. The research team triangulated the results of the qualitative and quantitative analyses to identify key findings and conclusions. This process ensured that all findings were supported by multiple evidence sources and analyses.

2.2 TRAINING AND PREPARATION

Training was conducted in August 2025 in a hybrid format: the Junín team received in-person training, and the Cajamarca team participated virtually. An additional in-person training session was held on August 22, 2025, in Cajamarca, focusing mainly on practical exercises prior to the start of fieldwork. The training combined theoretical sessions on the study objectives, research ethics, and interviewing techniques with practical training on SurveyCTO and tablet use as well as mock interviews. All research assistants had experience related to

Field team training. Source: Centro de Desarrollo y Autogestión

agriculture. The instruments were piloted in Junín and Cajamarca at several farms, and small adjustments were made prior to the start of data collection.

2.3 DATA COLLECTION

Fieldwork was conducted from August to September 2025, with qualitative and quantitative teams operating simultaneously in both regions. Table 1 presents a summary of the quantitative and qualitative data collected during fieldwork for this study.

Table 1. Data collection summary

Data collection type	Location (region)	Total number of surveys/KIIs conducted
Workers' survey	Cajamarca	63
Workers' survey	Junín	64
Workers' qualitative interviews	Cajamarca	8
Workers' qualitative interviews	Junín	8
Children's interviews	Cajamarca	6
Children's interviews	Junín	5
Supply chain KIIs	Junín, Cajamarca, Lima	21
Labor KIIs	Junín, Cajamarca, Lima	10

Prior to data collection, the research design and instruments were approved by ICF's independent Institutional Review Board. Researchers were trained to adhere to strict ethical guidelines, including informed consent, confidentiality, and data security. Research was performed in compliance with 45 Code of U.S. Federal Regulations Part 46 on the Protection of Human Subjects. Verbal informed consent was obtained from all respondents before proceeding with the interview by reading a consent form aloud to them. Children under age 15 provided informed assent, and their parents or guardians provided consent. Youth ages 15 and older provided their own consent. Researchers used age-appropriate language to inform children that participation was voluntary, that they could skip any question they did not wish to answer, and that they could withdraw from the interview at any time. Interviews with children were conducted in locations where they remained within sight of their parents or guardians.

All personal identifying information was redacted before data analysis.

2.4 LIMITATIONS AND LESSONS LEARNED

Sampling method: The workers' quantitative survey used a mix of purposive and snowball sampling rather than probability sampling, allowing for a diverse pool of respondents but also introducing limitations. Findings are not statistically representative of farmers in Peru's coffee supply chain or child labor practices. However, the data help identify the existence of child labor in this supply chain in the study area and, when combined with qualitative insights, offer a broader understanding of the issue. In addition, children were not directly surveyed due to both logistical constraints and ethical considerations. As such, the quantitative estimates reflect only adult perspectives, and the qualitative analysis incorporates the perspectives of both adult and child workers.

Timing mattered: Data were collected toward the end of the harvest season. In Junín, where the season was nearly complete, most coffee farmer respondents were farm owners. In Cajamarca, where the main harvest was still underway, active workers who participated in the study included many hired laborers. Recruiting the sample from both regions allowed the study to achieve strong representation across different roles in the coffee sector.

Challenges to supply chain tracing: Tracing coffee through Peru's supply chain is difficult due to structural, operational, and commercial factors. Many farm workers lack visibility into where their coffee ultimately goes, limiting firsthand knowledge for traceability efforts. Certification programs such as Fairtrade International, Rainforest Alliance, and Fair Trade USA improve traceability by segregating certified beans, but detailed farm-level tracking is usually maintained only when buyers request it. At collection points, certified beans are often co-mingled, and cooperative leaders typically know only whether beans are certified—not their exact farm origin. Certified coffee comes primarily from farmers organized into cooperatives, who represent a minority of Peru's producers. Most farmers sell into conventional supply chains, in which beans are mixed throughout collection, processing, and export. After export, raw beans are further blended in destination countries during roasting, decaffeination, and other processing. Labels like "single-origin" can aid traceability, but they are not standardized. The term may refer to a single farm, a cooperative, a region, or even an entire country, offering no guarantee of single-farm origin.

3 FINDINGS

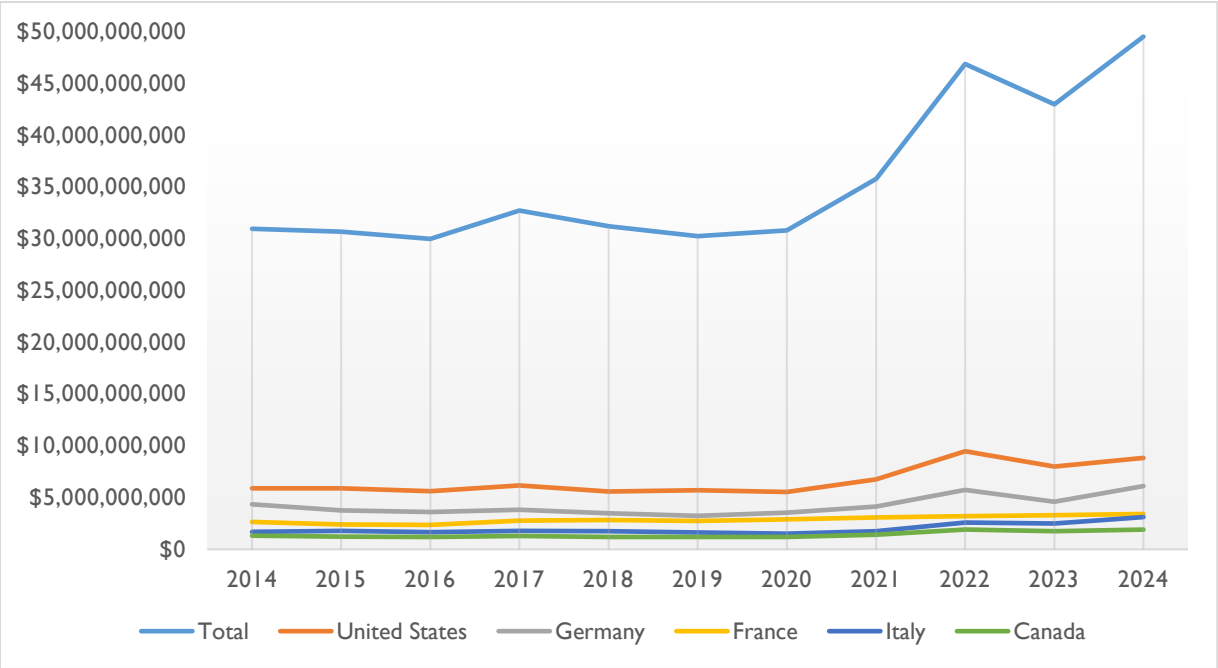
Section 3 presents the study's findings, beginning with an overview of global coffee production and trade and highlighting key patterns that frame Peru's position in the international market. The section then describes Peru's domestic supply chain, examining production dynamics, consumption patterns, and the roles of smallholder farmers, cooperatives, and other stakeholders. Subsequent subsections analyze Peru's export performance, marketing strategies in the United States, certification programs, and traceability challenges within Peru's coffee sector. Finally, it provides an analysis of labor conditions, including quantitative and qualitative evidence on child labor, its drivers, and prevention efforts.

3.1 GLOBAL COFFEE PRODUCTION

The global coffee industry produced 174.4 million 60 kg bags (or 10.5 million metric tons [MT]) of coffee in marketing year 2024–2025, a 3% increase over 2023–2024. This growth outpaced the 10-year average of 1% growth per year (U.S. Department of Agriculture Foreign Agricultural Service, 2025b). For this period, Brazil, Vietnam, and Colombia stood out as the top 3 coffee-producing countries, with 37%, 17%, and 8% of production, respectively (USDA, 2025b).

The top coffee importers in 2024 (Figure 2) were all North American or European countries, led by the United States (which imported 17.8% of global exports), followed by Germany (12.3%), France (6.9%), Italy (6.3%), and Canada (3.8%). Countries around the globe imported more than $49 billion worth of coffee in 2024, a more than 60% increase since 2020 (TDM, 2025).

Figure 2. Global coffee imports by value, 2015–2024

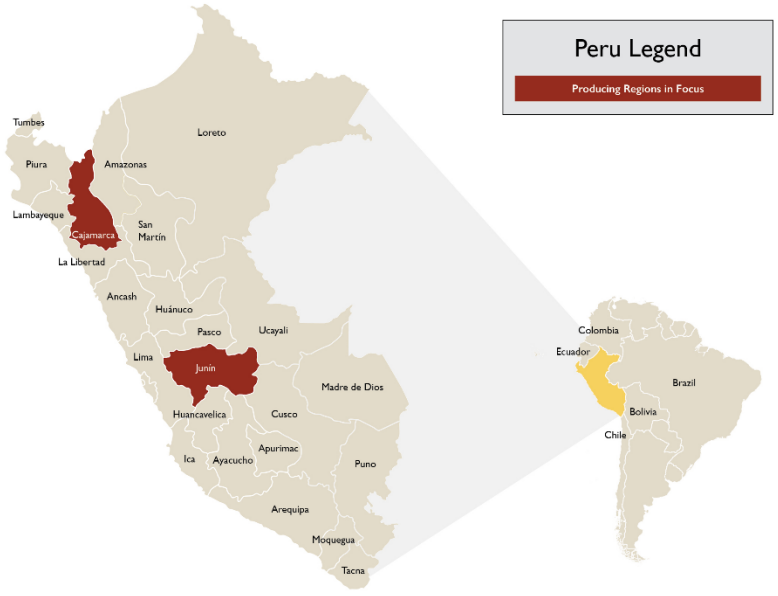


Source: TDM, 2025

3.2 DOMESTIC SUPPLY CHAIN

3.2.1 Peru Coffee Production

Figure 3. Regions of focus



Coffee is cultivated on around 335,000 hectares of land across Peru. Table 2 presents harvested areas in the four main coffee-producing regions (Junín, San Martín, Cajamarca, and Amazonas) and all other regions combined. The Peruvian coffee sector is composed primarily of smallholder farmers, who account for nearly 90% of the sector and manage plots between 1 and 5 hectares (U.S. Department of Agriculture Federal Agricultural Service, 2025a). The average density of coffee production is 2,000 plants per hectare, with crops mostly under shade (90%). Production is centered on Arabica coffee, with the Typica variety accounting for more than 70%

of total output, followed by Caturra (20%) (U.S. Department of Agriculture Federal Agricultural Service, 2025a).

Table 2. Harvested area per region (2022–2023) and estimates for 2023–2024

Region	Harvested area 2022–2023 (ha)	Estimated harvest area for 2023–2024 (ha)
Junín	87,366	84,000
San Martín	80,105	77,000
Cajamarca	70,514	68,000
Amazonas	60,195	57,800
Other	130,537	125,700
Overall national total	428,717	412,500

Source: ICF calculated based on Junta Nacional de Café, 2025, and National Institute of Statistics and Informatics

Table 3 presents coffee production in the four main coffee-producing regions and all other regions combined and demonstrates a decline in production from the 2022–2023 harvest to the estimated 2023–2024 harvest.

Table 3. Coffee production per region (2022–2023) and estimates for 2023–2024

Region	Production 2022–2023 (MT)	Estimated production for 2023–2024 (MT)
Junín	63,540	57,400
San Martín	56,125	50,750
Cajamarca	50,830	45,950
Amazonas	33,635	30,400
Other	60,620	54,700
Overall national total	264,750	239,200

Source: ICF calculated based on Junta Nacional de Café, 2025 and National Institute of Statistics and Informatics

According to the National Coffee Board, national coffee production experienced an estimated decline of 9.65% during the 2023–2024 harvest, totaling only 239,200 MT in 2024. This decline is primarily attributed to a combination of structural and circumstantial factors: most notably the aging of plantations (nearly 70% have exceeded their productive cycle),[2] which has caused extremely low productivity of only 0.63 MT per hectare (Junta National de Cafe, 2024). In addition, the Peruvian coffee sector has faced the following challenges:

- **Impact of yellow rust:** The most disruptive factor has been the yellow rust plague, which has severely affected cultivated areas since 2012. The loss has been significant, exceeding 290,000 affected hectares in 2013 (Junta National de Cafe, 2024).
- **Low productivity:** Average production per hectare is notably low, standing at around 752 kg/ha, although there are cases of high efficiency (up to 2,500 kg/ha) (Junta National de Cafe, 2024).

[2] The lifespan of a bush can be 30 years or more, but older bushes are much less productive. A 2016 study in Peru found that productivity follows an approximate 10-year cycle that depends on producers' capacity to invest and adopt improved technologies. During the first three years, yields typically increase by about 0.23 MT/ha. From the fourth through the seventh year, growth slows to roughly 0.14 MT/ha. After the eighth year, productivity declines by an average of 0.14 MT/ha, indicating the need for rehabilitation or renovation of coffee plantations (Xocium, 2016, as cited in Vargas & Willem, 2017).

- **Profitability challenges:** According to sector experts interviewed for this study, some farmers have experienced an economic imbalance in which production costs exceed the price received for coffee, leading to losses.
- **Lack of organization:** Many producers are not formally organized, which limits their access to the market and productivity-improving techniques and inputs.

3.2.2 Peru Coffee Consumption

Peru's coffee supply chain is export-oriented, with only a small share consumed domestically. According to the U.S. Department of Agriculture's (USDA) Foreign Agricultural Service, in market year 2024–2025, the Peruvian coffee sector produced a total of 252,000 MT of coffee, of which only 13.8 million kg (5.5%) was used for domestic consumption. Peru's per capita coffee consumption is estimated at 950 grams annually, significantly lower than that of its coffee-producing neighbors (2.5 kg per capita in Colombia and 6 kg in Brazil) (USDA, 2025b). Despite the relatively minimal domestic coffee culture in Peru, USDA predicted that domestic consumption would rise to around 18 million kg in market year 2025–2026 (USDA, 2025b).

3.3 PERU COFFEE SUPPLY CHAIN PROCESS AND STAKEHOLDERS

3.3.1 Coffee Production Practices

This section summarizes common coffee production practices carried out by farmers in Peru, from seedling production to the sale of dry coffee. Practices can vary significantly from farm to farm, depending on factors such as location, scale, resources, and farmer experience. The description follows the production cycle and is organized into four stages: nursery, planting, crop management, and harvest and post-harvest.

Nursery: Nursery activities begin with selecting and clearing accessible land with water availability and partial shade. Fertile substrate, typically forest soil rich in organic matter, is collected, transported, and mixed with sand and, in some cases, compost or manure. Coffee seeds are disinfected to prevent fungal diseases and sown in seedbeds under shade. After germination, seedlings are bagged—that is, transplanted into plastic bags filled with prepared substrate and arranged in nurseries. Management includes seedling selection, fertilization with organic or foliar inputs, frequent watering, and manual control of weeds, pests, and diseases to ensure healthy plants for field establishment.

Planting: Field establishment starts with clearing brush and debris, generally using manual tools, particularly on sloped terrain. Planting layouts and spacing are marked according to terrain and variety. Holes are dug manually, often incorporating organic or chemical fertilizer. Seedlings are then transferred from the nursery and planted at the beginning of the rainy season, ensuring proper depth and soil compaction to promote establishment.

Crop management: Throughout the production cycle, coffee plots require continuous management. This includes fertilization with organic and granulated fertilizers, complemented by foliar applications; planting and managing shade trees within agroforestry systems; pruning to control growth and maintain productivity; manual or limited chemical weed control; and pest and disease management through ongoing monitoring, sanitary practices, and targeted use of fungicides or insecticides.

Harvest and post-harvest: Ripe coffee cherries are typically picked by hand in Peru during the seasonal harvest period (see Appendix 7 for a coffee cultivation calendar). Collected fruit is transported in sacks to the collection center or place where the processing will be done.

Processing converts freshly harvested coffee cherries into beans ready for drying and export. While methods can vary by region, farm size, and desired characteristics, the general process includes several key steps. It begins with depulping, during which machines remove the outer skin and most of the pulp, leaving beans coated in mucilage, a sticky layer surrounding the coffee bean inside the coffee cherry. The beans then undergo fermentation in tanks, buckets, or pits for 12 to 48 hours to break down the mucilage, followed by thorough washing to ensure cleanliness and prevent off-flavors. Beans are then dried on patios, tarps, or solar dryers, with regular turning over 7 to 15 days to ensure uniform drying. Once dry, coffee is manually sorted to remove defective beans, packed into sacks (commonly 60 kg), and stored in dry, ventilated conditions. Final transport is coordinated with cooperatives or buyers, often involving manual handling due to difficult terrain. During the bulking stage, beans from different producers or lots are aggregated for shipment, often at cooperative warehouses or private collection centers, ensuring volume for export.

Coffee beans spread out on the sidewalk to dry. Source: ICF

A final step, roasting, may be also conducted in Peru, for either the domestic or the export market, though most coffee grown and processed in Peru is exported for blending and roasting in other parts of the world (Ramos, 2017).

The following sections present the actors involved in the supply chain process for producing coffee.

Fermentation and washing tanks used in coffee processing. Source: ICF

3.3.2 Smallholder Farmers

Smallholder farmers cultivating less than 5 hectares of land grow around 90% of the coffee produced in Peru. Such farmers take responsibility for aspects of coffee production between planting and harvesting, and may handle the initial processing steps, up to and including drying (U.S. Department of Agriculture Federal Agricultural Service, 2025a).

3.3.3 Cooperatives or Associations

Cooperatives and associations often assume processing tasks from smallholder farmers, including depulping, fermenting, washing, hulling, and drying (Ramos, 2017). Depending on the region, producers may be responsible for transporting coffee to collection centers, where cooperatives or associations consolidate and temporarily store beans before sending them to mills, which, as informants noted, is

common in Cajamarca. In other areas, such as Junín, sector experts reported that cooperatives may collect coffee directly from indigenous communities.

Given the small scale of most farming operations, cooperatives play a key role in helping smallholder farmers secure better prices and access specialty markets, often through organic or other certifications. More advanced cooperatives may also provide technical assistance and financial services, and can include thousands of smallholder members (U.S. Department of Agriculture Foreign Agricultural Service, 2025a). According to sector experts and stakeholders, coffee sold through cooperative systems typically retains some level of traceability, as buyers seek to verify the origins of the coffee they purchase.

The presence of coffee cooperatives in Peru has grown steadily, increasing from about 138 in 2019 to 184 in 2023—a 33% increase, with most of this expansion occurring in Junín. Despite this growth, as of 2021, only around 14% of coffee farmers nationwide were known to operate through cooperatives or associations, according to figures published by the Peruvian government (Ministerio de la Produccion, 2024).

The Junta de Café (National Coffee Board) serves as an umbrella organization for coffee cooperatives and associations. As of 2025, it counted 56 of Peru's coffee cooperatives as members, representing more than 70,000 farming families and providing them with training, technical assistance, and capacity-building programs. Table 4 lists the 10 largest cooperatives that disclosed their membership size through the Junta de Café.

Table 4. Ten largest disclosed cooperative members of the National Coffee Board

Cooperative	Members	Active in
Cocla[1]	3,500+	Cajamarca, Cusco, Puno
Cenfrocafe	3,000+	Bagua, Cajamarca
Sol & Café	1,160	Cajamarca
Cooperativa Agraria Cafetalera Divisoria	825	Huánuco, San Martín, Ucayali
Coop Inprocafe	681	Cajamarca
Andean Jungle Agrarian Cooperative	657	Amazonas, Cajamarca
Juan Santos Atahualpa	586	Junín
Aproselvanor	517	San Martín
Rodríguez de Mendoza Agrarian Cooperative	500+	Amazonas
Satipo Agrarian Coffee Cooperatives	500+	Junín

[1] Cocla is a consortium of 21 smaller cooperatives.
Source: Junta de Café

3.3.4 Other Intermediaries

Farmers may also sell all or part of their parchment coffee (coffee that has been dried but still retains a papery husk or "hull" around the beans) to informal intermediaries who travel directly to producers and pay the base commodity price set by international market exchanges. These buyers aggregate coffee from often remote locations and sell their collections directly to exporters (Ergon, 2023). Key informants indicated that this channel lacks traceability because different types of coffee are frequently mixed, limiting farmers' access to certifications. Sales through this route are primarily driven by producers' need for liquidity, as they often prioritize immediate payment—and savings on transportation costs—over the benefits of organized commerce through cooperative systems.

3.3.5 Exporters

After consolidation by collectors or cooperatives, coffee is typically exported as unroasted beans packed in 60 kg sacks. Peru ships most of its coffee internationally through the port of Paita, followed by the port of Callao, with more than 99% of exports in unroasted form. Table 5 lists the top 10 exporters of Peruvian coffee in 2024 (Junta del Café, 2024).

Table 5. Top 10 Peruvian coffee exporters, 2024

Company	Volume (MT)	F.o.b. value (USD)
Perales Huancaruna S.A.C.	33,379.00	$160,327,183
Olam Agro Perú S.A.C.	28,560.92	$116,105,334
Comercio Amazonia S.A.	19,255.94	$76,172,834
Compañia Internacional del Café Sociedad Anónima Cerrada	12,542.69	$$56,276,604
H.V.C. Exportaciones S.A.C.	11,334.58	$48,521,674
ED&F Man Volcafe Peru S.A.	7,495.89	$39,912,318
Negrisa S.A.C.	6,485.62	$30,710,088
Exportadora Romex S.A.	5,657.47	$26,074,477
Café Monteverde S.A.C.	3,944.91	$20,134,575
Cooperativa Agraria Norandino LTDA Coop Norandino	3,252.73	$18,283,315

f.o.b.=free on board
Source: Junta del Café; volume data converted from quintales for this chart

3.4 PERU COFFEE EXPORTS

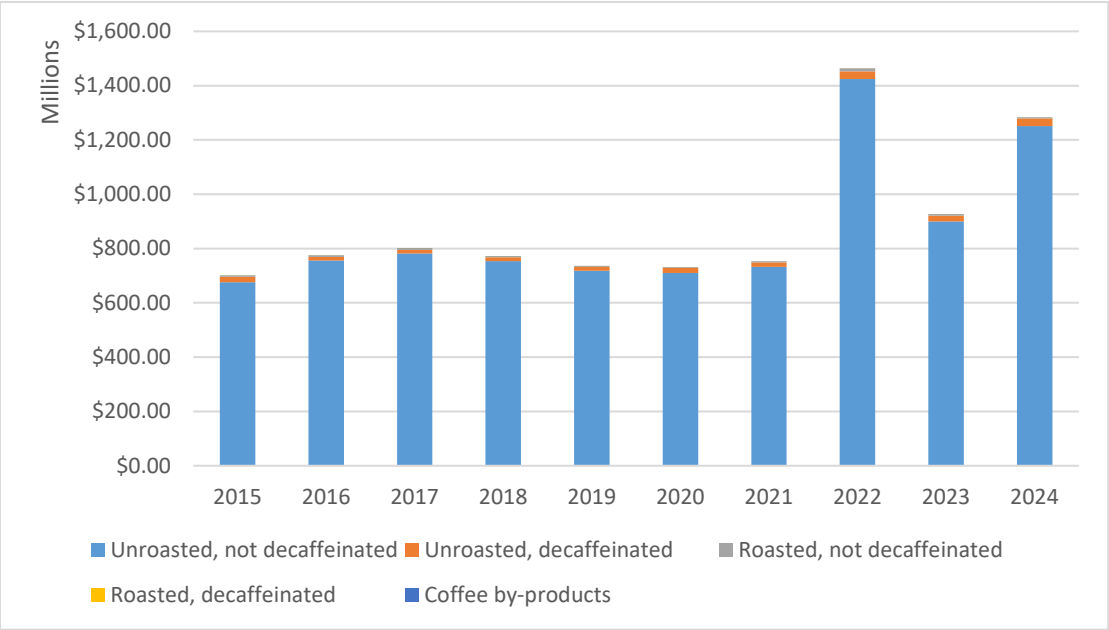
In 2024, Peru ranked 12th among exporters of coffee beans, whether roasted or unroasted, or caffeinated or decaffeinated. According to data from importing countries, Peru exported coffee beans worth $1,129,641,967, or around 2.5% of the global total of coffee beans by value (TDM, 2025). By far, the largest portion of these shipments were of raw, unroasted coffee that had not been decaffeinated (Figure 4). Peru shipped 4.5% of the global total of these beans, by value, ranking sixth (TDM, 2025).

Figure 4. Peruvian coffee exports compared to global total, by value

Source: TDM, 2025

As shown in Figure 5, Peru's coffee exports remained relatively steady from 2015 to 2021, with recent upturns in 2022 and 2024. In 2022, Peru exported 241,920 MT of green coffee beans, up 24.5% from 2011 (Delgado, 2023). The increase in 2022 can in part be explained by the release of stockpiled coffee from the previous year due to a shortage of container ships, which also allowed producers to take advantage of higher prices the following year (Delgado, 2023). Otherwise, researchers have attributed the export increases in recent years to increasing demand and increasing international coffee prices that incentivize producers to maximize their yields (USDA, 2024).

Figure 5. Growth of Peruvian coffee exports, by value, 2015–2024



Source: TDM, 2025

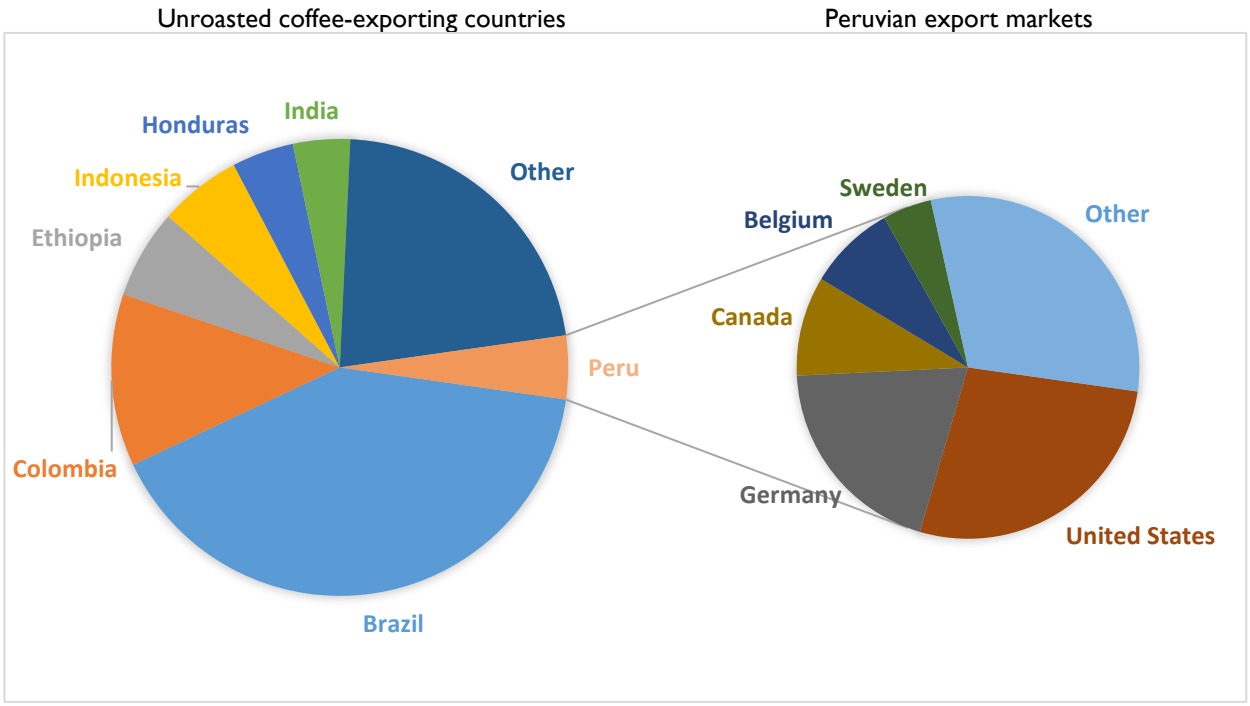
The United States was the top destination for Peru's coffee exports in general and was by far the top export destination for Peruvian exports of unroasted coffee. In 2024, the United States imported more than $341 million in raw coffee from Peru, representing more than 27% of Peru's total exports and an increase of 41% over the previous year (TDM, 2024). The United States has been the primary destination for Peru's unroasted coffee since 2014, when it overtook Germany. Germany was the second largest importer of Peru's unroasted coffee in 2024 (20%), followed by Canada (8%), Belgium (8%), and Sweden (5%) (TDM, 2025).

Although at much lower value ($26 million), the United States was also by far the primary importer of unroasted, decaffeinated coffee from Peru in 2024, importing nearly 94% of Peru's exports. No other country imported more than 2% of the remaining total. The United States has been the top importer of Peru's unroasted, decaffeinated coffee since 1995 (TDM, 2025).

As shown in Figure 6, Peru was one of the largest exporters of unroasted coffee worldwide in 2024, ranking seventh behind Brazil, Colombia, Ethiopia, Indonesia, Honduras, and India. According to data from importing countries, Peru ranked fifth in exports of unroasted decaffeinated coffee, after Germany, Canada, Mexico, Colombia, and Ethiopia (TDM, 2025).[3]

[3] Discrepancies in global trade data place Peru lower in the rankings when considering export figures alone. Peru reports exporting only a fraction of the unroasted, decaffeinated coffee that the United States reports importing. Possible reasons for this discrepancy include timing differences in record-keeping, classification issues (such as counting the coffee as unroasted but not decaffeinated), or shipments routed through third-party countries.

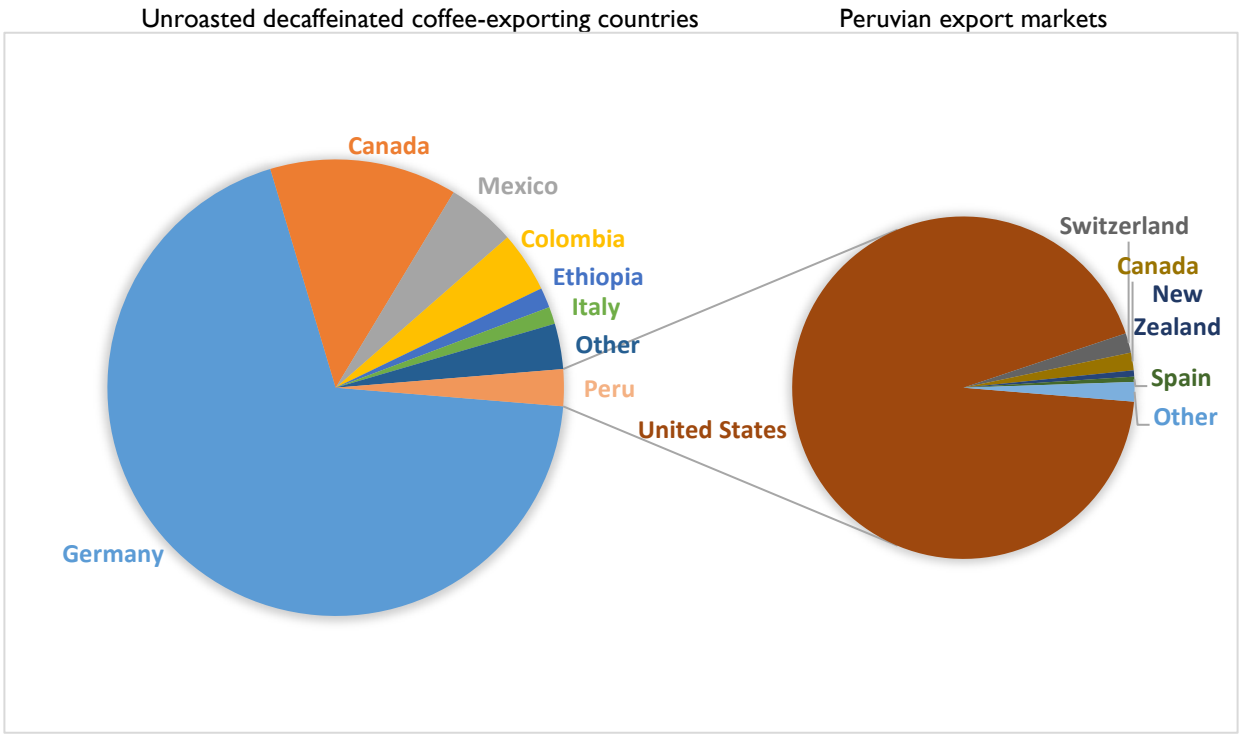
Figure 6. Top export markets by percentage for unroasted coffee, by value in 2024



Source: TDM, 2025. Harmonized System (HS) code: 0911.11

Although the United States is the main destination for Peru's unroasted coffee exports, Peru is only the fifth largest supplier of unroasted, non-decaffeinated coffee to the United States (5.5%), behind Brazil, Colombia, Guatemala, and Honduras. For unroasted, decaffeinated coffee imported by the United States, Peru ranks sixth (5.9%), trailing those same countries plus Germany (TDM, 2025) (Figure 7).

Figure 7. Top export markets by percentage for unroasted decaffeinated coffee, by value in 2024[4]



Source: TDM, 2025. HS code: 0901.12

Exports of roasted coffee (whether caffeinated or not) and coffee by-products (coffee substitutes containing coffee, or coffee husks and skins) represent insignificant amounts of Peru's exports. Peru represented less than 0.1% of world exports for each product, ranking 76th as an exporter of roasted coffee, 62nd as an exporter of roasted and decaffeinated coffee, and 26th as an exporter of coffee by-products (TDM, 2025). Although these by-products currently have limited commercial value, they hold emerging potential as biofuel. For instance, research on coffee husks has shown that they can be converted into briquettes that burn efficiently, are easy to transport, and reduce reliance on wood and charcoal (Center for Circular Economy in Coffee, n.d.).

Beyond general volume trends, the Peruvian export market is increasingly defined by the robust demand for certified sustainable and organic coffees, particularly in the United States. Peru has established itself as a global leader in organic coffee exports, maintaining approximately 90,000 hectares of certified production area to meet the "premiumization" of the North American market (PromPerú, 2025; U.S. Department of Agriculture Foreign Agricultural Service, 2025a). U.S. buyers and buyers in other major importing countries increasingly prioritize Fair Trade and Rainforest Alliance certifications to align with consumer preferences for ethical sourcing (Fuller & Grebitus, 2023; Merbah & Benito-Hernández, 2024). In the 2024/25 market year, the average export price for Peruvian coffee to the United States reached $236 per 60 kg bag, notably higher than the global average of $229, reflecting a market willingness to pay for differentiated, certified beans (U.S. Department of Agriculture Foreign Agricultural Service, 2025a).

[4] In 2024, the United States was also the top importer of unroasted, decaffeinated coffee from Germany (41.6%) and the third largest importer from Canada (12.5%). Peru was the seventh largest source of unroasted coffee for Germany (5.8%) and the third largest source of unroasted coffee for Canada (11.3%) (TDM, 2025).

3.5 U.S. COMPANIES MARKETING COFFEE FROM PERU

Peruvian origin coffee has been gaining in popularity with U.S.-based roasters. While blended coffees from Peru remain in demand, single-origin coffee from Peru is increasingly popular, in part due to the unique flavors derived from the diverse micro-climates in coffee-growing areas (Grand View Research, 2025; U.S. Department of Agriculture Foreign Agricultural Service, 2025a).

Reliable statistics on the share of Peruvian coffee labeled as "single-origin" are scarce. However, as noted elsewhere in this report, Peru is among the world's top producers of organic Arabica coffee, which supports the viability of single-origin marketing (U.S. Department of Agriculture Foreign Agricultural Service, 2025a). That said, "single-origin" is not a legally regulated label; it can denote origin from a single farm, cooperative, region, or entire country. Such claims may imply greater traceability than blends, but the term's use is inconsistent and largely determined by individual specialty coffee producers (Counter Culture Coffee, 2025a; Current Crop Roasting Shop, 2025; Ebru Coffee Co., 2025; Walhout, 2023). Statistics on the global marketing of single-origin coffee are scarce, but the specialty coffee market as a whole—originating from Peru and elsewhere—has shown steady growth that outpaces the industry overall, despite conventional coffee's majority share of the U.S. market (more than 53% in 2024) (Mordor Intelligence, 2025).

Of the largest companies selling coffee in the United States, several disclose—or have in the past disclosed—selling coffee from Peru, as shown in Table 6. At the same time, many other companies purchase unroasted beans for processing and distribution in the United States. Estimates suggest that as many as 2,000 coffee roasters operate in the United States, including many small, specialty roasters operating alongside larger multi-national roasters and retailers (Mordor Intelligence, 2025).

Table 6. Top U.S. coffee retailers

Company	Examples of coffee products from Peru
Nestlé	Nespresso "Peru Organic 50" capsules
Starbucks	Seasonal single-origin "Reserve" Peru Amazonas Huambo line
Keurig Dr. Pepper (Green Mountain Coffee)	Green Mountain Organic Peru Cajamarca K-Cup
JDE Peet's	Peru Cajamarca Organic and Peru Organic del Norte
J.M. Smucker (Café Bustelo, Dunkin', Folgers, Medagalia d'Oro, Pilon)	Blended coffee from Brazil, Colombia, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, and Peru

Source: Mordor Intelligence; Nestlé, Starbucks, Keurig Dr. Pepper, JDE Peet's, J.M. Smucker

3.6 CERTIFICATION PROGRAMS COVERING COFFEE PRODUCED IN PERU

Some coffee is certified, meaning that it is intended to meet defined standards for sustainability, environmental stewardship, and labor rights, as verified by a third party.

Certification programs vary, spanning environmentally focused standards such as USDA Organic and European Union Organic, as well as social and sustainability programs, like those operated by Fairtrade International and Rainforest Alliance. According to the main certification bodies that assess coffee supply chains against these criteria, only a fraction of global output is certified. For example, Fairtrade International reported certifying 578,000 MT of coffee in 2023, and Rainforest Alliance reported certifying 1.7 million MT in 2024, down from 1.78 million in 2023 (Fairtrade International, n.d.; Rainforest Alliance, 2025).

The following sections present certification schemes common in the Peruvian coffee sector: Organic, Fairtrade International, Rainforest Alliance, and Fair Trade USA.

3.6.1 Organic

Peru leads the world in certified organic coffee exports, with around 27% of Peru's overall 335,000 hectares of coffee cultivation (90,000 hectares) certified for organic production (U.S. Department of Agriculture Foreign Agricultural Service, 2025a). However, neither European Union nor USDA organic standards impose labor requirements as part of their certification process (ECFR, 2025; EUR-Lex, 2018). A third-party certification by the Regenerative Organic Alliance requires a labor rights assessment under its "Farmer and Farmworker Fairness" pillar; however, this certification is rare in Peru, with the Regenerative Organic Alliance listing only one certified cooperative in the country (ROA, n.d.)

To meet buyer demands for fair labor assurances, coffee producers in Peru seek certification from other organizations, such as Fairtrade International and Rainforest Alliance, resulting in significant overlap between farms pursuing certification for both organic and fair labor practices (U.S. Department of Agriculture Foreign Agricultural Service, 2025a).

3.6.2 Fairtrade International

Fairtrade International is a certification initiative aimed at improving working conditions and quality of life for small producers in developing countries through ethical and sustainable practices. Coffee is only one of the sectors covered by Fairtrade certification; other sectors relevant to Peru include cocoa, quinoa, sugar, and fresh fruits, such as bananas, grapes, and mangoes (Fairtrade International, 2025c).

In 2023, the latest year for which figures are available, farmers in Peru cultivated more coffee under the Fairtrade International certification than any other labor-inclusive certification scheme, with more than 62,000 farmers producing 131,071 MT of coffee (Fairtrade International, 2025a). In 2024, Peru ranked third globally in the number of Fairtrade-certified coffee farmers, behind Colombia and Ethiopia. The 62,000 Fairtrade coffee farmers in Peru belonged to 164 cooperatives affiliated with the Fairtrade system and cultivated more than 164,000 hectares of land (Fairtrade International, 2025a). Of the 131,000 MT of Fairtrade coffee produced, more than 115,000 MT were also certified organic (Fairtrade International, 2025a).

3.6.2.1 Fairtrade International Standards

To become Fairtrade International certified, a producer organization must commit to Fairtrade standards and pass an initial audit conducted by FLOCERT, the system's certifying body. After certification, producer groups undergo at least two additional audits during a three-year cycle, with possible unannounced audits if complaints arise (Fairtrade International, 2025c).

Fairtrade/FLOCERT standards for small producing organizations include requirements related to several labor issues that align with ILO standards, including health and safety standards, protections against discrimination, and protections for freedom of association. Environmental requirements include bans on hazardous chemicals and measures for soil and water conservation, deforestation prevention, and climate resilience (FLOCERT, 2025).

Fairtrade/FLOCERT standards include prohibitions against child labor and forced labor, with specific requirements that aim to ensure compliance. To safeguard against child labor, certified producing organizations must:

- Annually assess child labor risk in their sector
- Prohibit employment of children under age 15
- Prohibit hazardous labor for children under age 18
- Ensure that any family farm labor conducted by children under age 15 is age-appropriate, does not interfere with schooling, and does not include long hours or hazardous conditions

- Establish and implement policies for monitoring, remediating, and preventing child labor
- Commit to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child framework in making decisions about how to protect children (FLOCERT, 2025)

Detection and remediation systems should be participatory, involving youth and communities. Cooperatives must train workers and families on children's rights, risks of child labor, and grievance mechanisms. Non-compliance can lead to suspension or cancellation of certification and mandatory corrective measures (Fairtrade International, 2025c).

To maintain integrity, Fairtrade requires traceability through physical separation and record-keeping. Coffee from different Fairtrade farms may be mixed, but never with non-Fairtrade products (FLOCERT, 2025).

3.6.2.2 Fairtrade Price Guarantees and Premiums

Fairtrade certification guarantees producers a minimum price to shield them from market fluctuations and provides an additional premium for each unit of coffee sold. This premium, funded by buyers, is managed collectively by producer organizations and invested in community projects or other democratically chosen initiatives (Fairtrade International, 2025c).

In 2023, Peruvian cooperatives allocated the largest share of Fairtrade premium funds (34%) to administration and logistics, supporting the renewal of certification. Direct payments to members accounted for 18%, increasing farmers' income per kilogram. Additional funds supported farmer training (10%), infrastructure (9%), and inputs like organic fertilizers (9%). Remaining funds were directed toward women's participation and on-farm programs for soil protection, crop diversification, and replanting (Fairtrade International, 2025b).

Despite producing 131,000 MT of Fairtrade coffee in 2023, only 49,000 MT were sold under Fairtrade terms that guarantee the premium, highlighting a significant gap between certified production and actual market demand (Fairtrade International, 2025b).

3.6.3 Rainforest Alliance

Rainforest Alliance is an international non-profit organization that certifies agricultural production against rigorous sustainability standards, evaluating environmental, social, and economic criteria. Originally focused on forest protection, Rainforest Alliance expanded its scope over time, and its 2018 merger with the Utz certification system strengthened its commitment to labor standards and human rights due diligence (Rainforest Alliance, 2020b). In Peru, Rainforest Alliance certifies not only coffee but also other crops, such as cocoa, bananas, and various fruits.

In 2023, Peruvian farmers produced 92,362 MT of Rainforest Alliance-certified coffee, increasing to 114,745 MT in 2024, cultivated by approximately 38,000 farmers (Rainforest Alliance, 2025b). Peru led Central and South America in the number of farmers producing Rainforest-certified coffee in 2023. These mostly smallholder farmers managed more than 105,000 hectares of certified cropland—second only to Brazil in Latin America—and employed nearly 150,000 workers, far surpassing the 31,000 employed in Brazil's more mechanized coffee sector (Rainforest Alliance, 2021). Of the 114,000 MT produced in 2024, 42,400 MT were sold as Rainforest-certified coffee (Rainforest Alliance, 2025).

3.6.3.1 Rainforest Alliance Standards

To obtain certification, producer organizations must comply with the Rainforest Alliance Sustainable Agriculture Standard and undergo an initial audit by accredited independent bodies. Certification is valid for three years, but farms face annual surveillance audits and occasional unannounced inspections in high-risk areas for issues such as child labor or deforestation (Rainforest Alliance, 2020a).

The standards address environmental and labor issues, require traceability of certified products, and provide guidance on farm management, grievance mechanisms, and eligibility for price premiums. Coffee traceability can follow two approaches: Identity Preserved, which maintains origin at the farm level, or Segregation, which allows mixing certified beans from different farms while keeping them separate from conventional beans (Rainforest Alliance, 2025a).

Rainforest Alliance applies an "assess and address" model aligned with ILO conventions (Rainforest Alliance, 2025a). Its core requirements for identifying, preventing, and remediating child labor include the following:

- **Commitment:** Training workers and raising awareness among cooperative management on what constitutes child labor and how to address it
- **Risk mitigation:** Conducting child labor risk assessments and implementing preventive measures where risks are identified
- **Monitoring:** Tracking the effectiveness of mitigation efforts and reporting any potential cases of child labor to cooperative management and grievance committees
- **Remediation:** Ensuring safety and confidentiality for affected children and providing remedies consistent with Rainforest Alliance's Remediation Guidance and Child Labor Toolkit (Rainforest Alliance, 2025)

If prohibited child labor is detected, cooperatives must implement a remediation plan within 12 weeks. This includes documenting cases, removing the child from work, assigning responsibilities, engaging civil society or authorities, and training families on children's rights (Rainforest Alliance, 2020c). Longer-term measures may involve schooling support, income-generating activities for parents, or connections to government programs (Rainforest Alliance, 2020c).

3.6.3.2 Rainforest Alliance Premiums

Rainforest Alliance does not provide farmers with a minimum price guarantee, but Rainforest buyers do pay a premium (called a "sustainability differential") above market price that producers may use as they wish. Buyers must also support sustainability improvements identified in farm investment action plans (Rainforest Alliance, 2025a). Although a comprehensive accounting of how Peruvian cooperatives use their premiums is not available, a case study from Cajamarca, Peru, highlighted how farmers invested in productivity and climate resilience (Rainforest Alliance, 2021).

3.6.4 Fair Trade USA

Fair Trade USA operates a certification program that combines requirements for environmental protection, labor rights, and product traceability. Like Fairtrade International and Rainforest Alliance, its standards aim to promote sustainable practices and improve conditions for workers and producers (Fair Trade USA, n.d.).

Producer organizations seeking Fair Trade USA certification must comply with its standards and undergo an initial audit, followed by surveillance audits every two to three years. These audits are typically announced (Fair Trade USA, n.d.). Traceability requirements mandate that certified coffee be kept separate from non-certified coffee throughout the supply chain (Fair Trade USA, 2019).

Fair Trade USA enforces international labor standards, including prohibitions on child labor. All workers must meet legal working age requirements, and young workers are protected from hazardous tasks. Children of workers must have access to safe spaces and adequate childcare. Any child labor violations are treated as zero-tolerance issues and must be remediated immediately in accordance with Fair Trade USA guidance, which does not appear to be publicly available online.

Unlike Fairtrade International, Fair Trade USA does not guarantee a minimum price. However, buyers pay a Fair Trade premium into a community development fund managed by the cooperative or producer

group. These funds are intended for projects that benefit workers and their communities (Fair Trade USA, n.d.).

Fair Trade USA certifies coffee produced in Peru, as identified in its partner directories, but it does not provide public dashboards of production data like Fairtrade International and Rainforest Alliance. In 2025, Fair Trade USA identified 117 producer partners in Peru, including smallholder cooperatives, large traders, and exporters (Fair Trade USA, 2025).

3.6.5 Overlapping Programs, Gaps, and Limitations

Due to market demand by buyers of the different competing certifications described above, many cooperatives in Peru maintain membership in more than one program. For instance, the three largest cooperatives—Cocla, Cenfrocafe, and Sol & Café—representing more than 7,500 farmers, maintain certifications from all three major fair labor-focused organizations (FLOCERT, 2025; Rainforest Alliance, 2025; Fair Trade USA, 2025).

Although each labor-focused program requires members to uphold high standards and undergo regular audits (Table 7), none guarantees a supply chain free from child labor or other labor rights violations. Instead, these certifications provide frameworks for prevention, guidance on remediation, and incentives for compliance to maintain certification (Fairtrade International, 2025; Rainforest Alliance, 2025; Fair Trade USA; 2025).

All three programs require physical separation of certified beans from non-certified beans. Although key informants noted that farm-level traceability is possible in Peru, it is not mandated by these certifications. Importantly, the "mass balance" system—in which goods are tracked only by volume—is prohibited for coffee under all three schemes (Fairtrade International, 2025; Rainforest Alliance, 2025; Fair Trade USA).

Key informants reported that significant gaps remain between certified production and certified sales. Many farmers cannot sell all their certified beans at a premium, reducing incentives to maintain costly certification requirements. One cooperative manager explained:

> *"We've already left Fairtrade, because, since we're small, it raises our costs too much. And besides, the international market, with these prices so high […] [buyers say] 'I won't be able to pay you for your fair trade. Let's make a [different] deal.' […] So, if they don't respect it, what's the point of having the Fairtrade certification? And we've dropped it."*
>
> *—Cooperative manager, Junín*

However, other key informants described the importance of having certifications, as they provide access to international buyers willing to pay better prices. Many farmers recognize that holding certifications allows them to sell their coffee at a higher price than conventional coffee. A company technician explained:

> *"Working with conventional coffee [the difference] mainly comes down to the price, the price is lower than organic coffee, or coffee that has certifications. Any coffee with certifications commands a certain price. Conventional coffee, on the other hand, is lower quality and gets a lower price."*
>
> *—Company technician, Cajamarca*

Finally, low cooperative participation—around 14% of farmers—limits the reach of certification programs that rely on these organizations. In Peru, where coffee production is dominated by smallholders, this means most farmers remain outside the certification system (Ministerio de la Produccion, 2024).

Table 7. Certification methodologies

Company name	Membership in Peru	Certified volume bought from Peru	Audit frequency	Child labor requirements	Premium	Traceability
Fairtrade International	164 cooperatives, with 62,000 farmers	49,000 tons	3x in 3-year cycle + unannounced audits in response to complaints	Risk assessments, adherence to international standards[1] and local law, participatory remediation if child labor is found, involving youth and communities	Minimum price guarantee, buyers pay Fairtrade premium	Physical segregation of Fairtrade beans required; certified lots may be blended; mass balance not permitted for coffee
Rainforest Alliance	38,000 farms with 150,000 workers	42,400 tons	3-year cycle, annual surveillance audits, additional audits in high-risk areas	Risk assessments, adherence to international standards[1] and local law, 12-week remediation following Rainforest's "assess and address" approach if child labor is found	No minimum price guarantee, buyers pay "sustainability differential" and invest in improvements	Physical segregation of Rainforest beans required; optional "Identity Preserved" method preserves traceability to farmer; certified lots may be blended; mass balance not permitted for coffee
Fair Trade USA	117 producer partners (includes traders and exporters)	Not disclosed	3-year cycle, 2nd audit within 2–3 years after initial certification	Risk assessments, adherence to international standards[1] and local law, child labor specifically defined as a "zero-tolerance" issue requiring immediate remediation if found	No minimum price guarantee, buyers pay Fair Trade premium	Physical segregation of Fair Trade beans required; certified lots may be blended; mass balance not permitted for coffee

[1] Consistent with ILO Conventions 138 and 182: No hired work under age 15, no hazardous work under age 18, family farmwork permitted only if it does not interfere with schooling
Source: Fairtrade International, Rainforest Alliance, Fair Trade International

3.7 TRACEABILITY OF PERU COFFEE

The dominance of smallholder farmers in Peru creates significant challenges for coffee traceability. Limited technical capacity and the aggregation of small volumes from numerous sources make it difficult to track coffee through the supply chain. Researchers from Universidad Peruana de Ciencias Aplicadas in Lima have noted that in Peru, "[t]he value of coffee is decreasing in the international market due to the poor traceability that coffee cooperatives offer to the rest of the actors in the production chain," citing weak paper-based record-keeping, fraud, corruption, and lack of trust among supply chain actors (Garcia, 2022).

Although some cooperatives use inventory management software to track coffee flow, key informants reported that paper-based record-keeping remains far more common. Farmers typically record harvest figures in notebooks and later receive written receipts for their deliveries. As one cooperative manager explained:

> *"During harvest, we give the producer a producer's notebook called an activity log, where they record their harvest. After their harvest, when that coffee arrives at the organization, we issue a document that is linked to it [the harvest]."*
>
> *—Cooperative manager, Cajamarca*

At the same time, coffee from various sources can be mixed at multiple stages, including during collection from rural areas, during the drying process, and during the dry processing stages of hulling and milling. Moreover, key informants noted that producers may misrepresent the origin of beans prior to collection:

> *"Some mixing can occur by the producer themselves who might pass [beans that are not theirs] sometimes when they're careless or might work with private individuals who aren't organic [and mix their beans with organic beans]. So, there can be a type of mixing there."*
>
> *—Cooperative technician, Cajamarca*

Several key informants highlighted the stronger traceability of certified supply chains, noting that buyers value bean segregation enough to invest in the tracing systems maintained by certification organizations. They described participating in systems that assign an identification code to each sack of coffee or that label sacks with farmers' names. However, individual farmer traceability is typically lost once beans are mixed at the cooperative warehouse—unless a buyer requests otherwise— at which point only the total contribution from each member is recorded.

> *"When we mix [the coffee], we still know how much each [cooperative] member delivered. For example, 'Francisco delivered 3 bags, 4 bags, 5 bags, or 15 kilos, 20 kilos.' We do know that. It's all recorded."*
>
> *—Cooperative general manager, Junín*

In general, key informants described traceability primarily as a quality control mechanism driven by buyer demand, ensuring that purchasers receive the type and quality of beans they expect. For example, one cooperative manager described how lower-quality beans are more readily mixed, while specialty beans, such as honey and natural coffee microlots, maintain the farmer's name on the sack "all the way to the end" at the mill in Lima, where the cooperative ships its beans.

> *"[Farmers] bring [coffee] labeled and identified from the field to the collection center in Jaén. Once in Jaén, that coffee is identified, it undergoes [quality control] analysis, and after analysis, that coffee is shipped to the processing plant. […] [There], it is likewise labeled according to quality grades and is taken […] to the ship—and that's the traceability process […]. From there, the roaster takes over."*
>
> *—Cooperative technician, Cajamarca*

When researchers raised the topic of traceability with key informants, most focused on the requirements of the European Union Deforestation Regulation, which came into force in 2025, rather than on traceability linked to labor-focused programs. The European Union Deforestation Regulation has significantly increased interest in impact-oriented traceability. In response, recent pilot projects in Peru, announced by two United Nations agencies, the World Wildlife Fund, and microfinance impact investors, aim to strengthen the technical capacity of cooperatives and producers to trace supply chains and comply with international regulations (ADA Microfinance, 2025; United Nations Trade and Development, 2024; WWF Peru, 2025).

Despite these advances, cooperative representatives highlighted persistent challenges that could hinder progress. Informal land transfers complicate efforts to trace coffee back to its original farmer. Cooperative representatives also expressed frustration over foreign buyers from other Latin American

countries purchasing Peruvian coffee and reselling it as their own, creating another barrier to full traceability from farm to end user.

3.8 LABOR FINDINGS

Child labor in coffee production is widespread in both Cajamarca and Junín and is largely normalized within family farming systems. Among adult survey respondents, 83% identified at least one child who worked alongside them in coffee production. Adolescents were most commonly involved, but participation was also reported among children as young as age five.

Harvesting was the primary activity for children (84%), and work intensity increased with age. Based on ILO criteria related to hazards and working hours, 84% of focal children met the definition of child labor. Older children—particularly boys—worked longer hours and were exposed to more occupational risks. On average, children worked 13.3 hours per week, and this increased to 19.7 hours among those aged 15–17.

While most children continue attending school, 9% of focal children were reported to have missed school due to coffee work, and qualitative evidence indicates that some adolescents eventually drop out to work full time. Risks were especially pronounced for children working as hired laborers on third-party farms, particularly among indigenous youth in Junín.

Exposure to occupational hazards was common. Nearly half of focal children used sharp tools (45%), and 36% were reported to have been injured or sick due to work, most often from respiratory illness or cuts. Certification was associated with comparatively better outcomes: children on certified farms worked fewer hours, faced fewer hazards, and were less likely to miss school or experience injury than those on non-certified farms.

The sections that follow present these findings in greater detail, beginning with the characteristics of adult survey respondents and their work, and then examining the drivers, nature, and consequences of children's participation in coffee production.

3.8.1 Characteristics of Adult Survey Respondents

The survey sample consisted of 127 adult respondents who had participated in coffee production in the past year. Respondents were mostly male (59%) and middle-aged (76% between ages 25 to 54; average age: 42) (Table 8[5]). Two-thirds were parents (66%). Nearly half did not complete secondary school (46%), and 54% finished secondary or higher. The proportion completing secondary school was higher in Junín (61%) than in Cajamarca (48%).

Most respondents reported speaking only Spanish (77%). Quechua[6] was the most common additional language spoken by respondents (20%). A smaller share reported speaking Asháninka[7] (2%). All but one of the indigenous language speakers were located in Junín.

[5] For all tables: Missing responses ("don't know" and "refused") are excluded from the denominator for estimates unless otherwise noted. Each row presents both an estimate and the numerator, denoted by "n," associated with the estimate. The denominator, denoted by "N," is included at the bottom of tables in which all rows have the same denominator, and it is presented in the final column of the row in tables in which rows have varying denominators (due to question filters or subgroup analysis).

[6] Quechua is an indigenous language widely spoken in the Andean highlands and is closely tied to communities with deep cultural and historical roots in Peru's rural regions, including many coffee-growing areas.

[7] Asháninka is an Amazonian indigenous language.

Table 8. Respondent background characteristics

	%	n
Age (years)		
18–24	6%	8
25–39	43%	54
40–54	34%	43
55+	17%	22
Sex		
Male	59%	75
Female	41%	52
Parent to 5-17 year old		
Yes	66%	84
No	34%	43
Education		
Some primary	13%	16
Completed primary	20%	25
Some secondary	13%	17
Completed secondary	36%	46
Some or completed higher technical or university	18%	23
Language spoken in addition to Spanish		
None	77%	98
Quechua	20%	25
Asháninka	2%	3
English	1%	1
Number of respondents (N)		**127**

The sample included both self-employed farmers, most of whom worked on their own farms (hereafter referred to as *producers*) and hired workers: 57% were producers, and 43% hired workers (Table 9). Regional variation is notable: Junín had more producers (72%) than Cajamarca (43%). This reflects seasonal timing. Junín was in the late harvest stage ("raspa") at the time of data collection, when demand for hired labor drops and families finish remaining tasks themselves. In Cajamarca, the harvest starts later, so more hired workers were included in the sample. Particularly in Cajamarca, many coffee farmers fulfill both roles over the course of a year. Harvests start earlier in lowlands, so highland residents work as day laborers there. Later, when highland harvests begin, lowland residents take similar roles. Respondents reported their primary role at the time of the interview.

Sixty-one percent of respondents worked for a land owner, 26% for a contractor, 6% for a field supervisor, and 5% for a company. Nearly one-fourth of respondents reported that they relocated temporarily for their coffee job.

Most respondents indicated that harvesting (84%) was their main coffee production activity, followed by weeding (6%), drying (4%), and washing (2%), with similar patterns across regions. Differences appear by role: all hired workers harvest, often combined with drying or bagging. Most producers also harvest, but they perform a broader range of tasks than hired workers, including washing, drying, and depulping.

Nearly half (46%) worked on certified farms. Thirty-nine percent worked on organic farms, 22% on Fairtrade or Fair Trade[8] certified farms, and 15% on Rainforest Alliance certified farms. Less commonly reported certifications included *Sello Libre de Trabajo Infantil* (SELTI, or Child Labor Free Seal) (9%) and

[8] Respondents did not differentiate between Fairtrade International and Fair Trade USA.

Biodynamic[9] (2%). Three respondents indicated that their worksites were certified but they did not know which certification. Forty-three percent of respondents worked on uncertified farms. Eleven percent of respondents did not know whether their worksite was certified or not.

Table 9. Respondent work characteristics

	%	n
Works for employer or self		
Employer (hired worker)	43%	54
Self (producer)	57%	73
Boss is…		
Land owner	61%	33
Contractor	26%	14
Field supervisor	6%	4
Company	5%	3
Relocated temporarily for coffee work[1]		
Yes	22%	28
No	78%	98
Primary coffee farming activity		
Harvesting	84%	107
Weeding	6%	8
Drying	4%	5
Washing	2%	3
Other	3%	4
Certification		
Certified[2]	46%	59
Organic	39%	49
Fairtrade/Fair Trade	22%	28
Rainforest Alliance	15%	19
SELTI	9%	12
Biodynamic	2%	3
Other	1%	1
Don't know type	2%	3
Not certified	43%	54
Don't know whether certified or not	11%	14
Number of respondents (N)		**127**

[1] Analysis excludes one respondent who responded "don't know."
[2] Multiple types of certification possible.

3.8.2 Potential Drivers of Child Labor

Adult survey respondents were asked what they perceived as the main reasons for children's involvement in coffee production. The most common reason was children's desire to earn their own money (73%), followed by paying for school expenses (37%) (Table 10). When asked how they spend their earnings, a group of children aged 9–11 mentioned food, school supplies, shoes, candy, and saving in their piggy banks. Older children mentioned clothing and food, but also school-related activities that their parents cannot afford, such as the graduation trip at the end of secondary education.

The other main reasons given by adult survey respondents for children's involvement in coffee production included learning skills or preparing for future work (33%), poverty or hunger (31%), and the

[9] These farmers were likely referring to Demeter Biodynamic certification, described as "a form of sustainable, wholesome agriculture" (https://demeter.net/certification/standard/). This certification also includes a Social Responsibility Standard that prohibits child labor. Statistics on how common this certification is in Peru, or more broadly, could not be found.

cultural expectation that children will work (21%). Ten percent of respondents reported that children's participation is needed to meet production quotas (21% of respondents in Cajamarca and none in Junín). However, qualitative interviews indicated that meeting quotas is a reason for children's involvement in coffee production in both regions.

Table 10. Adult respondent perspectives on why children work[1]

	%	n
Children want to earn money	72%	91
To pay school costs	37%	46
To learn skills or prepare for future work	33%	42
Poverty/hunger	31%	39
Cultural expectation that children work/help	21%	27
Children can't be left alone/lack of childcare	11%	14
Child labor needed to meet quota	10%	13
Other	10%	12
Number of respondents (N)		**126**

[1] Multiple responses possible.

Hired workers were also asked about their own work circumstances to uncover potential drivers of children's involvement in coffee production. One-fifth of these respondents were in debt to their employer. Among the 11 in debt to their employer, 2 reported manipulation of debt. Three reported changing their working patterns to repay the debt, including working additional days or hours, taking an additional job, and hiring extra adult support. Thirteen percent worked under a production quota. One respondent considered the quota unreasonable for an individual working alone and reported working additional hours to meet the quota. None of the respondents reported using the work of children to help repay debt or meet the quota.

As mentioned previously, many coffee-growing families live in poverty with limited infrastructure and access to basic services (Ministerio de la Produccion, 2024; Vargas & Willem, 2017). Nearly half (47%) of respondents indicated that income from coffee production is insufficient to cover their families' basic needs. This economic pressure may lead some families to involve their children in coffee farming as a way to supplement household earnings.

The qualitative findings provide deeper insight into these drivers and reveal the complex cultural and economic factors that normalize and encourage the participation of children and adolescents in coffee production.

A major economic driver of children's participation is the shortage of agricultural workers during the harvest, a problem worsened by rising labor costs. Families often rely on children to meet production quotas when workers are scarce. As one female producer in Junín explained:

> *"Right now we're in the late harvest period. [My children, ages 9 and 11] help us harvest coffee in the final stages because there are no harvesters left. People only want to harvest when it's abundant [peak of the harvest season]. When there isn't much coffee, they don't want to work anymore. [...] This year it's been the same—having to look for workers from other areas because there are very few here in the area."*
>
> *—Producer in Junín*

The problem intensifies when coffee prices fall, making it harder to hire labor. Under these conditions, child's involvement in coffee production becomes a pragmatic solution for families struggling to finish the harvest.

Beyond economic pressures, cultural norms strongly influence children's participation in coffee farming. A common expectation is that children help parents as a form of reciprocity for their sacrifices. One producer explained:

"They do help you. […] Sometimes one as a parent says, 'Try to help me […] the gain will be for everyone.' […] Parents make an effort to give you an education and the least you can do is reciprocate."

—Producer in Cajamarca

Work is also seen as character-building and a safeguard against idleness. As one hired worker noted:

"Well, I take my oldest son, always so that he knows the values of, since I'm a father, maybe, tomorrow or later maybe he won't continue studying, he'll end up like me and he'll know the values, what sacrifice is like in the countryside, on the farm, or sometimes you work, you go to another place and he'll already know what farm work is."

—Hired worker in Junín

This belief that work prevents moral degradation leads some parents to prefer having their children accompany them to the farm, even in activities that may not be entirely safe, rather than leaving them idle at home or in the community. When asked what activities would be acceptable for his teenage son to help with, and whether there were any he would not want his son doing, one producer responded:

"It's worse to let him go down bad paths, maybe to drink, even if it's bad friends, to do drugs. Better that he goes to the farm. To help me with whatever it is, clearing brush, fumigation [spraying of chemicals to control pests and weeds], everything. It's better, as I said, to have them close. It's better that they're at the farm helping."

—Producer in Cajamarca

Some parents adopt strategies to protect their children from exploitative conditions while allowing them to contribute and learn agricultural skills in a controlled setting. One approach is paying children for work on the family farm to discourage them from seeking jobs elsewhere, where supervision and safety may be lacking. As one producer in Cajamarca explained:

"We need the money, but they also must study and there's no time, plus I'm afraid. Around here it's quiet, but things can happen. And I want them to have a career. If they start working for someone else, they're going to like the money."

—Producer in Cajamarca

This producer pays her children per can, the same rate as day laborers (10 soles; $3), so they can buy personal items like sneakers or headphones. This strategy reflects a nuanced risk-management approach: ensuring time for school, reducing exposure to unsafe environments, and preventing attachment to wage work that could derail education. By paying her children, she meets economic needs while keeping them under supervision and controlling work hours—a middle path that balances family income, safety, and educational priorities.

Interviewees also discussed the importance of teaching children skills related to coffee farming. One association administrator noted that it is better for children to engage in coffee activities in age-appropriate ways rather than focus only on urban jobs, concluding:

"It's better for them to be involved in the activity, for children to take an interest from a young age, to see that coffee farming is also a profitable activity, an activity that can generate future benefits for them."

—Association administrator in Cajamarca

3.8.3 Voluntary Participation and Parental Expectations

The vast majority of interviewees agreed that children's participation in coffee production is voluntary and rarely forced. One producer explained that children have more autonomy now compared to the past. When asked whether children are forced to work in coffee production, he replied:

"No, no, that doesn't happen here. No. That time is over, that doesn't exist here anymore. No one gives orders like that. […] But before, the older people used to say it did happen."

—Producer in Cajamarca

Despite this consensus, some adults acknowledged occasional cases in which parents compel children to work or demand significant contributions to family production. When asked whether anyone has ever done something to make her work harder or faster, an 11-year-old responded:

"Yes. [They told me] that I should harvest fast with both hands. […] Sometimes my mom tells me: 'You should fill 3 or 4 cans.' […] Sometimes I don't get there that fast."

—Child (age 11) in Junín

Thus, although children's involvement in coffee production is generally voluntary, there are clear expectations that children assist their parents, particularly older children. Younger children face fewer hours and lower expectations, and their participation is often entirely voluntary. In several cases, parents mentioned that their children decide when to start and stop working. However, this autonomy does not apply to all children and adolescents, and some are expected to meet harvest quotas before leaving the farm.

3.8.4 Characteristics of Focal Children and Their Work

Adult survey respondents were asked to identify a child who worked alongside them in coffee production and provide additional information about that child. Of 127 respondents, 106 (83%) selected at least one such child as the focal child for the survey. As shown in Table 11, the focal children in the study ranged in age, from 5 to 17 years old, with the largest proportion (51%) between 15 and 17 years old. Children aged 5–11 accounted for 27%, and those aged 12–14 represented 22%. Most focal children were boys (74%), and girls comprised 26%.

Harvesting was the primary work activity for the majority of focal children (84%), followed by drying (10%) and other tasks (6%). The results of the qualitative interviews and observations reflect this finding: children and adolescents who participate in coffee cultivation do so primarily to support the harvest. This was reported by children, adolescents, and adult workers, as well as by representatives from government institutions responsible for the development and regulation of the agricultural sector in both regions.

Most (84%) focal children met the criteria to be considered in child labor, based on ILO standards regarding hazards and working hours (see Appendix 6: Defining Child Labor).

Table 11. Focal child demographic and work characteristics

	%	n
Age (years)		
5–11	27%	34
12–14	22%	28
15–17	51%	65
Sex		
Male	74%	78
Female	26%	28
Primary work activity		
Harvesting	84%	89
Drying	10%	11
Other	6%	6
Meets criteria for child labor	84%	89
Number of focal children (N)		**106**

3.8.5 Participation in Coffee Production by Age

Qualitative data indicate that children of all ages participate in coffee production, although the age at which they begin working varies. Testimonies suggest that children typically start with simpler tasks, such as coffee drying or other post-harvest activities requiring minimal effort, or with harvesting itself. Later, they may take on more demanding tasks like depulping, land clearing, transportation, and related activities. However, stakeholders varied in their reports regarding starting ages for participation in coffee production.

One certified farm owner stated that children begin after age 12 and only with simple activities, primarily in post-harvest operations:

> *"At what age? Ah, well […] 10, 12 years old, sometimes, as I say, for example, covering the coffee you put in the ground, covering, rolling up the tarps, what can I say, right? What they can do."*
>
> *—Producer in Cajamarca*

Coffee beans drying. Source: Centro de Desarrollo y Autogestión

These activities are typically performed near the family home. Coffee drying involves placing washed beans on tarps or cement surfaces; children rake the coffee to ensure even sunlight and may cover it with tarps when rain approaches. Adult interviewees, including both coffee growers and informants holding management positions in cooperatives, consider coffee drying and harvesting safe for children.

Other stakeholders reported much earlier starting ages—as young as five. Some noted that children begin with drying, and others said that they assist with harvesting:

> *"My youngest helped me from when she was five years old. […] Mostly, sometimes, like, covering it, rolling up tarps, or raking the coffee. Then later they started with harvesting."*
>
> *—Producer in Cajamarca*

Respondent showing drying beans. Source: Centro de Desarrollo y Autogestión

One female worker interviewed in Cajamarca commented that, in the absence of childcare, it is common for parents to bring babies and young children to the farm. Although public early childhood education is widely available, the limited hours do not cover the full workday, and younger children are not eligible. The worker noted that from approximately age five, these children can begin to assist with coffee harvesting in a limited capacity. A 24-year-old worker described her own experience and that of her 6-year-old son:

"Since we were little, we've known how to work the land. […] Well, practically from when we were babies our parents would take us, right? From about five years old at least we were already harvesting, helping out here and there."

—Hired worker in Cajamarca

Most children concentrate on drying and harvesting activities, and some adolescents participate throughout the entire production cycle, including in stages that can be more hazardous, such as fertilization and land clearing. One 17-year-old from Junín explained:

> *"First, everything has stages. We start step by step. First comes bagging. […] You transplant the coffee. […] Then comes digging holes […] fertilize it […] cleaning. […] [And] the harvest, the last one. I participate in almost everything. […] We're mostly there helping my dad because he's working alone and can't handle everything."*
>
> *—Adolescent (age 17) in Junín*

Not all children work on their own family's farm. Some work as day laborers on third-party farms, primarily during harvest. The reported starting age of working as a day laborer varied, but many respondents indicated that it was more common among adolescents. According to one producer:

> *"As a day laborer, right? […] They start to go, to leave [to other farms to harvest], why? Because they already start to receive money. […] Mostly when they already are a little older, mostly at 14, 16, 18 years old."*
>
> *—Producer in Cajamarca*

However, some younger children work as day laborers. Among the children interviewed, an 11-year-old was working regularly as a hired worker:

> *"Yes, we go as laborers […] harvest, earn something. […] Or also to clear weeds, fertilize, plant. […] Sometimes with friends […] or our parents."*
>
> *—Child (age 11) in Cajamarca*

In Cajamarca, these jobs are usually on nearby farms, so children return home daily. In Junín, many of the children and adolescents who work as hired workers are indigenous youth who must migrate to work on farms away from their communities. Youth may travel with their own parents or migrate in groups composed solely of other underage youth. An industry stakeholder in Junín described the situation of indigenous youth:

> *"Since there's no work in the community, they start looking for paid work. […] Another thing seen today is that young people living with their parents sometimes say—I've heard this: 'If I help you, you have to pay me.' But their father doesn't have the ability to pay them as a day laborer. The father still has to gather the product, sell it, and then share [the earnings] with the children. […] [So they migrate for work] from 15 years old."*
>
> *—Industry stakeholder in Junín*

3.8.6 Participation in Coffee Production and Schooling

Although child labor is often normalized in Cajamarca and Junín for children and adolescents of various ages, not all forms are accepted without question. Adults recognize boundaries and express concern when work harms children's well-being, such as causing school dropout or physical injury. When asked how people in her community feel about children working in coffee cultivation, one female producer in Cajamarca responded:

> *"For us it's normal."*
>
> *[Interviewer: Okay, is there any point where it stops being normal, […] for example, if you heard about kids who stop studying to go work in coffee?]*
>
> *"Ah, no […] that, yes, that's not okay. I mean, right, that's obvious, isn't it? We'd ask them why? I mean, why do they want to work more than study? We'd always say that. But, like I said, what do we gain by saying that when their parents don't correct them, right? Yes, that's it. You know that comes from home too. From the parents, yes."*
>
> *—Producer in Cajamarca*

This exchange underscores a key community norm: children's participation in farm work is widely accepted, but it becomes problematic when it interferes with education. The producer's initial claim that child labor is "normal" shifts to acknowledging that prioritizing work over schooling crosses a line. Her comments also reveal limited community intervention—while norms exist, enforcement largely depends on parental discretion.

The importance placed on education serves to limit children's involvement in coffee work. Many parents view ensuring their children's education as their fundamental duty and are willing to insist on schooling, even against their children's wishes. This protective stance can directly counteract the cultural norm of youth autonomy in decision-making. One female producer in Cajamarca articulated this position clearly:

> *"If my daughters someday didn't want to study, we would tell them, 'No, study. We're going to support you in this.' […] [My husband] says, 'At that age they still don't have the decision, the choice. And before they're 18, I would honestly send my daughters, even if I have to push them,' he says, 'to go study, because it's my duty that they study.'"*
>
> *—Producer in Cajamarca*

Youths' own educational aspirations and commitment to their studies can serve as a powerful protective factor against excessive work involvement. When young people prioritize their education, they actively manage and limit their participation in farm work. One 17-year-old adolescent in Junín described his careful balancing of farm work during vacation with his ongoing educational commitments:

> *"During summer vacation, yes, sometimes I help my dad. I help more often, but as I'm telling you, from 8:30 until […] as I'm saying, my academy didn't stop even during vacation. […] Well, I would work until 1:00 in the afternoon. And then after 1:00 I had to go to my house, to get ready and come down here [to the city] to my academy. And then I had to go back, I mean, after leaving the academy, a little dinner somewhere and catch transportation right away back to the farm, to sleep there. And basically that's my routine."*
>
> *—Adolescent (age 17) in Junín*

This detailed account reveals an adolescent who, despite helping with farm work, maintains strict boundaries to protect his educational advancement. His demanding schedule—working in the morning, then traveling to attend academy classes in the afternoon, and returning to the farm to sleep—demonstrates a strong personal commitment to education. He emphasized that work has never interfered with his studies. His case illustrates how some children are able to sustain their education despite economic pressures to contribute to farm work.

3.8.6.1 Impact on schooling

The qualitative findings show that coffee work affects education along a spectrum of severity:

- Limited time to complete schoolwork
- Absence from classes for coffee-related tasks
- Complete school dropout

Even when children attend school regularly, farm work after school can leave little time for homework. A 14-year-old explained that coffee activities do not make it difficult to attend school, but when asked whether they interfere with homework, he replied:

> *"That. […] When I get home late from school, I go to fertilize and there's no time to do homework either."*
>
> *—Adolescent (age 14) in Junín*

Parents often try to prioritize education when possible. A mother described her approach:

> *"When they arrive, I ask them, 'Honey, if you have homework, stay and do your homework.' But if they don't have homework and if she tells me, 'Mom, I'm going,' well she says, okay, then let's go. But we go together. But mostly they work after school for two hours and we come back home because we have to roll up the coffee."*
>
> *—Producer in Cajamarca*

Youth interviewees confirmed this perspective, stating that when they have schoolwork, they do not participate in productive activities on the farm. Several noted that they are not scolded or punished if they do not work because they are completing schoolwork, even during harvest season. However, the same group of children later commented that they have missed classes on a few occasions when their parents "couldn't handle" the workload at the time. When asked whether she had missed school to work, an 11-year-old replied:

> *"Once […] because I was going to harvest coffee because my dad couldn't. He was alone and there were five tarps [of beans drying that needed attention]. So I went to help."*
>
> *—Child (age 11) in Cajamarca*

Adult survey respondents were asked whether focal children miss school to help with the coffee harvest, and 9% were reported as having missed school due to working on the coffee harvest; of this total, the majority (6 of 10) were adolescents. Interviews suggest that children miss school to work on the harvest most often when the coffee fruits are near overripening and falling to the ground. If the beans are not harvested in time, the coffee can be lost or wasted, resulting in a significant economic loss. Another 11-year-old explained:

> *"Sometimes [my parents] make me miss classes because sometimes the coffee overwhelms them. They produce more, sometimes, on other farms of my family and [the coffee] falls too. And because of that, to finish [harvesting] that little plot of coffee, they tell me: 'You need to help me finish this.' […] Sometimes they make me miss [school] one or two days a week. […] During the harvest season."*
>
> *—Child (age 11) in Junín*

It is typically the most economically precarious families who resort to asking children to miss school, as they cannot afford to hire enough day laborers to complete the necessary tasks.

The most serious effect coffee cultivation has on education is when children drop out entirely to work. A mother in Cajamarca described her perception of the dropout rates in her hamlet, explaining that if a first-year secondary classroom begins with 29 students, by the third year, there would be only 21, and by the fifth and final year there would be barely 15. She emphasized that this is directly related to coffee, as those who leave school do so to dedicate themselves to cultivation. She also attributed it to parents' lack of interest in supporting—or demanding—their children's education.

Cultural norms reinforce this trend. Because children are seen as independent decision-makers, once they start earning money, they often choose to abandon school for coffee work. The parents' role, based on adult narratives, unfolds in two stages: first, they allow or even encourage their child to work on third-party farms as a day laborer; second, when the child decides to quit school for full-time coffee work, parents feel powerless, even when the child is only 12. One producer explained:

> *"Then when they were already more or less 12, 14 years old, [their parents] would take them [to work as day laborers], right? And sometimes, what happens? It's that. […] So, those children grow up like rebels, resentful. I mean, they care little about studying anymore, and […] they say, 'No, it's better, look, I earn more working than going to school.' Because, I mean, they were incentivized wrong. They were given a different idea."*
>
> *—Producer in Cajamarca*

Some cooperatives and associations have educational plans that complement child labor prevention training, including agreements with universities or technical institutes so members' children can pursue careers related to coffee production. Such initiatives help reduce risks of school dropout.

3.8.7 Working Hours

Table 12 presents the working hours of focal children. Respondents reported that youth involved in coffee production worked an average of 13.3 hours per week. Boys were reported to work more hours than girls (14.9 hours for boys and 8.9 hours for girls). Work intensity rose with age: 5–11-year-olds averaged 7.0 hours, 12–14-year-olds averaged 11.0 hours, and 15–17-year-olds averaged 19.7 hours. Regional differences were minimal, with children in Cajamarca averaging 13.7 hours and those in Junín averaging 12.8 hours.

Table 12. Focal child weekly working hours

	Mean	N
Hours worked per week	13.3	106
Hours worked per week by sex		
Girls	8.9	28
Boys	14.9	78
Hours worked per week by age		
5–11-year-olds	7.0	34
12–14-year-olds	11.0	28
15–17-year-olds	19.7	44
Hours worked per week by region		
Cajamarca	13.7	60
Junín	12.8	46

The qualitative findings align with the quantitative data, showing that older adolescents (ages 14–17) work the most hours. Stakeholder accounts confirm that although both boys and girls participate in coffee production, boys typically dedicate more time. A 17-year-old adolescent explained that although children of all ages perform similar activities, older ones work with greater intensity. She also noted that parents expect more help from male children on the farm, while girls are often tasked with domestic duties such as cooking, sometimes for all farm laborers, making it an essential part of coffee production.

Other stakeholders, including adult workers, agreed that the youngest children (between ages 5 and 10) have less intensive workdays, as they are not expected to harvest large quantities. Parents described how these children often combine light work with play and rest:

"[My 6-year-old] harvests until he gets tired, let's say, right? For a while. Then he starts playing. Sometimes I bring my cell phone, we listen to music for a bit, he plays there for a bit and he also brings his little pet, entertains himself playing."

—Hired worker in Cajamarca

As previously noted, for young children, accompanying parents to the farm often serves as childcare, and not all parents expect them to make substantial contributions during the harvest. In contrast, adolescents maintain more extensive work schedules, and families expect them to contribute significantly during the harvest. A 15-year-old boy reported helping between 1 and 3 hours on weekdays and a full day on Saturdays during peak harvest season. He noted that he does not help every day, even during the harvest, prioritizing schoolwork. This was possible because his family could hire day laborers—an option not available to more disadvantaged households, whose adolescents often work longer hours.

3.8.8 Hazards and Injuries

Table 13 summarizes work-related tasks as reported by adult survey respondents about the focal child at their worksite. Nearly half of respondents (45%) indicated that the focal child used sharp tools, and 43% reported that the child performed repetitive tasks in uncomfortable positions. Exposure to harsh environments was also noted, with 35% working in very cold or rainy conditions. Eighteen percent carried, pushed, or pulled heavy loads, and 17% operated machinery or motorized equipment. Long hours under the sun without rest were reported for 12% of children. Smaller proportions were associated with working with large animals or animal manure (7%), using electric or fuel-powered tools (7%), working at night or before dawn (6%), and handling agricultural chemicals (6%).

Table 13. Focal child demographic and work characteristics[1]

	%	n
Used sharp tools	45%	48
Performed the same task repeatedly in an uncomfortable position	43%	46
Worked in a very cold place or outdoors in very rainy or humid weather	35%	37
Carried, pushed, or pulled heavy loads	18%	19
Used machinery, equipment, or motorized vehicles	17%	18
Worked long hours under the sun without rest	12%	13
Worked in contact with large domestic animals, wild animals, or animal manure	7%	7
Used electric or fuel-powered tools	7%	7
Working at night or before dawn	6%	6
Worked with or around agricultural chemicals, or helped someone else do so	6%	6
Number of focal children (N)		**106**

[1] Multiple responses possible.

In total, the survey asked respondents about exposure to 13 potential hazards. Table 14 shows the average number of hazards reported by various characteristics. Overall, children were exposed to an average of two hazards. Hazard exposure varied notably by sex: boys faced an average of 2.3 hazards, compared to 1.2 for girls, suggesting that boys may be assigned to more hazardous tasks. Age differences were also evident. Older children encountered more hazards, with 15–17-year-olds averaging 2.9 hazards and 12–14-year-olds averaging 1.8, while younger children (ages 5–11) averaged less than one hazard (0.9). Regional disparities were striking: children in Cajamarca faced the highest exposure, averaging 2.7 hazards, whereas those in Junín averaged only 1.0. These patterns indicate that both demographic factors and geographic context strongly influence the level of occupational risk for children.

Table 14. Mean number of hazards by child's characteristics

	Mean	N
Number of hazards	2.0	106
Number of hazards by sex		
Girls	1.2	28
Boys	2.3	78
Number of hazards by age		
5–11-year-olds	0.9	34
12–14-year-olds	1.8	28
15–17-year-olds	2.9	44
Number of hazards by region		
Cajamarca	2.7	60
Junín	1.0	46

Based on qualitative interviews, most adult participants, including producers, workers, and other key stakeholders, identified several tasks in coffee production as hazardous for children and adolescents. These risky activities include land clearing (using tools like machetes or brush cutters), operating coffee depulping machines, and handling agrochemicals.[10] For example, one interviewed stakeholder emphasized:

> *"But [youth perform] activities that don't involve risk, that don't involve overexertion, that don't involve them exposing themselves too much. But yes, children do help. Especially those children who are over 10 up to 13, 14 years old. They're helping, but as I tell you, in basic activities. But they don't perform an activity like being at the depulper, for example, which is high risk."*
>
> *—Association administrator in Cajamarca*

Although most adults stated that these activities are unsafe for children and adolescents—and considered it rare or even nonexistent for minors to perform them—the accounts provided by interviewed minors present a contrasting reality. For instance, one adolescent working on their parents' certified farm reported regularly operating the depulper, fully aware that it is a dangerous piece of machinery. Asked what tasks he performs, he explained:

> *"With the harvest, the depulping, washing, depulping."*
> *[Interviewer: Are there tools or things like that you have to be careful with?]*
> *"Yes, with the machine [depulper], with that chain. You have to be careful, if you put your hand in, that's it. Stay alert, but that […] one slip and that's it."*

When asked whether he is supervised while using the machine, he replied:

> *"Yes, my mom comes to check on me all the time."*
>
> *—Adolescent (age 15) in Cajamarca*

Adult respondents also identified carrying heavy loads, especially sacks of coffee, as a significant hazard for children, with younger children being particularly susceptible to harm. One interviewee recounted that a neighbor forces his 9-year-old daughters to carry sacks of washed coffee, describing this practice as rare but also especially harsh and cruel. When asked whether there are parents who force their children to work in coffee, she said:

[10] This is a risk that children and adolescents on both certified and non-certified farms face, since although organic crops prohibit hazardous synthetic pesticides, there is still a risk of poisoning for adolescents who work on them, because organic standards permit the use of natural inputs that are not harmless. Products such as copper sulfate, sulfur, pyrethrins, or certain botanical extracts can cause skin and respiratory irritation, toxic reactions from repeated exposure, or allergies.

"Right, yes, because I have seen that, yes, there's a man who does. To his daughters, even, he makes them carry from far away, a lot. And I feel sorry for them because they pass by here. Oh, yes, and they can barely lift the weight […] and that's not right, we feel bad about it. Because we don't do that to them [to our own daughters] […] they're around the same grade as my little one, more or less. They're small. About nine years old. Nine years old, and they're already making them lift washed coffee."

—Producer in Cajamarca

According to the survey, 36% of focal children were reported to have ever been hurt or sick as a result of their work (Table 15). Among these children, the most common type of injury or illness was respiratory illness (54%). Thirty percent experienced cuts and wounds, and 11% experienced injury to or swelling in their hands. In addition, 32% reported a wide variety of other types of injuries or sickness, including headache, heat stroke, shoulder injury, and injury to feet. Respondents attributed these illnesses and injuries to working outside in all weather, falling down (e.g., steep slopes), and tool accidents.

Table 15. Injuries and illnesses among focal children

	%	n	N
Ever hurt or sick because of work	36%	37	106
Type of injury or sickness[l]			
Respiratory illness	54%	20	37
Cuts/wounds	30%	11	37
Injury to or swelling in hands	11%	4	37
Other	32%	12	37

[l] Multiple responses possible.

During interviews with children and adolescents, many described experiencing injuries or accidents while working in coffee production. Although harvesting is generally regarded as a safe activity by both adults and minors, several children reported incidents occurring during this process. In some cases, these accidents are directly related to their physical characteristics as children, such as their shorter stature and arms, which require them to maneuver awkwardly among the coffee plants. An 11-year-old explained:

"When I harvest coffee, sometimes I put my face closer to the plant to harvest more and the branch pokes me. Then sometimes it makes me angry and I break the branch. […] It has poked me in the eye every time. Sometimes it would hit my mouth or my nose. Once a branch caught my nose, went inside, and made me bleed."

—Child (age 11) in Junín

Working on slopes also poses significant risks. Several children reported experiencing serious falls during the harvest period due to the steep terrain where coffee is grown:

"Once I rolled [down the slope] all the way down. I felt like my stomach had flipped over. I got really sick. My stomach had turned like this [twists his hands], like it had moved over there. I even got dizzy. […] I was harvesting coffee like this [tries to recreate an attempt to grab coffee cherries from a tall plant]. I stepped wrong and rolled down."

—Child (age 11) in Junín

In addition, participation in inherently hazardous tasks, such as land clearing, can lead to even greater risks. Land clearing is typically done with a machete or a brush cutter, and the study documented cases of children using both tools. These activities can result in injuries such as cuts or, in severe cases, permanent harm like the loss of fingers, a risk acknowledged by interviewees, even though no such incidents were reported. When asked if he had ever injured himself while at work, an adolescent responded:

"Yes, clearing brush […] I cut myself, and the blood started coming. We were clearing brush over there at the house, further down, we were clearing a piece of land and then the machete was going to slip on a stick and I hit my shin. Then I washed it and put alcohol on it."

—Adolescent (age 15) in Cajamarca

Table 16 shows personal protective equipment (PPE) use by children and adolescents. Boots or shoes are by far the most common item (84%), primarily because they offer protection against snake bites. Conversely, the use of other protective gear remains significantly lower, with all categories showing utilization rates below 20%. These findings are consistent with qualitative evidence, in which interviewees highlighted the minimal use of PPE even during tasks that pose serious health risks, such as chemical pest and weed control on non-organic farms. When asked if she had seen youth using chemicals, an adult worker replied:

"Of course. Herbicides, yes. Fumigation [spraying of chemicals to control pests and weeds]. Yes. You see it. Because definitely, like a young kid, as I told you, from 14 and up, they already help their dad. They have to go with their backpack sprayer to fumigate."
[Interviewer: Are they using any protective equipment, like a mask or something, or not?]
"No, they just use it and then when they finish, they take a good bath. That's all."

—Hired worker in Cajamarca

Table 16. Focal child use of PPE[1]

	%	n
Boots or shoes	84%	88
Gloves	15%	16
Hat	12%	13
Protective clothing, such as coveralls	10%	10
Face shield	8%	8
Helmet	7%	7
Protective goggles	4%	4
Respirator or dust mask	4%	4
Other	4%	4
Number of focal children (N)		**105**

[1] Multiple responses possible.

Qualitative evidence suggests that children and adolescents working on third-party farms are significantly more vulnerable to hazardous working conditions and tasks unsuitable for minors. In a group interview, three young respondents highlighted that working as a hired worker entails greater hardship because employers will not extend the same considerations as one's own father or mother would:

[Interviewer: When you go as a hired worker, is there more work there?]
First 11-year-old: "You suffer more."
Second 11-year-old: "More work, because I carried the coffee. And they made me go all the way over here. When we help our dad […] he comes to carry it."
First 11-year-old: "When we go as laborers sometimes, the boss just stands around harvesting […] depulping and he doesn't go to the farm. We have to carry it ourselves."
[Interviewer: …Does your body hurt afterwards from carrying so much?]
First 11-year-old: "Yes, our backs hurt."
Second 11-year-old: "Sometimes, sometimes not."

Parental supervision is essential for ensuring that children and adolescents work more safely. Some parents, particularly those with younger children, take deliberate steps to reduce risks during coffee harvesting. Interviews and observations show that these efforts often involve limiting the weight children carry, providing appropriate clothing such as long sleeves, hats, and boots, teaching proper work

techniques, and even checking plants for harmful insects before allowing children to begin harvesting. A 14-year-old explained how she prepares for work:

> *"We put on gloves with long sweaters and long sweatpants with boots. And a shirt tied around my head and a hat. […] My mom. […] [told me] that I have to cover up. Also because if not, maybe the wasps that are there could sting me."*
>
> *—Adolescent (age 14) in Junín*

A mother described the extra precautions she takes when bringing her children to the harvest:

> *"When I take them to harvest, each one carries it in her own sack [laughs]. For example, since we have tall plants, what do we do? […] We lower the plant with a hook, there, well secured. Oh, they're harvesting! With both hands too, as if it were a seedling. Yes, that's how we do it for them. Yes, but we mostly watch them like that because, you know, they're small. It's dangerous, because also in the coffee. […] There are some like little wasps about this size [1 or 2 inches] in the coffee plants. Oh, those sting horribly! […] [So we] first check the plant [before the children harvest]."*
>
> *—Producer in Cajamarca*

Another mother described how she explained the task to her daughter and reminded her not to overexert herself:

> *"What she does [in the farm] is different. Only what she can [do], that she does. However she can. I do explain everything to her about how it's going to be, but only as much as she can: 'Do what you can.' I don't tell her: 'Do the same as me.'"*

When asked whether she considers any of the tasks her daughter does dangerous, she replied:

> *"No, I don't send her to do dangerous things. […] Picking up a little bucket isn't dangerous. Picking coffee isn't dangerous either."*
>
> *—Producer in Junín*

In conclusion, working conditions for children and adolescents in coffee production varied widely in the sample. At one end of the spectrum are young children on family farms, where parents strive to ensure safety through close supervision, protective measures, and age-appropriate tasks, although these efforts are often limited by incomplete knowledge of what constitutes hazardous work. At the other end are older children, particularly boys, who are exposed to more hazards. Ultimately, the level of risk depends on multiple intersecting factors: age, sex, type of employment (family versus third-party), degree of supervision, and the nature of the activities performed.

3.8.9 Certification

Nearly half (48%) of focal children worked on farms with at least one type of certification, most commonly Organic (41%) and Fairtrade/Fair Trade (22%), followed by Rainforest Alliance (14%), SELTI (7%), and Biodynamic (3%) (Table 17). Forty percent of children worked on farms that were not certified, and 12% worked on farms with unknown certification status.

Table 17. Certification status of farms on which focal children worked

	%	n
Certification		
Certified[1]	48%	51
Organic	41%	43
Fairtrade/Fair Trade	22%	23
Rainforest Alliance	14%	15
SELTI	7%	7
Biodynamic	3%	3
Other	1%	1

	%	n
Don't know type	2%	2
Not certified	40%	42
Don't know whether certified or not	12%	13
Number of focal children (N)		**106**

[1] Multiple types of certification possible.

Focal children working on certified farms were reported to have lighter workloads and lower exposure to hazards, compared to those on farms that were not certified or if certification status was unknown (Table 18). On certified farms, respondents reported that focal children worked an average of 10.7 hours, compared to 14.3 hours on non-certified farms. Focal children were exposed to an average of 1.6 hazards on certified farms, compared to 2.3 on non-certified farms. Seventy-eight percent of focal children on certified farms met the threshold for child labor, compared to 90% of those on non-certified farms.

Reports of the focal child having ever been hurt or sick due to work were less frequent on certified farms (32%) than on non-certified farms (45%). On certified farms, respondents reported that 4% of focal children had missed school to work, compared to 15% on non-certified farms.

Table 18. Focal child work characteristics by certification status of worksite

	Estimate	N
Hours worked by certification status (mean)		
Certified	10.7	51
Not certified or don't know	14.3	42
Number of hazards by certification status (mean)		
Certified	1.6	51
Not certified or don't know	2.3	42
Ever hurt or sick by certification status		
Certified	32%	50
Not certified or don't know	45%	42
Missed school to participate in coffee farming		
Certified	4%	49
Not certified or don't know	15%	41
Meets criteria for child labor		
Certified	78%	51
Not certified or don't know	90%	42

These findings suggest that certification may be linked to safer conditions and lighter workloads for children. It remains unclear whether these improvements stem from the certification process itself—through rules, audits, training, and awareness raising—or from higher incomes among farmers on certified farms. While 46% of all respondents reported that their income is insufficient to meet basic needs, the gap by certification status is striking: only 29% of those at certified worksites reported insufficient income, compared to 65% of those at non-certified sites. Although the sample size and study design do not allow for the identification of causal mechanisms, the evidence strongly indicates that certification benefits children.

Certification is associated with a slightly lower rate of child labor, but it represents just one component of Peru's broader strategy to reduce child labor in the coffee sector. National efforts extend beyond certification to include targeted policies and tools designed to identify risks, strengthen local governance, and promote child labor-free practices across agricultural value chains.

3.8.10 Efforts to Limit Child Labor in Coffee

Peru has prioritized reducing child labor through four national strategies led by the Ministry of Labor, one of which directly targets the coffee value chain:

- ***Modelo de Identificación de Riesgo de Trabajo Infantil* (Child Labor Risk Identification Model):** A statistical tool developed by ILO and ECLAC that uses national data to identify areas with high child labor risk and guides policy decisions.
- **Municipal Model for Identification and Response to Child Labor:** This policy instrument engages local governments in child labor eradication by leveraging their regulatory authority over public spaces. Approved under Ministerial Resolution No. 240-2022-TR, its goal is to prevent and eliminate child labor through case identification and response during municipal inspections of businesses, transportation systems, and public areas, ensuring the protection of children's fundamental rights.[11]
- **Capacity Building for *Comités Directivos Regionales para la Prevención y Erradicación del Trabajo Infantil* (CDRPETI, or Regional Steering Committees for the Prevention and Eradication of Child Labor):** Strengthens regional governance and equips committees with training and tools to implement child labor prevention strategies.
- **SELTI:** A public certification recognizing companies that adopt practices to prevent child labor in agricultural value chains. SELTI requires compliance with five guidelines and nine standards verified through external audits. Certification lasts two years.

SELTI certification seal

Both the Municipal Model and SELTI have been piloted. However, scaling remains a challenge due to budgetary limitations (Alliance 8.7, 2023).

At the regional level in Cajamarca and Junín, the study found several state institutions addressing child labor within their respective mandates. Both regions have a CDRPETI, with its technical secretariat housed in the Regional Directorate of Labor and Employment Promotion.

At the district level, the *Defensoría Municipal del Niño y del Adolescente* (DEMUNA, or Municipal Child and Adolescent Defense Office)[12] plays a key role in safeguarding children's rights and intervening when violations occur. In addition, the National Comprehensive Program for Family Welfare operates through its Street Educators Service, targeting children and adolescents engaged in begging or child labor, or living on the streets.

Despite the presence of these entities in Cajamarca and Junín, their reach and impact in coffee-growing areas remain limited. The Street Educators Service is one of the few government initiatives that directly addresses child labor across sectors, including agriculture.

> *"Street Educators work to reach children involved in different types of work. […] There are child workers involved in coffee harvesting. […] The first thing we do is summon the parents. […] We explain the work we are doing. […] And that the child shouldn't be working—the parent should work to provide education and healthcare. […] We talk about their rights: the right to identity, the right to education, the right to health; […] academic reinforcement. We provide accompaniment."*
>
> *—National Comprehensive Program for Family Welfare representative*

[11]The full text is published on the Peruvian government's legal standards portal, accessible at: https://www.gob.pe/institucion/mtpe/normas-legales/3398483-240-2022-tr

[12]The DEMUNAs are also part of the CDRPETI.

However, significant constraints hinder effective intervention. First, there are no specific mechanisms for rural areas. DEMUNAs focus on urban zones, limiting their presence in coffee regions. When asked if there is any specific program that addresses child labor in agriculture, a DEMUNA representative explained:

> *"No, none. […] But [at DEMUNA] we seek to raise awareness, to call in the parents if possible, because the parents exist. But if they're from native communities, they don't quite understand you. If they're settlers, people who came from elsewhere, they understand you and help you. And many times, they also say: 'No, I didn't know, I thought I was doing the right thing. No, but now my child will study. I'm going to focus on working.' So the approach is to talk and sensitize the family. […] But now, are we going to go to the farm [as DEMUNA]? Nobody goes to the farm—that's the truth."*
>
> *—DEMUNA representative*

Second, CDRPETI actions suffer from resource shortages:

> *"We don't carry out specific actions with children or families who are coffee producers. Our actions are limited to conducting informational campaigns for young people on labor matters, mainly job fairs. Regarding CDRPETI actions, these are also limited and depend on the resources available to each institution. We understand that for minors there is [National Comprehensive Program for Family Welfare], which has the Street Educators program where they address this issue. We are not aware of any other actions."*
>
> *— Dirección Regional de Trabajo y Promoción del Empleo (Regional Directorate of Labor and Employment Promotion) representative*

Third, labor inspections do not cover family farming:

> *"[The National Superintendency of Labor Inspection] can enter farms. In agro-industry [child labor is] prohibited, but in family farming it's cultural—parents teach their children. We don't enter family farms."*
>
> *—National Superintendency of Labor Inspection representative*

The National Superintendency of Labor Inspection, the entity responsible for promoting, supervising, and enforcing compliance with labor regulations, does not have a mechanism to conduct inspections in areas in which family farming takes place:

> *"[The National Superintendency of Labor Inspection] can enter [farms]. In agro-industry [the participation of minors] is prohibited, but in family farming it's cultural—parents teach their children. We don't enter family farms when it involves family farming."*
>
> *— National Superintendency of Labor Inspection representative*

Finally, coordination gaps persist. Agricultural agencies working directly with coffee producers do not integrate child labor regulations:

> *"Well, in general, the specific regulations we apply or base our work on are basically those for cooperatives, associations, and associativity. But as for general knowledge, I only know that the laws [against child labor] exist, but since we're not required to apply them. […] But if we were to see any abuse, we would certainly report it."*
>
> *—Agricultural agency representative in Junín*

This situation shows that institutions with the closest contact to coffee-farming families do not systematically incorporate child labor considerations into their programs or productivity initiatives.

Despite these institutional gaps, private sector actors in Cajamarca and Junín—particularly cooperatives, associations, and some coffee companies—play an important role in reducing child labor. Certified cooperatives and associations (e.g., Fair Trade, Rainforest Alliance) are required to conduct training sessions on child labor, which, according to interviewees, follow internal work plans. These sessions aim not to eliminate all child participation but to ensure that it is safe and age-appropriate, clarifying which tasks are suitable and which are high risk:

"They can clarify a bit what the regulation says. […] A clear example is to say, 'If my child, after school, helps me with household chores or with the harvest, is that child labor?' We told them, 'No, as long as it's not paid, that it doesn't contravene their basic rights to education, health […] and doesn't affect their time in a coerced way.'"

—Cooperative coordinator in Cajamarca

However, some informants noted that certifications are often seen more as market competitiveness tools than as mechanisms to promote good labor practices. Consequently, some cooperatives and associations that previously held certifications such as Fair Trade or Rainforest Alliance have suspended participation due to the low economic benefits. When certification ends, child labor prevention activities and any monitoring or supervision of labor conditions also end.

Some companies act independently, enforcing their own due diligence and promoting education as part of social responsibility. One company said:

"We help [the producers] so that children who don't have access [to school] due to distance can be located in the closest possible place. We have several farms. We place these families in a location that is closer to a [primary] school or high school so that the mother can also go see them, take them, pick them up. […] What's more, our company always provides some type of knowledge course, including children, focused on coffee-related topics."

—Representative of a coffee trading company

In summary, although Peru has developed a robust institutional framework for addressing child labor in the coffee sector, including innovative tools like the Child Labor Risk Identification Model, the Municipal Model, and SELTI, significant implementation gaps persist. Public institutions with the closest contact to coffee-farming families lack the resources, mandates, and coordination to effectively intervene in rural areas. In contrast, private sector actors, particularly certified cooperatives and associations, have emerged as the primary drivers of prevention efforts, though these initiatives remain contingent on market incentives and certification requirements. Bridging this gap between policy design and on-the-ground implementation remains the central challenge for eliminating child labor in Peruvian coffee production.

4 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study found that child labor remains a significant concern in Peru's coffee sector, driven by a complex interplay of economic, social, structural, and cultural factors. Although the study revealed notable heterogeneity in working conditions, ranging from light assistance on family farms under parental supervision to hazardous full-time work on third-party farms, findings suggest that child labor persists across both certified and non-certified operations in the Cajamarca and Junín regions.

The majority of focal children, including 78% on certified farms and 90% on non-certified farms, met the criteria for classification as in child labor according to ILO standards and national regulations. Children involved in coffee production commonly face hazardous working conditions, including use of sharp tools, and exposure to harsh weather, heavy loads, and machinery, with more than one-third experiencing work-related injury or illness. Children spent an average of 13.3 hours per week on coffee activities, with hours and expectations increasing sharply during adolescence. This participation can undermine their education by reducing time for homework, causing school absences during harvest periods, and, in the most severe cases, leading to school dropout. Together, these findings indicate that significant additional efforts are needed to address children's involvement in coffee production in Peru.

Despite progress in developing legal frameworks and policy initiatives, considerable gaps exist between policy design and on-the-ground implementation. Public institutions with the closest contact to coffee-

farming families, including CDRPETI, DEMUNA, and agricultural agencies, lack the resources, mandates, and coordination to effectively intervene in rural coffee-growing areas. Meanwhile, private sector actors, particularly certified cooperatives and associations, have emerged as the primary drivers of child labor prevention efforts, though these initiatives remain contingent on market incentives and certification requirements. When cooperatives suspend certifications due to insufficient economic benefits, child labor prevention activities and monitoring are also suspended.

The persistence of child labor in a sector with established international certification programs covering approximately 15% of production—including Fairtrade International (certifying 131,071 MT produced by 62,000 farmers in 2023), Rainforest Alliance (certifying 114,745 MT produced by 38,000 farmers in 2024), and Fair Trade USA (partnering with 117 producer organizations)—demonstrates that voluntary initiatives alone are insufficient without strong government enforcement, meaningful buyer commitment, and attention to the structural factors that make families dependent on their children's labor. The documented gap between certified production and sales under certified terms (with only 49,000 of 131,000 MT of Fairtrade coffee sold under Fairtrade terms in 2023, and only 42,400 of 114,745 MT of Rainforest coffee sold as certified in 2024) further underscores the limitations of market-based approaches when economic incentives are insufficient.

Investigation into the coffee supply chain revealed that all non-certified coffee products, both domestically consumed and internationally exported, are at significant risk of being produced with child labor. Although cultivation occurs primarily on smallholder farms dispersed across multiple regions, harvested coffee flows through a complex network of intermediaries, cooperatives, processors, and exporters before reaching end users in roasted coffee, instant coffee, and blended products. Coffee from various sources is mixed at multiple stages—during collection from rural areas, during drying, and during processing—making it impossible to trace specific batches back to individual farms. Cooperatives and processors purchase from dozens or hundreds of smallholder producers, creating layers of separation between cultivation and final processed product. The sector's reliance on informal intermediaries and paper-based record-keeping means that comprehensive traceability exists only when economically incentivized through specialty market demand. This mixing and aggregation obscure the origin of coffee produced with child labor inputs, allowing it to enter both domestic and international markets without detection. Certified coffee is subject to stricter traceability requirements; however, findings show that non-certified coffee may be mixed with certified coffee and that child labor is used in the production of both certified coffee and non-certified coffee.

Despite Peru's position as the world's ninth largest coffee producer and the sector's importance as the country's main agricultural export, economic growth has not eliminated child labor. The aging of coffee plantations (with nearly 70% exceeding their productive cycle), extremely low productivity of only 0.63 MT per hectare, impact of the yellow rust plague, and lack of organization among producers (with only 14% involved in cooperatives or associations) have created chronic economic pressures that increase reliance on family labor. The concentration of production among smallholders and geographic isolation of many coffee-growing areas reduce workers' and producers' ability to access alternative employment, limit oversight by labor inspectors, and create practical barriers for addressing exploitative situations. Without systemic reforms that address poverty, inadequate access to education, informal employment arrangements, cultural normalization of child labor, and opaque supply chains, the sector's continued operation risks perpetuating child labor rather than eliminating it.

Ultimately, eliminating child labor from Peru's coffee sector requires addressing both immediate labor violations and the underlying socioeconomic conditions, including rural poverty, inadequate educational infrastructure, labor market pressures, geographic isolation, and cultural expectations, that drive families to rely on their children's work. Progress will depend on coordinated efforts from all stakeholders: government authorities strengthening enforcement and scaling proven interventions, private sector

actors implementing meaningful due diligence throughout supply chains, certification bodies ensuring that standards translate to on-the-ground improvements, and civil society organizations supporting community monitoring and worker empowerment. Only through such comprehensive, sustained action can Peru realize its commitment to eliminate child labor from its most important agricultural export sector.

4.1 RECOMMENDATIONS

To the Government of Peru:

- Scale up proven initiatives, including SELTI certification and the Municipal Model for Identification and Response to Child Labor, providing adequate funding and technical support for implementation across major coffee-producing regions.
- Improve inter-institutional coordination between agricultural agencies, labor authorities, and child protection entities, ensuring that institutions working directly with coffee-growing families systematically integrate child labor considerations into their programs.
- Ensure that the technical assistance and training carried out by the Ministry of Agrarian Development and Irrigation through its decentralized offices, such as the agricultural agencies, incorporate child labor-related issues to help farming families recognize work that is hazardous or impedes education.
- Expand social protection programs and educational support in coffee-growing communities, particularly targeting families most vulnerable to economic pressures that drive child labor, and strengthen enforcement of compulsory education requirements.
- Conduct research to address the lack of representative quantitative data on child labor in coffee production in Peru.

To Private Sector Actors:

This study provides practical information for U.S. and other international companies sourcing, trading, or marketing from Peru. The study's findings highlight specific risk factors relevant to corporate due diligence, including the prevalence of smallholder farmers in Peru's coffee sector, reliance on unpaid family labor, labor shortages during harvest, aggregation and mixing of beans, gaps between certified production and certified sales, and limitations of both public enforcement and voluntary certification systems. Companies can use these insights to stress test existing risk assessment, compliance, and certification strategies, and to design more targeted prevention, monitoring, and remediation approaches. More broadly, the study supports companies' efforts to meet evolving regulatory, investor, and consumer expectations.

Downstream consumers and processors of Peruvian coffee—including mills, exporters, roasters, importers, and retailers—should implement the following supply chain due diligence and monitoring mechanisms to identify and address child labor risks:

- Prioritize sourcing from cooperatives and associations with demonstrated child labor prevention programs, and incentivize positive outcomes by developing preferred supplier programs and rewarding high-performing cooperatives with long-term contractual commitments.
- Establish proactive monitoring programs that include unannounced field visits to coffee suppliers, focusing especially on harvest periods and operations involving contractors or day laborers.
- Supplement monitoring programs with binding contractual obligations that require supply chain partners to uphold international labor rights standards and to ensure full remedy for workers whenever violations occur.

- Invest in traceability systems that allow segregation of suppliers by level of child labor risk, even where complete farm-to-consumer traceability remains challenging due to co-mingling at processing facilities.
- Support and expand educational programs that incentivize students to remain in school through secondary education, including scholarship programs, school supply provision, and partnerships with technical schools for post-secondary agricultural training.
- Discourage payment practices based purely on production quotas, which incentivize the use of unpaid family labor, including child labor, transitioning toward direct payment systems supplemented by reasonable productivity incentives.
- Ensure through active verification that certification standards are effectively implemented on the ground, not just on paper, and that certified farms demonstrate meaningful differences in labor practices compared to uncertified operations.
- Subsidize the costs of certifications, so that these are not the responsibility of small producers, as is mostly the case today.

To Civil Society and Other Stakeholders:

- Expand the participation of rural workers' associations and cooperatives in monitoring labor practices, ensuring that workers and community members have an effective voice in identifying and addressing child labor.
- Promote independent, multilateral audits that include civil society organizations, workers' associations, and researchers in monitoring labor practices in certified operations.
- Support community empowerment initiatives and accessible reporting channels so families can safely report child labor concerns without fear of economic retaliation.
- Conduct further research on child labor prevalence across different regions, production systems, and supply chain configurations to inform targeted interventions, with particular attention to children working as day laborers on third-party farms and the impact of certification programs on child labor.

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APPENDIX 2: HS CODES

HS Code Glossary

Product	HS code	HS definition
Coffee products (beans of all kinds, and coffee byproducts)	0901	Coffee, whether or not roasted or decaffeinated; coffee husks and skins; coffee substitutes containing coffee
Unroasted coffee beans	0901,11	Coffee, not roasted, not decaffeinated
Roasted coffee beans	0901.21	Coffee, roasted, not decaffeinated
Unroasted, decaffeinated coffee beans	0901.12	Coffee, not roasted, decaffeinated
Roasted, decaffeinated coffee beans	0901.22	Coffee, roasted, decaffeinated
Coffee byproducts (including coffee substitutes, husks, and skins)	0901.90	Coffee substitutes containing coffee; coffee husks and skins

APPENDIX 3: EXPORT VALUES

Top 5 Trade Destination Markets of All Coffee Products, 2024

Destination country	Value (USD)	% by value	Destination country	Volume (MT)	% by volume
United States	$357,851,978	28.7%	United States	70,560.79	28.3%
Germany	$246,379,005	19.2%	Germany	46.943.00	18.8%
Canada	$118,778,279	9.3%	Canada	21,381.36	8.6%
Belgium	$103,270,297	8.1%	Belgium	18.543.00	7.4%
Sweden	$57,847,990	4.5%	Colombia	12,381.36	5.4%

Source: TDM, 2025; HS code 0901; values cost including freight (c.i.f.) as reported by importer

Top 5 Trade Destination Markets of Unroasted Coffee, 2024

Destination country	Value (USD)	% by value	Destination country	Volume (MT)	% by volume
United States	$341,449,024	27.3%	United States	66,585.25	20.5%
Germany	$246,307,572	19.7%	Germany	46,926.00	14.5%
Canada	$117,589,748	9.4%	Canada	21,043.76	6.5%
Belgium	$103,262,182	8.3%	Belgium	18,541.00	5.7%
Sweden	$57,846,973	4.6%	Colombia	12,381.36	3.8%

Source: TDM, 2025; HS code 0901.11; values c.i.f. as reported by importer

Top 5 Trade Destination Markets of Roasted Coffee, 2024

Destination country	Value (USD)	% by value	Destination country	Volume (MT)	% by volume
Chile	$1,424,620	53.6%	Chile	150.18	52.2%
Canada	$647,892	24.4%	Canada	84.12	29.2%
United States	$273,433	10.3%	United States	28.18	9.8%
Japan*	$47,219	1.9%	Japan	3.87	1.3%
Norway	$37,401	1.4%	Uruguay	3.78	1.3%

* TDM reports Peru as the fourth largest importer by value of its own roasted coffee, a designation that likely represents returns, goods warehoused in export zones before re-entering the domestic market, or other situations that do not reflect conventional international trade movements. Peru is omitted from this table for clarity.
Source: TDM, 2025; HS code 0901.21; values c.i.f. as reported by importer

Top 5 Trade Destination Markets of Unroasted Decaffeinated Coffee, 2024

Destination country	Value (USD)	% by value	Destination country	Volume (MT)	% by volume
United States	$26,129,521	93.6%	United States	3,947.36	79.2%
Switzerland	$517,307	1.9.%	Switzerland	69.55	1.4%
Canada	$464,649	1.7%	Canada	48.31	1.0%
New Zealand	$165,071	0.6%	New Zealand	20.46	0.4%
Spain	$138,169	0.5%	Spain	18.00	0.4%

Source: TDM, 2025; HS code 0901.12; values c.i.f. as reported by importer

Top 5 Trade Destination Markets of Roasted Decaffeinated Coffee, 2024

Destination country	Value (USD)	% by value	Destination country	Volume (MT)	% by volume
Canada	$75,933	63.3%	Canada	6.93	68.6%
Macao	$13,421	11.2%	Macao	1.10	10.9%
Norway	$9,519	7.9%	Norway	.95	9.4%
Ireland	$7,279	6.1%	Ireland	—*	—
Chile	$6,823	5.7%	Chile	.53	5.2%

* Volume not reported for Ireland's imports.
Source: TDM, 2025; HS code 0901.22; values c.i.f. as reported by importer

Top 5 Trade Destination Markets of Coffee Byproducts, 2024

Destination country	Value (USD)	% by value	Destination country	Volume (MT)	% by volume
Germany	$43,330	62.1%	Germany	6	74.4%
Saudi Arabia	$16,917	24.3.%	Saudi Arabia	1	12.4%
Netherlands	$7,837	11.2%	Netherlands	1	12.4%
Switzerland	$690	1.0%	Switzerland	.02	0.3%
France	$457	0.7%	France	—*	—

* Volume not reported for France's imports.
Source: TDM, 2025; HS code 0901.90; values c.i.f. as reported by importer

Top Global Exporters of All Coffee Products, 2024

Country	Percent of total *good* EX globally, by value
Brazil	25.2%
Switzerland	8.7%
Germany	8.5%
Colombia	7.9%
Italy	6.3%
Ethiopia	3.9%
Indonesia	3.6%
Netherlands	3.2%
Belgium	3.1%
France	2.9%

Source: TDM, 2025; HS code 0901; values f.o.b. as reported by exporter

Top Global Exporters of Unroasted Coffee, 2024

Country	Percent of total *good* EX globally, by value
Brazil	41.0%
Colombia	12.3%
Ethiopia	6.3%
Indonesia	5.9%
Honduras	4.4%
India	4.1%
Peru	4.0%
Belgium	3.6%
Guatemala	3.3%
Germany	3.2%

Source: TDM, 2025; HS code 0901.11; values f.o.b. as reported by exporter

Top Global Exporters of Roasted Coffee, 2024

Country	Percent of total *good* EX globally, by value
Switzerland	23.7%
Italy	17.1%
Germany	13.8%
France	7.4%
Netherlands	6.4%
United States	5.2%
Poland	3.9%
Canada	3.5%
Belgium	2.5%
Spain	1.7%

Source: TDM, 2025; HS code 0901.21; values f.o.b. as reported by exporter

Top Global Exporters of Unroasted Decaffeinated Coffee, 2024

Country	Percent of total *good* EX globally, by value
Germany	71.0%
Canada	13.6%
Mexico	5.0%
Colombia	4.4%
Ethiopia	1.5%
Italy	1.3%
Belgium	0.8%
United States	0.6%
Netherlands	0.4%
France	0.3%

Source: TDM, 2025; HS code 0901.12; values f.o.b. as reported by exporter

Top Global Exporters of Roasted Decaffeinated Coffee, 2024

Country	Percent of total *good* EX globally, by value
Switzerland	29.7%
France	15.1%
Italy	11.3%
Germany	7.5%
United States	7.2%
Canada	6.1%
Netherlands	4.9%
Spain	3.0%
Belgium	2.8%
Panama	2.8%

Source: TDM, 2025; HS code 0901.22; values f.o.b. as reported by exporter

Top Global Exporters of Coffee Substitutes Containing Coffee, and Coffee Husks and Skins, 2024

Country	Percent of total *good* EX globally, by value
United States	9.8%
Netherlands	8.7%
Saudia Arabia	7.8%
Tanzania	7.6%
South Africa	5.3%
Honduras	5.1%
Germany	4.8%
Türkiye	4.0%
Italy	3.9%
Australia	3.3%

Source: TDM, 2025; HS code 0901.90; values f.o.b. as reported by exporter

Export by HS Code

Good	HS code	Export value 2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Top destination market for 2024 (percentage)
Coffee products	0901	$729,882,971	$751,332,387	$1,462,632,283	$925,875,514	$1,281,723,525	United States (28.7%)
Unroasted coffee	0901.11	$709,827,187	$732,559,305	$1,424,488,895	$899,366,867	$1,250,949,267	United States (27.3%)
Roasted coffee	0901.21	$1,326,118	$2,195,329	$10,227,532	$4,923,776	$2,656,080	Chile (53.6%)
Unroasted decaffeinated coffee	0901.12	$18,544,208	$16,371,467	$27,568,418	$21,422,527	$27,928,378	United States (93.6%)
Roasted decaffeinated coffee	0901.22	$104,673	$146,777	$258,778	$134,803	$120,034	Canada (63.3%)
Coffee substitutes, coffee husks and skins	0901.90	$80,785	$59,509	$88,660	$27,541	$69,765	Germany (62.1%)

Source TDM; HS Codes: 0901, 0901.11, 0901.21, 0901.12, 0901.22, 0901.90; values c.i.f. as reported by importer

APPENDIX 4: FINAL RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

PERU COFFEE: WORKER QUESTIONNAIRE

Field	Question	Answer
FIELDCONTROL		
INTERVIEWER_num *(required)*	INTERVIEWER NAME	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11
REGION *(required)*	REGION	1 CAJAMARCA 2 JUNIN
DISTRICT *(required)*	DISTRICT	1 LA COIPA 2 TABACONAS 3 SAN JOSE 4 JAEN 5 HUABAL 6 PICHANAKI 7 SAN LUIS DE SHUARO 8 PANGOA 9 SATIPO
VILLAGE *(required)*	VILLAGE	
CONSENT		
CONSENT *(required)*	Before starting the survey, I would like to read you some information so that you understand what the study involves. • This study is carried out by DYA Desarollo y Autogestion. • This survey is part of a study that	1 YES 2 NO

	seeks to better understand the work experiences among coffee workers in Peru. • Everything you say is confidential. • None of your co-workers or employers will know what you say. • Your name will not be used in any report. • Data from this study may be shared with other researchers or made available in public databases in order to advance research on these topics. Before doing so, all personally identifiable information will be removed. • Participation in this study is voluntary, and if you do not participate there will be no consequences. • The risk of doing this survey is that some of our questions are personal and may bring up painful memories that make you feel uncomfortable. • If you find the survey too tiring or upsetting, we can pause, reschedule, or end the interview. • You will receive fertilizer as a thank you for your participation in this study. • There are no other direct benefits for participating in this study, but if you decide to participate in this study, your contribution will help shed light on the situation of working conditions in the abaca industry. • Your answers may help develop future programs to help other workers. • Do you have any questions? • If you have any questions in the future, you can contact DYA, dya@dyaperu.org Do you agree to participate in this survey?	

STARTING_NOTE	INTERVIEWER: DO NOT READ RESPONSE OPTIONS ALOUD UNLESS INDICATED. LISTEN TO THE RESPONSE AND SELECT THE MOST APPROPRIATE RESPONSE OPTION(S). DO NOT READ UPPERCASE TEXT ALOUD. *Question relevant when: CONSENT = 1*	
SECTION 1: GENERAL INFORMATION *Group relevant when: CONSENT = 1*		
S1Q01 *(required)*	S1Q01. Have you worked in coffee farming in Peru in the past year?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S1Q02 *(required)*	S1Q02. How old are you? *[IF NEEDED, SAY: Your best guess is fine]* *Question relevant when: S1Q01 = 1*	
SECTION 1: GENERAL INFORMATION > SECTION 1A: GENERAL INFORMATION *Group relevant when: CONSENT = 1 and (S1Q02 > 17 or S1Q02 = -76) and (S1Q01 = 1)*		
S1Q03 *(required)*	S1Q03. INTERVIEWER: MARK RESPONDENT'S SEX. ASK IF UNSURE.	1 1. MALE 2 2. FEMALE 3 3. PREFER NOT TO SAY
S1Q04 *(required)*	S1Q04. Do you speak another language besides Spanish?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S1Q04A *(required)*	S1Q04A. Which language? *Question relevant when: selected(S1Q04 , '1')*	
S1Q04B *(required)*	S1Q04B. How do you recognize yourself regarding your ethnical belonging?	1 NATIVE 2 COLONO 3 ORIUNDO 55 OTHER 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED

S1Q04B_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: S1Q04B = 55*	
S1Q05 *(required)*	S1Q05. Have you ever attended school?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S1Q05A *(required)*	S1Q05A. What is the highest class you have completed? *Question relevant when: S1Q05 = 1*	1 PRESCHOOL/NURSERY SCHOOL 2 INCOMPLETE PRIMARY SCHOOL 3 COMPLETE PRIMARY SCHOOL 4 INCOMPLETE SECONDARY SCHOOL 5 COMPLETE SECONDARY SCHOOL 6 INCOMPLETE HIGHER TECHNICAL SCHOOL 7 COMPLETE HIGHER TECHNICAL SCHOOL 8 INCOMPLETE HIGHER UNIVERSITY SCHOOL 9 COMPLETE HIGHER UNIVERSITY SCHOOL 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S1Q05B *(required)*	S1Q05B. Do you have any children aged 5 to 17?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
GI_READ	READ: For the following questions, please think about your most recent job working in coffee farming.	
S1Q05C *(required)*	S1Q05C. Did you relocate temporarily to do coffee activities?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED

S1Q05C1 *(required)*	S1Q05C1. Did you relocate from another part of Peru or a different country? *Question relevant when: S1Q05C = 1*	1 1. PERU 2 2. DIFFERENT COUNTRY 77 77. DON'T KNOW 99 99. REFUSED
S1Q05C2 *(required)*	S1Q05C2. From which region in Peru did you relocate? *Question relevant when: S1Q05C1 = 1*	1 AMAZONAS 2 ÁNCASH 3 APURÍMAC 4 AREQUIPA 5 AYACUCHO 6 CAJAMARCA 7 CALLAO 8 CUSCO 9 HUANCAVELICA 10 HUÁNUCO 11 ICA 12 JUNÍN 13 LA LIBERTAD 14 LAMBAYEQUE 15 LIMA 16 LORETO 17 MADRE DE DIOS 18 MOQUEGUA 19 PASCO 20 PIURA 21 PUNO 22 SAN MARTÍN 23 TACNA 24 TUMBES 25 UCAYALI 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S1Q05C3 *(required)*	S1Q05C3. From which country did you relocate? *Question relevant when: S1Q05C1 = 2*	1 BOLIVIA 2 BRAZIL 3 CHILE 4 COLOMBIA 5 ECUADOR 6 VENEZUELA

		55 OTHER 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S1Q05C3_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: S1Q05C3 = 55*	
S1Q06_YEAR *(required)*	S1Q06_YEAR. Approximately when did you start this work? *[INTERVIEWER: RECORD YEAR.]*	
S1Q07 *(required)*	S1Q07. Are you still participating in activities related to coffee production?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
SECTION 1: GENERAL INFORMATION > SECTION 1A: GENERAL INFORMATION > S1C *Group relevant when: not(selected(S1Q07 , '77')) and not(selected(S1Q07 , '99'))*		
S1Q07A *(required)*	S1Q07A. Approximately when did you stop participating in activities related to coffee production? *[INTERVIEWER: SELECT MONTH (IF KNOWN)]* *Question relevant when: S1Q07 DOES NOT EQUAL 1*	1 1. JANUARY 2 2. FEBRUARY 3 3. MARCH 4 4. APRIL 5 5. MAY 6 6. JUNE 7 7. JULY 8 8. AUGUST 9 9. SEPTEMBER 10 10. OCTOBER 11 11. NOVEMBER 12 12. DECEMBER 77 77. DON'T KNOW
S1Q07A_YEAR *(required)*	S1Q07A_YEAR. YEAR *[INTERVIEWER: RECORD YEAR.]* *Question relevant when: S1Q07 DOES NOT EQUAL 1*	
SECTION 1: GENERAL INFORMATION > SECTION 1A: GENERAL INFORMATION > S1C > S1D *Group relevant when: (JOB_END_FLAG DOES NOT EQUAL 1) and (DOES_NOT_KNOW_FLAG DOES NOT EQUAL 1)*		
S1Q08 *(required)*	S1Q08. Do you have a boss?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW

		99 REFUSED
S1Q08A1 *(required)*	S1Q08A1. Does anyone tell you how much to produce? *READ ALOUD RESPONSE OPTIONS AND SELECT ALL THAT APPLY* *Question relevant when: S1Q08 > 1*	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S1Q08A2 *(required)*	S1Q08A2. Does anyone tell you what work to do? *Question relevant when: S1Q08 > 1*	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S1Q08A3 *(required)*	S1Q08A3. Does anyone tell you how to do the work (for example how to harvest the coffee beans)? *Question relevant when: S1Q08 > 1*	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S1Q08A4 *(required)*	S1Q08A4. Does anyone supervise when you do the work? *Question relevant when: S1Q08 > 1*	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S1Q08B *(required)*	S1Q08B. Who tells you to do this? *Question relevant when: S1Q08A1 = 1 or S1Q08A2 = 1 or S1Q08A3 = 1 or S1Q08A4 = 1*	1 CONTRACTOR/TENANT 2 FIELD SUPERVISOR 3 LAND OWNER 4 MEMBER OF YOUR FAMILY 5 COMPANY OR COOPERATIVE 55 OTHER 77 77. DON'T KNOW 99 99. REFUSED
S1Q08B_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: selected(S1Q08B , '55')*	
S1Q08C *(required)*	S1Q08C. Is your boss… *Question relevant when: S1Q08 = 1*	1 A contractor or tenant? 2 A field supervisor? 3 A land owner? 4 A member of your family ?

		55 55. OTHER 77 77. DON'T KNOW 99 99. REFUSED
S1Q08C_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: selected(S1Q08C , '55')*	
S1Q08D *(required)*	S1Q08D. INTERVIEWER: WHAT DOES THE RESPONDENT CALL THIER BOSS OR THE PERSON WHO TELLS THEM WHAT TO DO *Question relevant when: S1Q09 = 1*	1 CONTRACTOR 2 TENANT 3 FIELD SUPERVISOR 4 LAND OWNER 5 COMPANY
S1Q08E1 *(required)*	S1Q08E1. Does anyone tell your [boss] what to produce? *Question relevant when: S1Q08 = 1*	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S1Q08E2 *(required)*	S1Q08E2. Does anyone tell your [boss] how to produce? *Question relevant when: S1Q08 = 1*	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S1Q08E3 *(required)*	S1Q08E3. Does anyone tell your [boss] where to work? *Question relevant when: S1Q08 = 1*	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S1Q08E4 *(required)*	S1Q08E4. Does anyone tell your [boss] which tasks to do? *Question relevant when: S1Q08 = 1*	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S1Q08F *(required)*	S1Q08F. Who tells your [boss] to do this? *Question relevant when: S1Q08E1 = 1 or S1Q08E2 = 1 or S1Q08E3 = 1 or S1Q08E4 = 1*	1 CONTRACTOR/TENANT 2 FIELD SUPERVISOR 3 LAND OWNER 4 MEMBER OF YOUR FAMILY 5 COMPANY OR COOPERATIVE 55 OTHER

		77 77. DON'T KNOW 99 99. REFUSED
S1Q08F_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: selected(S1Q08F , '55')*	
S1Q08H *(required)*	S1Q08H. What is the name of the cooperative, organization or contractor? *Question relevant when: selected(S1Q08B , '5') or selected(S1Q08F , '5')*	
S1Q08J *(required)*	S1Q08J. What cooperative, organization or contractor does the field supervisor work for? *Question relevant when: (selected(S1Q08B , '2') or selected(S1Q08C , '2') or selected(S1Q08F , '2')) and S1Q08H = null*	
S1Q08G *(required)*	S1Q08G. To whom is the coffee sold? *Question relevant when: (selected(S1Q08B , '1') or selected(S1Q08B , '3') or selected(S1Q08B , '4') or selected(S1Q08C , '1') or selected(S1Q08C , '3') or selected(S1Q08C , '4') or selected(S1Q08F , '1') or selected(S1Q08F , '3') or selected(S1Q08F , '4')) and S1Q08H = null and S1Q08J = null*	
S1Q08K *(required)*	S1Q08K. To whom do you sell the coffee? *Question relevant when: S1Q09 = 2*	
S1Q08L *(required)*	S1Q08L. To which country is the coffee from the farm you work on sold? *SELECT ALL THAT APPLY*	1 USA 2 GERMANY 3 BELGIUM 4 COLOMBIA

		5 FRANCE 6 EUROPEAN UNION (OTHER THAN FRANCE) 55 OTHER 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S1Q08L_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: selected(S1Q08L , '55')*	
S1Q08M *(required)*	S1Q08M. Who owns the land you work on?	1 IS OWNER 2 IS ANOTHER PERSON'S 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S1Q10 *(required)*	S1Q10. Including yourself, about how many people worked at your worksite over the past harvest season?	
S1Q10A *(required)*	S1Q10A. Does the field where you are working have any certification?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S1Q10B *(required)*	S1Q10B. What is the name of the certification? SELECT ALL THAT APPLY. *Question relevant when: S1Q10A = 1*	1 RAINFOREST ALLIANCE 2 FAIRTRADE 3 ORGANIC 4 SELTI 55 OTHER 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S1Q10B_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: selected(S1Q10B , '55')*	
S1Q11 *(required)*	S1Q11. In which coffee activities have you engaged in the past year?	1 PLOTTING/ FIELD LAYOUT 2 HOLE DIGGING/ OPENING OF PLANTING HOLES 3 PLANTING 4 TOPPING (CORONEO) 5 FERTILIZATION 6 WEEDING

		7 PEST AND DISEASE CONTROL/ PHYTOSANITARY 8 HARVESTING 9 PULPING 10 FERMENTATION 11 WASHING 12 DRYING 13 BAGGING 14 LOADING ONTO TRUCK/VEHICLE 15 MARKETING/ COMMERCIALIZATION 55 OTHER 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S1Q11_OTHER_WORK_FOLLOW_UP *(required)*	S1Q11_OTHER_WORK_FOLLOW_UP. What other work related to the production of coffee did you do? *Question relevant when: selected(S1Q11 , '55')*	
S1Q11A *(required)*	S1Q11A. On which of these activities do (did) you spend the most time?	1 PLOTTING/ FIELD LAYOUT 2 HOLE DIGGING/ OPENING OF PLANTING HOLES 3 PLANTING 4 TOPPING (CORONEO) 5 FERTILIZATION 6 WEEDING 7 PEST AND DISEASE CONTROL/ PHYTOSANITARY 8 HARVESTING 9 PULPING 10 FERMENTATION 11 WASHING 12 DRYING

		13 BAGGING 14 LOADING ONTO TRUCK/VEHICLE 15 MARKETING/ COMMERCIALIZATION 55 55. OTHER : ... 77 77. DON'T KNOW 99 99. REFUSED
SECTION 2: RESPONDENT'S WORKING CONDITIONS *Group relevant when: (CONSENT = 1) and (S1Q02 > 17 or S1Q02 = -76) and (S1Q01 = 1) and (S1Q07 DOES NOT EQUAL 77) and (S1Q07 DOES NOT EQUAL 99) and (JOB_END_FLAG DOES NOT EQUAL 1) and (DOES_NOT_KNOW_FLAG DOES NOT EQUAL 1)*		
S2Q01 *(required)*	S2Q01. Sometimes workers are in debt to their employers or recruiters, for example after buying or using tools or receiving a pay advance. While working in your most recent job, were you ever in debt to your employer or recruiter? *Question relevant when: S1Q09 = 1*	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S2Q01A *(required)*	S2Q01A. Does your boss unfairly increase the amount of your debt over time? IF RESPONDENT HAS MULTIPLE DEBTS, ASK ABOUT THE MOST RECENT DEBT TO EMPLOYER/RECRUITER. *Question relevant when: S2Q01 = 1*	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S2Q01B *(required)*	S2Q01B. Have you made any changes to your work or your family's work to repay the debt? IF RESPONDENT HAS MULTIPLE DEBTS, ASK ABOUT THE MOST RECENT DEBT TO EMPLOYER/RECRUITER. *Question relevant when: S2Q01 = 1*	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S2Q01C *(required)*	S2Q01C. What changes did you make?	1 RESPONDENT WORKING ADDITIONAL DAYS/HOURS

	INTERVIEWER: SELECT ALL THAT APPLY. ASK "Anything else?" AT LEAST TWICE BEFORE MOVING ON. *Question relevant when: S2Q01B = 1*	RESPONDENT 2 WORKING ADDITIONAL JOB ADULT FAMILY 3 MEMBERS WORKING/ EXTRA WORK CHILD FAMILY 4 MEMBERS WORKING/ EXTRA WORK 55 OTHER 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S2Q01C_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: selected(S2Q01C , '55')*	
S2Q01D *(required)*	S2Q01D. If you were to leave your job before paying off your debt, what might happen? INTERVIEWER: SELECT ALL THAT APPLY. ASK "Anything else?" AT LEAST TWICE BEFORE MOVING ON. *Question relevant when: S2Q01 = 1*	THREATS OF OR SUBJECTION TO PHYSICAL VIOLENCE 1 AGAINST RESPONDENT OR RESPONDENT'S FAMILY BY EMPLOYER/RECRUITER RESTRICTION ON 2 RESPONDENT'S MOVEMENT 3 LOSS OF WITHHELD WAGES FINE OR DEDUCTION FROM WAGES 4 *BEYOND THE VALUE OF THE DEBT* 5 LOSS OF WITHHELD DOCUMENTS DEPORTATION OR 6 THREATS OF DEPORTATION 7 ARREST OR THREATS OF ARREST WITHHOLDING OF 8 MATERIAL GOODS AS COLLATERAL

		55 OTHER 66 NOTHING 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S2Q01D_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: selected(S2Q01D , '55')*	
S2Q02 *(required)*	S2Q02. On a typical day, how much are you paid? *Question relevant when: S1Q09 = 1*	
S2Q02A *(required)*	S2Q02A. Are your earnings from coffee production enough to meet your family's basic needs for food and shelter?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S2Q02B *(required)*	S2Q02B. How do you manage to meet the basic needs for food and shelter? *Question relevant when: S2Q02A = 2*	RESPONDENT 1 WORKING ADDITIONAL DAYS/HOURS RESPONDENT 2 WORKING ADDITIONAL JOB ADULT FAMILY 3 MEMBERS WORKING/ EXTRA WORK CHILD FAMILY 4 MEMBERS WORKING/ EXTRA WORK 55 OTHER 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S2Q02B_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: selected(S2Q02B , '55')*	
S2Q03 *(required)*	S2Q03. Does your employer impose a production quota/target? *Question relevant when: S1Q09 = 1*	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S2Q03A *(required)*	S2Q03A. Do you consider the quota/target to be a reasonable amount for an individual worker working alone?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW

	Question relevant when: S2Q03 = 1	99 REFUSED
S2Q03B *(required)*	S2Q03B. How do you manage the quota? *Question relevant when: S2Q03A = 2*	1 WORK HARDER 2 WORK EXTRA HOURS 3 HELP FROM ADULT FAMILY MEMBERS 4 HELP FROM CHILD FAMILY MEMBERS 5 HIRE EXTRA HELP - ADULT 6 HIRE EXTRA HELP - CHILD 55 OTHER 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S2Q03B_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: selected(S2Q03B , '55')*	
SECTION 3: WORKING CHILDREN-GENERAL *Group relevant when: (CONSENT = 1) and (S1Q02 > 17 or S1Q02 = -76) and (S1Q01 = 1) and (S1Q07 DOES NOT EQUAL 77) and (S1Q07 DOES NOT EQUAL 99) and (JOB_END_FLAG DOES NOT EQUAL 1) and (DOES_NOT_KNOW_FLAG DOES NOT EQUAL 1)*		
S3Q01 *(required)*	S3Q01. Of the coffee farms you know, have you seen minors under 18 years of age performing work/activities in coffee production?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S3Q01A *(required)*	S3Q01A. In what proportion of these farms do you think people under 18 years of age participate in coffee production? *Question relevant when: S3Q01 = 1*	1 ALL 2 MOST 3 AROUND HALF 4 FEW 5 NONE 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S3Q02 *(required)*	In your opinion, what are the main reasons that children under age 18 work in coffee farming? INTERVIEWER: SELECT ALL THAT APPLY. ASK "Anything else?" AT LEAST TWICE BEFORE MOVING ON.	1 POVERTY/HUNGER 2 TO PAY SCHOOL COSTS 3 SCHOOL ISN'T ACCESSIBLE/AVAILABLE

		4 CHILDREN CAN'T BE LEFT ALONE/LACK OF CHILDCARE 5 TO LEARN SKILLS OR PREPARE FOR FUTURE WORK 6 CHILD LABOR NEEDED TO MEET QUOTA 7 CULTURAL EXPECTATION THAT CHILDREN WORK/HELP 8 BECAUSE WANTED TO GET MONEY 55 OTHER 66 CHILDREN DON'T WORK IN COFFEE FARMING 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S3Q02_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: selected(S3Q02 , '55')*	
S3Q03 *(required)*	S3Q03. Thinking about the farm where you work, about how many people ages 15 to 17 did you observe working there during the past harvest season? [IF NEEDED, SAY: Your best guess is fine]	
S3Q03A *(required)*	What are the main tasks you saw people ages 15 to 17 perform? INTERVIEWER: SELECT ALL THAT APPLY *Question relevant when: S3Q03 > 0*	1 PLOTTING/ FIELD LAYOUT 2 HOLE DIGGING/ OPENING OF PLANTING HOLES 3 PLANTING 4 TOPPING (CORONEO) 5 FERTILIZATION 6 WEEDING

		7 PEST AND DISEASE CONTROL/ PHYTOSANITARY 8 HARVESTING 9 PULPING 10 FERMENTATION 11 WASHING 12 DRYING 13 BAGGING 14 LOADING ONTO TRUCK/VEHICLE 15 MARKETING/ COMMERCIALIZATION 55 OTHER 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S3Q03A_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: selected(S3Q03A , '55')*	
S3Q04 *(required)*	S3Q04. About how many children ages 12 to 14 did you observe working at your worksite during the past harvest season ? [IF NEEDED, SAY: Your best guess is fine]	
S3Q04A *(required)*	S3Q04A. What are the main tasks you saw children age 12 to 14 perform? INTERVIEWER: SELECT ALL THAT APPLY *Question relevant when: S3Q04 > 0*	1 PLOTTING/ FIELD LAYOUT 2 HOLE DIGGING/ OPENING OF PLANTING HOLES 3 PLANTING 4 TOPPING (CORONEO) 5 FERTILIZATION 6 WEEDING 7 PEST AND DISEASE CONTROL/ PHYTOSANITARY 8 HARVESTING 9 PULPING

		10 FERMENTATION 11 WASHING 12 DRYING 13 BAGGING 14 LOADING ONTO TRUCK/VEHICLE 15 MARKETING/ COMMERCIALIZATION 55 OTHER 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S3Q04A_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: selected(S3Q04A , '55')*	
S3Q05 *(required)*	S3Q05. About how many children ages 11 or under did you observe working at your worksite during the past harvest season ? [IF NEEDED, SAY: Your best guess is fine]	
S3Q05A *(required)*	S3Q05A. What are the main tasks you saw children age 11 or under perform? INTERVIEWER: SELECT ALL THAT APPLY *Question relevant when: S3Q05 > 0*	1 PLOTTING/ FIELD LAYOUT 2 HOLE DIGGING/ OPENING OF PLANTING HOLES 3 PLANTING 4 TOPPING (CORONEO) 5 FERTILIZATION 6 WEEDING 7 PEST AND DISEASE CONTROL/ PHYTOSANITARY 8 HARVESTING 9 PULPING 10 FERMENTATION 11 WASHING 12 DRYING 13 BAGGING

		14 LOADING ONTO TRUCK/VEHICLE 15 MARKETING/ COMMERCIALIZATION 55 OTHER 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S3Q05A_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: selected(S3Q05A , '55')*	
SECTION 4: FOCAL CHILD *Group relevant when: (CONSENT = 1) and (S1Q02 > 17 or S1Q02 = -76) and (S1Q01 = 1) and (S1Q07 DOES NOT EQUAL 77) and (S1Q07 DOES NOT EQUAL 99) and (JOB_END_FLAG DOES NOT EQUAL 1) and (DOES_NOT_KNOW_FLAG DOES NOT EQUAL 1)*		
S4Q01 *(required)*	S4Q01. Some children help their families by working, and others don't work. How about for you -- Do any of your children help by working in coffee farming? *Question relevant when: S1Q05B = 1*	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q01a	S4Q01a. We'd like to hear more about how they help. Please pick one of your children age 5 to 17 who helps with coffee farming. *Question relevant when: S4Q01 = 1*	
S4Q01b *(required)*	S4Q01b. You mentioned there are some people under age 18 at your worksite. Please pick one child whose activities you are most familiar with. Can we ask you some questions about his or her work? *Question relevant when: S4Q01 DOES NOT EQUAL1 and (S3Q03 > 0 or S3Q04 > 0 or S3Q05 > 0)*	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
SECTION 4: FOCAL CHILD > S4A *Group relevant when: S4Q01 =1 or S4Q01b =1*		
S4Q02 *(required)*	S4Q02. Now I will ask you some questions about this girl/boy you mentioned.	

	What is his or her name? INTERVIEWER: RECORD FIRST NAME, INITIAL, OR NICKNAME ONLY.	
S4Q03 *(required)*	S4Q03. Is [S4Q02] a boy or a girl?	1 BOY 2 GIRL 3 PREFER NOT TO SAY
S4Q04 *(required)*	S4Q04. How old is [S4Q02]?	
S4Q05	S4Q05.Has [S4Q02] ever been to school?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q05A *(required)*	S4Q05A. What is the highest level of education that [S4Q02] has completed? *Question relevant when: S4Q05 = 1*	1 PRESCHOOL/NURSERY SCHOOL 2 INCOMPLETE PRIMARY SCHOOL 3 COMPLETE PRIMARY SCHOOL 4 INCOMPLETE SECONDARY SCHOOL 5 COMPLETE SECONDARY SCHOOL 6 INCOMPLETE HIGHER TECHNICAL SCHOOL 7 COMPLETE HIGHER TECHNICAL SCHOOL 8 INCOMPLETE HIGHER UNIVERSITY SCHOOL 9 COMPLETE HIGHER UNIVERSITY SCHOOL 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q05AA	S4Q05AA. Is [S4Q02] currently enrolled in school? *Question relevant when: S4Q05 = 1*	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED

S4Q05B *(required)*	S4Q05B. Did [S4Q02] miss school to participate in the harvest or work? *Question relevant when: S4Q05AA = 1*	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q05C *(required)*	S4Q05C. How many days a week did he/she miss during a month of harvest? *Question relevant when: S4Q05B = 1*	
S4Q06 *(required)*	S4Q06. What coffee farming activities did [S4Q02] do in the past year? SELECT ALL THAT APPLY	1 PLOTTING/ FIELD LAYOUT 2 HOLE DIGGING/ OPENING OF PLANTING HOLES 3 PLANTING 4 TOPPING (CORONEO) 5 FERTILIZATION 6 WEEDING 7 PEST AND DISEASE CONTROL/ PHYTOSANITARY 8 HARVESTING 9 PULPING 10 FERMENTATION 11 WASHING 12 DRYING 13 BAGGING 14 LOADING ONTO TRUCK/VEHICLE 15 MARKETING/ COMMERCIALIZATION 55 OTHER 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q06_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: selected(S4Q06 , '55')*	
S4Q06a *(required)*	S4Q06a.	1 PLOTTING/ FIELD LAYOUT

	On which of these activities did [S4Q02] spend the most time? *Question relevant when: numselected_S4Q06_tot > 0*	2 HOLE DIGGING/ OPENING OF PLANTING HOLES 3 PLANTING 4 TOPPING (CORONEO) 5 FERTILIZATION 6 WEEDING 7 PEST AND DISEASE CONTROL/ PHYTOSANITARY 8 HARVESTING 9 PULPING 10 FERMENTATION 11 WASHING 12 DRYING 13 BAGGING 14 LOADING ONTO TRUCK/VEHICLE 15 MARKETING/ COMMERCIALIZATION 55 55. OTHER : ... 77 77. DON'T KNOW 99 99. REFUSED
S4Q07 *(required)*	S4Q07. About how many hours per week did [S4Q02] spend coffee farming during the past harvest season? INTERVIEWER: ENTER "0" IF TEMPORARILY ABSENT FROM JOB	
S4Q07A *(required)*	S4Q07A. In your estimation, did [S4Q02] spend 43 or more hours farming tobacco during the past harvest season? *Question relevant when: (S4Q07 = -77 or S4Q07 = -99) and (S4Q04 >= 15 and S4Q04 <= 17)*	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED

S4Q07b *(required)*	S4Q07b. In your estimation, did [S4Q02] spend 14 or more hours farming tobacco during the past harvest season? *Question relevant when: (S4Q07 = -77 or S4Q07 = -99) and (S4Q04 >= 12 and S4Q04 <= 14)*	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q07c *(required)*	S4Q07c. In your estimation, did [S4Q02] spend at least 1 hour farming tobacco during the past harvest season? *Question relevant when: (S4Q07 = -77 or S4Q07 = -99) and (S4Q04 <= 11)*	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q08 *(required)*	S4Q08. Now I want you to think about the coffee farming activities [S4Q02] was doing during the past harvest season. Was [S4Q02]… Carrying or pushing or pulling heavy loads? E.G. BAGS OF HARVESTED COFFEE BEANS, AGRICULTURAL TOOLS AND EQUIPMENT	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q08b *(required)*	S4Q08b. Using powered tools (electric or gas)? E.G. , DRILLS, SAWS, CHAIN/TABLE SAWS, ELECTRIC SANDERS, JACKHAMMERS	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q08c *(required)*	S4Q08c. Using sharp tools? E.G. AXES, KNIFES, MACHETES	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED

S4Q08d *(required)*	S4Q08d. Using big or heavy machines, or driving vehicles? E.G. MACHINES THAT ARE BIGGER THAN YOU SUCH AS ASSEMBLY MACHINES, TRACTORS, FORKLIFTS, CRANES, TRUCKS, MOTORCYCLES	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q08e *(required)*	S4Q08e. Working with fire, ovens or very hot machines or tools, or unsafe electric wires/cables, where [S4Q02] might get burned E.G. FIRES OVENS, IRONS, WELDING TOOLS, HOT METAL SURFACES, BURNERS, ELECTRIC WIRES/CABLES, BRICK KILNS	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q08f *(required)*	S4Q08f. Working in a very noisy place, so that [S4Q02] had to shout to speak? E.G. VERY LOUD NOISY MACHINES, LOUD TRAFFIC	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q08g *(required)*	S4Q08g. Working indoors or outdoors where dust, sand, smoke or fumes make it hard to breathe or see clearly? E.G. INSUFFICIENT VENTILATION	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q08h *(required)*	S4Q08h. Working in a place that is very cold, or working outdoors in very rainy or wet weather?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED

	E.G. IN COLD STORES/FRIDGES, WORKING IN RAIN/STORMS	
S4Q08i *(required)*	S4Q08i. Working long hours in the hot sun without a break?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q08j *(required)*	S4Q08k. Working with or around agricultural chemicals, or helping someone else to do this? E.G. SPRAYING OR SPREADING FERTILIZERS TO HELP CROPS/PLANTS GROW, SPRAYING OR SPREADING PESTICIDES/HERBICIDES TO KILL BUGS OR WEEDS, CLEANING PESTICIDE CONTAINERS	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q08k *(required)*	S4Q08l. Working during the night-time or very early in the morning, when it is dark, including going to or from work when it is dark?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q08m *(required)*	S4Q08m. Working in contact with large domestic animals (e.g., cattle), wild animals (e.g., snakes, insects) or around animal manure (e.g., manure pits, cleaning stalls)?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q08o *(required)*	Doing the same task repeatedly in an uncomfortable position?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q09 *(required)*	S4Q09. I'm going to read a list of protective gear. Please tell me which ones [S4Q02] usually wears. Does [S4Q02]	1 protective goggles 2 helmet 3 ear-plugs 4 face shield

	usually wear… INTERVIEWER: LISTEN AND SELECT ALL THAT APPLY *Question relevant when: S3Q01 = 1 or S3Q01 = 2 or S3Q01 = 3 or S3Q01 = 4*	5 respirator or dust mask 6 protective clothing (ex: coveralls) 7 gloves 8 shoes 55 any other? 66 NONE 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q09_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: selected(S4Q09 , '55')*	
S4Q10 *(required)*	S4Q10. Has [S4Q02] ever gotten hurt or sick because of their work in this job?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q10A *(required)*	S4Q10A. What types of injury or sickness has [S4Q02] had? INTERVIEWER: LISTEN AND SELECT ALL THAT APPLY *Question relevant when: S4Q10 = 1*	1 HEAD INJURY 2 INJURY TO OR DEAFNESS IN EARS 3 EYE INJURY 4 INJURY TO SHOULDER 5 INJURY TO OR SWELLING IN HANDS 6 SMOKE, DUST, OR CHEMICAL DAMAGE TO LUNGS 7 INJURY TO ABDOMEN 8 BACK STRAIN/ PAIN IN BACK 9 INJURY TO KNEES OR LEGS 10 TWISTED ANKLE 11 INJURY TO FEET 12 HEAT STROKE 13 BURN FROM FIRE 14 CHEMICAL BURN 15 CUTS/WOUNDS

		16 CULTURAL ILLNESSES (SUCH AS 'WIND DISEASE') 17 RESPIRATORY ILLNESSES LIKE COLD/FLU 55 OTHER 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q10A_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: selected(S4Q10A , '55')*	
S4Q10B *(required)*	S4Q10B. How did [S4Q02] get hurt or sick? INTERVIEWER: LISTEN AND SELECT ALL THAT APPLY *Question relevant when: S4Q10 = 1*	1 FALLING DOWN 2 TOOL ACCIDENT 3 MACHINERY ACCIDENT 55 OTHER 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q10B_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: selected(S4Q10B , '55')*	
S4Q11 *(required)*	S4Q11. Does the employer ever do anything to make [S4Q02] work harder or faster?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q11A *(required)*	S4Q11A. What does the employer do to make [S4Q02] work harder or faster? INTERVIEWER: INCLUDE BOTH THREATS AND ACTIONS *Question relevant when: S4Q11 = 1*	1 PHYSICAL VIOLENCE TOWARDS CHILD OR CHILD'S FAMILY 2 VERBAL ABUSE 3 RESTRICTION OF CHILD'S MOVEMENT 4 FINE OR DEDUCTION FROM WAGES 5 THREATS OF DISMISSAL 55 OTHER 66 NOTHING 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED

S4Q11A_OTHER *(required)*	SPECIFY OTHER *Question relevant when: selected(S4Q11A , '55')*	
S4Q12 *(required)*	S4Q12. Has [S4Q02] even been punished for mistakes at work?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q12A *(required)*	S4Q12A. How has [S4Q02] been punished at work? *Question relevant when: S4Q12 = 1*	1 VERBAL ABUSE 2 PHYSICAL VIOLENCE 3 DEDUCTIONS FROM WAGES 4 DISAGREEABLE WORK ASSIGNMENTS 5 ADDITIONAL WORK ASSIGNMENTS 6 ADDITIONAL WORK HOURS 55 OTHER 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q13 *(required)*	S4Q13. Would [S4Q02] be allowed to leave the workplace if [S4Q02] were very ill, injured, had a serious family problem or wanted to quit?	1 YES 2 NO 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q13A *(required)*	S4Q13A. Why not? *Question relevant when: S4Q13 = 2*	1 THREATS OF OR SUBJECTION TO PHYSICAL VIOLENCE AGAINST RESPONDENT OR RESPONDENT'S FAMILY BY EMPLOYER/RECRUITER 2 RESTRICTION ON RESPONDENT'S MOVEMENT 3 DEBT BONDAGE OR MANIPULATION OF DEBT (DEBT TO EMPLOYER/RECRUITER)

		4 WITHHOLDING OF WAGES 5 WITHHOLDING OF VALUABLE DOCUMENTS 6 DEPORTATION OR THREATS OF DEPORTATION 55 OTHER 66 NO EMPLOYER COERCION (NEEDED JOB / REQUIRED BY PARENTS") 77 DON'T KNOW 99 REFUSED
S4Q14 *(required)*	What is the name of the place where you work (worked) for the job we've been talking about? [INTERVIEWER: RECONFIRM CONFIDENTIALITY IF NEEDED.]	
S4Q15 *(required)*	Where is your workplace located? INTERVIEWER: RECORD AS MUCH DETAIL AS POSSIBLE.	
INTERVIEWER_NOTES	INTERVIEWER NOTES:	
SURVEY_END	END INTERVIEW Thank you very much for sharing your experience.	

PERU COFFEE: ADULT WORKER QUALITATIVE INTERVIEW GUIDE

Introduction/Supply Chain:

1. Could you please tell me about your work in coffee production?
    a. Do you have your own farm? Do you grow coffee?
    b. Do you work on someone else's farm? Where is it located?
    c. How long have you been doing it?
2. Do you know where the coffee goes after it leaves your workplace?
    a. PROBE FOR:
        i. How is it sold?
        ii. How is it transported before / after sale?
        iii. Who buys it?
3. Let's talk about children and adolescents (under 18) who participate in coffee farming activities. How do we distinguish between those who are helping and those who are working?
4. Do you have any children and if so, how old are they?
5. (*IF RESPONDENT HAS CHILDREN, IF NOT SKIP*) Do your children participate in coffee farming? Why or why not?
    a. If so, what tasks do they perform?
        i. Are they assisting you or performing other tasks?
    b. If so, how often do they accompany you at the worksite?

(NOTE FOR INTERVIEWER: BASED ON INTERVIEWEE RESPONSE TO "QUESTION 5" : CHILD WORK STATUS PLEASE USE THE APPROPRIATE SECTION OF QUESTION. FOR RESPONDENTS WITH A CHILD WHO IS WORKING IN THE INDUSTRY USE THE **"FOR RESPONDENTS WITH CHILDREN PARTICIPATING IN COFFEE FARMING"** SET. FOR RESPONDENTS EITHER WITHOUT A CHILD OR WITH A CHILD WHO IS NOT WORKING IN THE INDUSTRY USE THE **"FOR RESPONDENTS WITHOUT CHILDREN PARTICIPATING IN COFFEE FARMING"** SET)

For Respondents with Children in Industry:

1. Please tell me about how your child got started in coffee activities.
    a. At what age did your children start participating in coffee farming?
2. Do your children receive payment for their participation in coffee activities? How much are they typically paid?
    a. Do they get paid directly, or how does the payment work?
3. During which months do your children participate in coffee farming activities?
4. Let's talk about the periods your child participates in coffee production. Could you describe a typical day for him/her in the field?
    a. What time does he/she go to the farm? Whom did he/she go with?
    b. What does he/she do when they get there? And then? [INTERVIEWER: CONTINUE TO PROMPT UNTIL RESPONDENT RECOUNTS FULL DAY]
    c. When does he/she go home?
5. During the periods your child participates in coffee activities, how many hours a day does your child spend involved in coffee?
    a. What hours do they help/ work?
    b. Are there certain times of the week they work more or less?

    c. Is this the same each week?
6. In addition to your own children, have you observed other children working or helping out in coffee farming?
    a. If so, what tasks do they perform / are they similar or different to your own children?
    b. Do you notice any differences in what boys are doing and what girls are doing??
7. Are there certain tasks that your children do that adult workers do not? Please explain
    a. What activities are more suited to younger children? What about adolescents?
8. Who decided that your child would participate in coffee farming?
    a. What led to this decision?
    b. Has your child ever refused? If so, how did you respond?
    c. What would happen if your child wanted to stop?
9. Are your children performing activities on the worksite treated the same as adults such as yourself? If not, what is the difference?
    a. Who treats them differently?
10. Do you consider any of the activities your child does/ has done in coffee farming to be dangerous?
    a. Why or why not?
    b. Have you seen your child(ren) get injured? What happened?
        i. If they respond that their children haven't been injured: Have you seen any children get injured?
    c. Have you seen any children being mistreated?
        i. If so, by whom? Please explain.
        ii. If so, did you feel that you could speak up about what you witnessed? Please explain.
    d. What changes would need to happen in your household or community for your child(ren) to not participate in these dangerous activities?
11. Have your children experienced any challenges accessing schooling in your community? If yes, please explain. Do your children attend school currently?
    a. Do any school challenges relate to your children's participation in coffee farming?
    b. If your child participates in coffee farming and attends school, do you think this affects their schooling?
        i. If yes: how does their participation in coffee farming affect their schooling?
    c. What changes would need to happen in your household or community so that your child(ren) doesn't miss classes to do coffee farming activities?
12. In your opinion how does your child feel about their participation in coffee production? Please explain.
13. In your opinion, at what age should people start participating in coffee farming? Why?
14. How do people in your community feel about children participating in coffee farming?
15. Is there anything else you'd like to add?

(INTERVIEWER: THANK THE RESPONDENT FOR THEIR PARTICIPATION AND END INTERVIEW)

For Respondents without Children Participating in Coffee Farming:

1. **For those who do have children but whose children don't participate in coffee activities at all:** Why don't your children participate in coffee production? Who made this decision?
2. In your work within the coffee industry how often have you witnessed/observed any children at the worksite?
    a. What tasks have you seen them perform?
    b. Are you aware of if they are accompanied by an adult/parent or are they alone?
3. Are there certain tasks that only children do (instead of adults)? Please explain
4. At what age do people typically start participating in coffee farming?
5. At what age do people typically start participating in coffee farming?
6. In your opinion, at what age should people start participating in coffee farming?
    a. (IF PEOPLE BEGIN EARLIER THAN THE RESPONDENT THINKS THEY SHOULD) Why do you think people begin participating sooner? Any other reason?
7. How do people in your community feel about children participating in coffee farming?
8. What types of coffee industry activities do people under 18 typically do?
    a. What activities are more suited to younger children, which to adolescents?
    b. Is there a difference between the activities girls do, vs the activities boys do?
9. Which groups of children are more likely to participate in coffee farming?
    a. PROBE: Local or migrant children? Girls or Boys? Ages? Etc.
10. Who decides that a child will participate in coffee farming?
    a. What happens if that child refuses?
    b. Can a child choose to stop? Do you feel that children are forced to do coffee farming activities – please explain?
11. How much are children typically paid for their participation in coffee farming? Does it vary by age or activities? Tell me more about that.
    a. How are they paid? How does this differ from adult workers?
12. During the most intense coffee season, How many hours in a day do children typically participate in coffee farming?
    a. Does this change in relation to the time of year / season?
13. Are children performing activities on the worksite treated the same as adults? If not, what is the difference?
14. Are there any challenges to accessing schooling in your community? If yes, please explain.
    a. Does this relate to children's participation in coffee activities?
    b. Do children who do coffee farming activities tend to also attend school? If yes how does work affect their schooling?
    c. What changes would need to happen in your community so that children don't miss classes to do coffee farming activities?
15. Do you consider the activities children do on coffee farms to be dangerous?
    a. Why or why not?
    b. Have you seen any children getting injured?
    c. Have you seen any children being mistreated?
    d. What changes would need to happen in your community for children to not participate in these dangerous activities?
16. In your perspective, how do children feel about their participation in coffee farming? Please explain

17. Is there anything else you'd like to add?

(INTERVIEWER: THANK THE RESPONDENT FOR THEIR PARTICIPATION AND END THE INTERVIEW)

PERU COFFEE: CHILD WORKER QUALITATIVE INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Can you tell me a little about yourself?
    a. How old are you?
    b. Where do you and your family live? Who do you live with?
    c. What languages do you speak? And your parents?
    d. And do your parents (or the relatives they live with) have farms? Do they grow coffee?
    e. Do you go to school? (INTERVIEWER: YOU WILL COME BACK TO THIS TOPIC. THIS IS TO GET THE CONVERSATION STARTED)
2. What kind of coffee farming activities do you do?
    a. Where do you do these activities? In your family's farm or in someone else's farm? [INTERVIEWER: for future answers have in mind that if they do coffee farming activities in their family's land they may see their labor as help and not work]
        i. Did you relocate to come to the coffee farm? IF YES: From where? With whom?
    b. Do you consider those activities as work or not? Why?
    c. How often do you do this?
    d. For how long have you been doing it?
    e. How did you become involved in coffee farming?
        i. When did you start?
        ii. Where did you start?
        iii. [INTERVIEWER: IF THEY MENTIONED THAT BEFORE THEY FELT LIKE THEY WERE JUST HELPING AND NOW THEY WORK] When did it start to feel like work?
3. What is the main reason you do coffee farming activities?
4. Do you see any other children doing coffee farming activities?
    a. If so, how old are they?
    b. Do the younger ones do different tasks than the older children? What kind of work do they do?
    c. And do boys and girls do the same tasks, or different tasks?
5. Think about the last time you did coffee farming activities. I would like to hear about your whole day.
    a. What time did you go to the farm? Whom did you go with?
    b. What did you do when you got there? And then? [INTERVIEWER: CONTINUE TO PROMPT UNTIL RESPONDENT RECOUNTS FULL DAY]
    c. When did you go home? How did you know it was time to go home?
    d. Was that a pretty normal day? IF NO: Why not?
6. Are the tasks you do hard? Which ones? What makes them hard?
    a. [If they answer that the tasks are easy] Have you always found those tasks to be easy or were they hard before? What changed?
7. What do you have to be careful about at the farm? [INTERVIEWER: IF NOT MENTIONED, PROBE ABOUT USE OF MACHINERY OR HIGH-RISK TOOLS, AGROCHEMICALS, ANIMALS, SLOPES]
    a. Do you do anything to protect yourself? Did someone teach you how to protect yourself?
    b. When you do these tasks is someone watching over you? Who?
    c. Have you ever gotten hurt or sick because of these activities? Tell me more about that.
    d. Have you ever seen anyone else at the farm get hurt or sick? Tell me what happened. Does this happen a lot? Have you seen other kids getting hurt?
8. Who tells you what to do when you're there? Anyone else? [INTERVIEWER: ESTABLISH WHETHER PEOPLE REFERENCED ARE FAMILY MEMBERS]

9. Does this person / do these people ever do anything to make you work harder or faster? Tell me more about that.
10. What happens if you make a mistake?
11. Are you paid? How are you paid? Do they pay you per hour worked or how does that work?
    a. How much do you earn?
    b. What happens to the money you earn? Do you keep it or give it to someone?
12. After the coffee leaves the farm, do you know where it goes? / Who buys it?
        i. (PROBE AS NEEDED INTO THE SUPPLY CHAIN IF THE RESPONDENT APPEARS TO BE KNOWLEDGEABLE)
13. I'd like to hear more about your life outside of coffee farming.
    a. IF DOES GO TO SCHOOL: Do you like school? Do your coffee activities make it hard to go to school or do schoolwork? Please explain.
    b. Is there any other activity you do at home that makes it difficult for you to attend school?
    c. What do you do during summer vacation?
    d. IF DOES NOT GO TO SCHOOL: You mentioned you don't go to school. Tell me more about that.

NOTE TO INTERVIEWER: ASK ONE OR BOTH OF THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS TO END THE INTERVIEW ON A POSITIVE NOTE

14. What do you like to do for fun? Tell me more about that.
15. What kind of job would you like to have in the future?

INTERVIEWER: THANK THE RESPONDENT FOR THEIR PARTICIPATION, AND END THE INTERVIEW.

PERU COFFEE: SUPPLY CHAIN KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEW GUIDE

Introduction Questions:

1. Could you please tell me your role and what you focus on?
   a. Is there other experience you have in the coffee industry?
2. Can you describe your organization's work directly in the coffee industry?
   a. PROBE FOR WHAT KIND OF ACTIVITIES IN THIS AREA DO YOU AND YOUR ORGANIZATION UNDERTAKE?

Sourcing Questions for Buyers (Middlemen, Traders, and Processors):

3. Where do you source your coffee from?
   a. PROBE (geographical region, names of sites, etc.)
   b. Please explain your sourcing process (buying method, transportation process, etc.)
   c. Do you keep the coffee you buy from each source separate? At what point do you combine coffee from multiple sources? Please explain.
4. How often do you source coffee from these places?
   a. Are there times of the year when this changes? Please explain.
   b. How do you determine how much you buy from a source?
5. Who are your primary buyers (domestic and/or international) of coffee?
   a. PROBE (regions, companies, countries, specific industry)

Tracing and Due Diligence:

6. How could coffee produced at a particular farm be traced through the domestic supply chain?
   a. Probe for upstream tracing (if you were a company- how would you track the beans you purchased?) or downstream (if you were a farmer- how would you track the beans you sold?)
   b. At what points in the domestic supply chain are coffee beans from one farm commingled with another? From one cooperative with another? Among buyers/consolidators? Among exporters?
   c. Is there a point in the supply chain where you anticipate tracking would no longer be possible? (probe for specifics on with what stakeholder the traceability ends, ex: intermediary buyer, exporter, etc.)

   (IF NOT ALREADY ANSWERED) When does the mixing of coffee beans from different sites occur, how does mixing occur?
7. What oversight is being conducted by the government when it comes to labor standards within the coffee industry and its supply chain? How does this impact your company? Are there other initiatives related to improving or monitoring labor conditions in the coffee industry?
   a. PROBE FOR SPECIFICS ON WHAT THE INITIATIVES ARE AND WHO IS PROMOTING THEM (E.G. GOVERNMENT, INTERNATIONAL CORPORATIONS, DOMESTIC COMPANIES))
   b. What about any supply chain traceability initiatives specifically? Please explain the stakeholders involved, including your own company.
   c. What are the different certifications available for companies/organizations/Cooperatives in the coffee industry and how common are they?
      i. How are these certifications monitored / approved and is your company a part of any of them? If so, please explain how you got approved and how you are monitored for compliance.

    ii. Are there gaps in these certification schemes? Please explain.
8. What due diligence initiatives does your company/organization/Cooperative participate in to monitor labor conditions on the farms you source from? PROBE: IF NOT MENTIONED, ASK HOW THESE INITIATIVES COVER LABOR ISSUES, WHAT THEY HAVE TO DOCUMENT AND MONITOR
    a. (IF NOT ANSWERED IN PREVIOUS QUESTION) What supply chain or industry certifications does your company currently have? Can you please explain the process involved in obtaining the certification(s) and how you are monitored for compliance?
    b. Are you actively working to obtain any additional certifications in the near future? Please tell me more about that.
9. Other than coffee beans, are you aware of any downstream coffee products that are manufactured in Peru for export or domestic consumption?
10. Which stakeholder in the domestic supply chain roasts beans before export?

Post-Export Questions:

11. How would you describe the role of coffee exports from Peru in the global trade of coffee?
    a. What are some international markets? (Based off of known destination markets, probe for specific companies, buyers, traders)
        i. Are there any emerging national markets that you anticipate will be more important to Peru in the next few years? Any markets you anticipate will decrease their current demand?
12. Likewise do you anticipate an increase or decrease in company interest in Peru coffee beans, whether they are based domestically or abroad? Who are the major players / stakeholders in trading Peruvian coffee?
    a. Who are the major exporters and importers involved in this?
    b. Are companies that buy Peruvian coffee vertically integrated entities with processors abroad? How important are independent traders to the export market? (PROBE FOR CONTRACTS, OWNERSHIP, CORPORATE CONNECTIONS, ETC)
    c. How do importing companies manage coffee imports from multiple countries? For example, is Peruvian coffee imported into the United States combined with coffee from other countries? Which countries (or companies) sell single-blend Peruvian coffee and which sell mixed blends? (PROBE FOR BRAND NAMES, TRENDS, PATTERNS) How are ratio or end-use determined? Is it exclusively at the purchasing company's discretion? Is there any stakeholder in Peru (government, CSO, private industry) that is concerned with downstream use or blend ratios of Peruvian coffee?
    d. Are any other downstream products produced in Peru (such as coffee drinks, baked goods with coffee, coffee oils) that are exported?

Labor Questions:

13. What is your overall impression of working conditions in coffee farming in Peru?
    a. What are the main issues you are aware of? (PROBE FOR CHILD LABOR IF NOT STATED)
14. What can you tell us about labor standards in coffee farming?
    a. What are the primary concerns across the industry when it comes to labor standards?
    b. How are labor standards enforced at your workplace and who enforces them?

Conclusion:

15. Could you suggest any organizations or individuals that are well informed about the coffee supply chain that we could interview?
    a. Are there any quantitative data sources, articles, or reports you would recommend we review?
16. Is there anything else you would like to add?

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Introduction Questions (KIIs):

1. Could you please tell me your role and what you focus on?
    a. Is there other experience you have in relation to the **coffee sector**?
    b. Can you describe your organization's work directly related to children working in coffee farming?
        i. What age groups do you work with?
        ii. Do you do any additional work with families of working children or other stakeholders such as industry groups, government bodies, or CSOs?

Child Labor Questions General:

2. Are you aware of the presence of children working or helping their parents in the coffee farming in Peru?
    a. Has this changed in recent years, if so please explain?
    b. PROBE FOR SPECIFICS ON: CHILDREN 15-17, CHILDREN 12-14, AND CHILDREN 11 AND YOUNGER
    c. In your opinion / expertise, does this amount to child labor (INTERVIEWER READ ILO DEFINITION OF CHILD LABOR). Please explain.
3. (PROVIDE VERBAL AND WRITTEN DEFINITION OF ILO DEFINITION OF CHILD LABOR FOR THE RESPONDENT) Based on this definition we have provided, how prevalent is child labor in coffee farming?
    a. PROBE FOR SPECIFICS ON: CHILDREN 15-17, CHILDREN 12-14, AND CHILDREN 11 AND YOUNGER
    b. Where is child labor most prevalent? – PROBE FOR SPECIFICS (REGION, SITE/EMPLOYER TYPE, ETC.) PROBE SPECIFICALLY FOR CAJAMARCA AND JUNÍN REGIONS.
    c. What types of children are most at risk for child labor (sex, ethnicity, migratory status, etc.)?
4. In your opinion, what are the main drivers of child labor in coffee farming?
    a. (PROBE FOR INDUSTRY SPECIFIC ANSWERS) What might incentivize an employer to engage in child labor practices? Does this change based on the age of the child?
5. What types of farms are most likely to employ children?
6. Is child labor present at any other stages of production besides cultivation?
    a. Are certain stages more likely to use children than others – please explain.
    b. PROBE FOR SPECIFICS ON: CHILDREN 15-17, CHILDREN 12-14, AND CHILDREN 11 AND YOUNGER

Recruitment and Working Hours:

7. Could you tell me how children become involved in labor activities in coffee farming? Are there any differences in recruitment patterns between child laborers and permitted adolescent workers?
    a. Are the jobs arranged? If so, by whom? (PROBE FOR FAMILY INVOLVEMENT)
        i. Is a recruiter involved? - IF SO, REQUEST DETAILS AND PROBE ABOUT FEES
    b. Have you heard of children being sold or taken by force to work in coffee farming?
8. When are children typically engaged in labor activities?
    a. PROBE ALL FREQUENCIES**:** HOURS PER DAY/WEEK, NUMBER OF DAYS PER WEEK, TIME OF DAY? SEASONAL OR YEAR-ROUND?
    b. PROBE FOR SPECIFICS ON: CHILDREN 15-17, CHILDREN 12-14, AND CHILDREN 11 AND YOUNGER

   c. PROBE FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN LEGALLY PERMITTED WORKING ADOLESCENTS AND CHILD LABORERS
9. Are children who work or help in coffee farming able to attend school regularly? Please explain?
   a. What about those that qualify as cases of child labor that we have been discussing?
   b. If able, how often? / If unable, why? (PROBE FOR SPECIFICS ON: CHILDREN 15-17, CHILDREN 12-14, AND CHILDREN 11 AND YOUNGER)
   c. In your opinion / expertise at what age do children stop attending school to work in coffee farming
10. Are children paid for their work? If so, are they paid directly or is someone else paid for their work? Please explain.
   a. If so, in what form? (Hourly or piece-rate, cash, or another means)
   b. Are you aware of situations when working children have their wages deducted? Please explain?
   c. PROBE FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN LEGALLY PERMITTED WORKING ADOLESCENTS AND CHILD LABORERS

Working Conditions:

11. Are there any tasks that are seen as more suitable for children to perform by families/employers? Why?
   a. PROBE FOR SPECIFICS ON: CHILDREN 15-17, CHILDREN 12-14, AND CHILDREN 11 AND YOUNGER
   b. Are there certain tasks of these that you mentioned that can be considered hazardous or dangerous? Please explain.
12. What kinds of dangers/risks are children in coffee farming exposed to? (Exposure to chemicals, sharp hand tools, etc.)
   a. PROBE FOR SPECIFICS ON: CHILDREN 15-17, CHILDREN 12-14, AND CHILDREN 11 AND YOUNGER
   b. Are children provided with protective gear? What kind?
   c. Are you aware of any reports of children being injured while working? - please explain.
   d. Are these dangers present on all types of farms or only certain types of farms?
13. How are children treated by their employers / family members when working?
   a. Have you heard of children feeling threatened at work? – please explain?
   b. Have you heard of children working in coffee farming being mistreated in any way? - please explain?
   c. Are you aware of situations where children cannot leave their job if they chose to? Please explain?

Community Attitudes and Efforts:

14. What is the local attitude towards the use of child labor in coffee farming?
   a. PROBE FOR SPECIFICS ON: CHILDREN 15-17, CHILDREN 12-14, AND CHILDREN 11 AND YOUNGER
15. Are you aware of any efforts by government or non-government entities to prevent child labor or remove children from working in coffee farming? Please explain the one you are most familiar with.
   a. Where are these efforts occurring (nationally, regionally, etc.)?
16. What about worker associations or employers / site owners or wider industry initiatives? What about certification schemes? What do they do to prevent child labor or remove children from working in coffee farming?
   a. Where are these efforts occurring (nationally, regionally, etc.)?

b. (PROBE FOR SPECIFICS ON MONITORING POLICES)

17. What are the relevant laws used to safeguard against child labor in coffee farming?
    a. How are these laws enforced? PROBE: What about inspections? (Ask about who is responsible for carrying out labor inspections in smallholders coffee farms, if they are regularly conducted, or if there has been any experience inspecting these types of farms)
    b. In your opinion, how effect are these laws at preventing/addressing child labor?

Supply Chain-Specific Questions:

18. Are you aware of any certification program that includes standards related to the prohibition of incorporating child labor in the production process. What is your perspective on the (certification mentioned)?

Conclusion:

19. What changes would need to happen to prevent people under the age of 18 from working in coffee farming activities that are hazardous/dangerous or otherwise age inappropriate? / What changes would need to happen to prevent child labor in the coffee farming industry?
20. Could you suggest any organizations or individuals that are well informed about the coffee supply chain or child labor in the industry that we could interview?
    a. (IF APPLICABLE BASED ON RESPONDENT TYPE: PROBE IF THE INDIVIDUAL HAS ANY ADDITIONAL REPORTS OR DATA THEY ARE ABLE TO SHARE)
21. Is there anything else you'd like to add?

APPENDIX 5: PERUVIAN LEGISLATION REGARDING CHILD LABOR IN PERU AND ITS SPECIFICITY IN AGRICULTURAL CHILD LABOR

Peruvian legislation on child labor has evolved in accordance with international commitments assumed by the state, consolidating a legal framework that seeks to protect children and adolescents from labor exploitation. This legislation clearly establishes the minimum age for work, prohibits the worst forms of child labor, and defines specific conditions for adolescent employment, prioritizing their comprehensive development, including health, education, and protection.

The table that follows shows the current legislation in Peru related to child labor that stems from international conventions ratified by the country and current national legislation:

Peruvian legislation relevant to child labor

Year	Legislation	Specification	Status
1990	Convention on the Rights of the Child	Legal Registry No. 25278	In force
2000	Code of Children and Adolescents	Law 27337	In force
2001	Minimum age of employment	Convention No. 138 Ratification (Legal Registry No. 27453)	In force
2001	Worst forms of child labor	Convention No. 182 Ratification (Legal Registry No. 27543)	In force
2020	Law of the agricultural labor regime and incentives for the agricultural and irrigation, agro-export, and agro-industrial sector	Law No. 31110	In force
2022	List of dangerous or harmful activities for the physical or moral health of children and adolescents	Supreme Decree 009-2022-MIMP	In force

Three standards directly related to child labor in agriculture are described in this appendix: the Code of Children and Adolescents (Law No. 27337), which establishes rights and conditions for adolescent work; Supreme Decree No. 009-2022-MIMP, which details dangerous activities prohibited for minors, (many of them linked to agricultural work); and Law No. 31110, which regulates the agricultural labor regime and includes the prohibition of child labor.

LAW NO. 27337, CODE OF CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS

Law No. 27337, Code of Children and Adolescents, is the primary legislative instrument regulating the rights and comprehensive protection of people under age 18 in Peru. In regard to labor, it establishes the minimum age for work and the conditions under which adolescents can engage in economic activities, and prohibits dangerous child labor. In the agricultural context, this law recognizes the physical, health, and educational risks faced by children and adolescents in rural environments, especially in agricultural and agro-industrial activities. This framework prohibits children's participation in work that is dangerous, unhealthy, or may affect their comprehensive development.

General principles on child labor

The code clearly establishes the rights of children and adolescents to be protected from economic exploitation and any work that may be dangerous, hinder their education, or be harmful to their health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral, or social development.

Minimum age for work

Article 51 states:

- Minimum age for work: 14 years
- Between 12 and 14 years old, children can participate in "light work" outside school hours for no more than 4 hours daily or 24 hours weekly.

Specific restrictions

Articles 56, 57, and 58 detail prohibited activities for minors:

- Activities that involve physical or moral risk
- Activities that may affect the safety or health of the child or adolescent
- Nighttime activities or activities in dangerous or unhealthy places

These prohibitions are complemented by an official list of dangerous activities (S.D. 009-2022 MIMP: *Relación de trabajos y actividades peligrosas*).

SUPREME DECREE. NO. 009-2022-MIMP

Supreme Decree No. 009-2022-MIMP, issued in July 2022, provides an updated list of dangerous or harmful work and activities that could damage the physical or moral health of children and adolescents. The list was developed through an inter-institutional effort by civil society organizations and government institutions that are part of the National Committee for the Prevention and Eradication of Child Labor.

Considerations of the dangerous work regulation

Article 1 of the Supreme Decree updates and replaces the previous list from 2010, establishing the absolute prohibition of work in dangerous or harmful activities for adolescents (aged 14 to 17). It includes two set of activities: (a) dangerous in nature (mining, agro-industry, use of machinery, power tools, exposure to chemicals, work in aquatic environments or heights, handling loads >15 kg, noise, radiation, animal waste, explosives, etc.); and (b) dangerous by their conditions (excessive hours, night work, unaccompanied temporary migration, domestic work outside one's own home, environments with risk of physical, psychological, or sexual abuse, street work, passenger transport).

It also contemplates specific exceptions to the list of dangerous activities, allowing the participation of adolescents in certain tasks provided that strict conditions are met. These exceptions include administrative or documentary activities, as well as technical-productive or artisanal training of a family nature, provided they are developed in a safe environment, under adequate supervision, and in compliance with the corresponding occupational safety and health standards. In this way, formative and limited participation of adolescents is allowed without compromising their integrity or fundamental rights.

Scope of intervention

This Article involves all adolescents between ages 14 and 17, without sectoral exception or by size of productive unit.

- It does not distinguish between formal or informal workers, nor between large companies or family agriculture.
- Adolescents who perform administrative, documentary, or technical/family training activities are exempt from prohibition, provided that these tasks are not on the dangerous list and respective safety conditions are respected.

Although the list does not explicitly mention agricultural activity, it does establish that:

- The participation of children and adolescents in activities that expose their health, safety, or morality is prohibited.

This includes work:

- With exposure to agrochemicals (pesticides)
- In extensive hours or extreme weather conditions
- That involves the use of dangerous tools (machetes, plows, etc.)
- In areas of physical risk, such as slopes or heights

Therefore, much of the typical agricultural work in rural areas can be considered dangerous child labor according to this law and its complementary regulations.

Absolute prohibition

Child labor (children under age 15), without authorization or protection measures, is totally prohibited.

LAW NO. 31110, LAW OF THE AGRICULTURAL LABOR REGIME AND INCENTIVES FOR THE AGRICULTURAL AND IRRIGATION, AGRO-EXPORT AND AGRO-INDUSTRIAL SECTOR

Law No. 31110, which establishes the agricultural labor regime with incentives for the agricultural, irrigation, agro-export, and agro-industrial sector, seeks to improve working conditions and promote formalization in these activities. The standard prohibits the hiring of minors (under age 18). However, this protection has a limited scope: it does not apply to small producers organized in associations whose plots, individually, do not exceed five hectares. This exclusion leaves a significant segment of agriculture outside the agricultural labor regime, meaning that child labor—especially unpaid or concealed—can persist without supervision or guarantee of legal protection.

Purpose of the law

The purpose of this law is to establish the agricultural labor regime and incentives for the agricultural and irrigation sector, oriented to worker development, productivity, and labor formalization, as well as improving sector competitiveness.

The law applies to:

- Agro-industrial activities: primary processing of agricultural products (such as packing, selection, drying, packaging plants, etc.)
- Irrigation and drainage activities linked to agriculture
- Activities connected to the agricultural and agro-industrial production chain, which are part of the transformation and commercialization of agricultural products

Exceptions

- Does not apply to subsistence or non-commercial family agriculture
- Does not cover other rural activities such as livestock, forestry, fishing, or artisanal mining (which have other regimes)

Relevant aspects related to child labor:

- **Explicit recognition of the prohibition of child labor:** Article 6 explicitly "prohibits child labor and hiring minors."
- **Agricultural and agro-industrial sectoral context:** The law applies to agricultural and agro-industrial activities, which historically have been sectors with high incidence of child and adolescent labor (such as grape, asparagus, blueberry, coffee, cacao harvesting, etc.). However,

the prohibition is general and without detailed regulation does not reach to prevent unpaid or family work or subcontracting on family farming plots.

- **Does not articulate oversight or protection mechanisms:** Although the law prohibits child labor, it does not establish specific procedures or sanctions if this prohibition is violated and also does not include preventive measures such as mandatory age verification, coordination with the Ministry of Labor or social programs, specific oversight in agricultural campaigns, or educational reintegration programs. This greatly limits its practical effectiveness in rural contexts in which child labor is a subsistence strategy.

Although Law No. 31110 expressly recognizes the prohibition of child labor in agriculture, it does so in a limited manner, without detailing what activities are specifically prohibited, how compliance is monitored, and what measures employers must adopt.

CONCLUSION

The Peruvian regulatory framework regarding child labor in the agricultural sector expressly prohibits the participation of children and adolescents in agricultural activities through different sectoral standards. However, this framework is fragmented and has significant protection gaps. The exclusion of family agriculture of less than five hectares from the agricultural labor regime, the absence of specific oversight mechanisms in rural areas, and the limited mention of agricultural activities in the lists of dangerous work contribute to weak implementation in territories in which child labor is most frequent. Together, these standards fail to respond to the structural reality of child labor in agriculture, especially in contexts of poverty, informality, and family production, in which the participation of minors continues to be invisible and normalized.

APPENDIX 6: DEFINING CHILD LABOR

Child Labor: "Child labor is defined by ILO Conventions 138 on the Minimum Age for Admission to Employment and 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labor. It includes employment below the minimum age as established in national legislation, hazardous unpaid household services, and the worst forms of child labor: all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale or trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom, or forced or compulsory labor; the use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic purposes; the use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities; and work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children." (ILO, 1973; USDOL, n.d.)

Child Labor Conventions: The ILO Convention on Child Labor, 1973 (No. 138) aims to abolish child labor by requiring countries to establish a minimum age for work as well as employment (typically 14–15 years of age) while also allowing for light work for children under that age (ILO, 1973). The convention also requires nations to establish policies to eliminate child labor. In Article 3, the convention defines the "minimum age for admission to any type of employment or work which by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out is likely to jeopardize the health, safety or morals of a young person" to be 18 years old. The ILO Worst Forms of Child Labor Convention, 1999 (No. 182) (ILO, 1999a) defines the worst forms of child labor as:

- All forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom and forced or compulsory labor, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict
- The use, procuring, or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography, or for pornographic performances
- The use, procuring, or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs, as defined in the relevant international treaties
- Work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children (hazardous child labor)

Hazardous child labor is then further defined in Article 3 of the ILO Worst Forms of Child Labor Recommendations, 1999 (R190) (ILO, 1999b) as:

- Work which exposes children to physical, psychological, or sexual abuse
- Work underground, under water, at dangerous heights, or in confined spaces
- Work with dangerous machinery, equipment and tools, or which involves the manual handling or transport of heavy loads
- Work in unhealthy conditions that may expose children to hazardous substances, harmful agents, dangerous processes, or damaging levels of temperature, noise, or vibrations
- Work under particularly difficult conditions such as working for long hours or during the night or work where the child is unreasonably confined to the premises of the employer

Defining Child Labor for this Study

Instances of child labor were identified in quantitative analysis through an IF OR function. Focal children were considered to be in a state of child labor if they were exposed to hazardous working conditions or worked more than the allowed number of hours for their age group according to ILO guidelines. The ILO provides a broad list of work activities that can be considered hazardous, such as lifting heavy loads, working from high places, working underground or underwater, etc. (ILO, n.d.). This study used this activity list as a starting point but expanded on and tailored it based on the coffee sector in Peru.

By ILO standards, children aged 5 to 11 are considered in a state of child labor if they engage in any work for any amount of time. Children aged 12 to 14 are allowed to engage in "permissible light work."

This is any non-hazardous work that they engage in for 14 hours or less per week. If they engage in more than 14 hours of work per week, they are considered to be in a state of child labor. Children aged 15 to 17 are also allowed to engage in "permissible light work," which is defined as non-hazardous work for less than 43 hours per week for this age range. Engaging in 43 or more hours of work per week constitutes a state of child labor. It is important to note that domestic legislation differs from ILO guidance on this point. Article 56 of Law 27337 states that adolescents aged 12 to 14 cannot exceed 24 hours of work per week, and those aged 15 to 17 cannot exceed 36 hours per week. Quantitative analysis applied both ILO standards and domestic legislation on working hours to determine if a child was in a state of child labor, and the resulting analysis remained the same because hazardous work was common across the sample.

APPENDIX 7: CALENDAR OF COFFEE CULTIVATION TASKS

Coffee production calendar

Tasks	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Nursery												
Location and clearing of land for nurseries				X	X							
Collection and transport of substrate				X	X							
Preparation of substrate				X	X							
Seedbeds and nurseries				X	X							
Seed disinfection				X	X							
Seed planting				X	X							
Bagging					X	X						
Seedling selection					X	X						
Transplanting—pricking out						X	X					
Fertilization of nursery plants							X	X				
Control of pests, diseases, and weeds in nurseries							X	X				
Plantation												
Land preparation									X	X		
Plantation spacing										X	X	
Hole digging											X	X
Definitive planting											X	X
Crop maintenance												
Plant fertilization (foliar and granulated)			X	X				X	X			X
Planting shade trees	X											X
Pruning							X	X				
Weed control		X	X			X	X				X	X
Pest and disease control	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Harvest and post-harvest												
Selective harvest					X	X	X					
Depulping and grain fermentation					X	X	X					

Tasks	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Washing					X	X	X					
Drying					X	X	X					
Grain selection					X	X	X					
Bagging						X	X	X	X			
Transportation												
Roasting (third-party service with specialized machinery)						X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Retail packaging						X	X	X	X	X	X	X