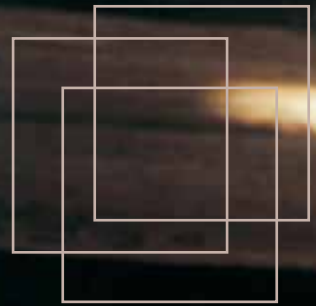




International
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Combating trafficking in children for labour exploitation

A resource kit for policy-makers and practitioners

Contents

International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour

Combating trafficking in children for labour exploitation

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Contents

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Foreword

Trafficking in human beings and, more especially, trafficking in children has been high on the international agenda for more than a decade. Only recently, however, has the international community more fully appreciated that, in addition to being a serious violation of children's rights and a criminal act, the trafficking of children is undeniably a labour issue.

While the trafficking of adults is defined in international law by the coercion, abuse of power, force or threats that initiate the movement into exploitation, child trafficking is defined by the exploitation itself. Regardless of how the child comes to move, the very fact that this relocation through a third person results in exploitation is considered to be child trafficking.

While most people are now aware that children and women are trafficked into the world's commercial sex trade, children's labour is also exploited in many other ways. Children are frequently trafficked into exploitation in agriculture, both long-term and on a seasonal basis. They may labour in a variety of manufacturing industries, from large-scale sweatshops to small craft workshops. In some parts of the world, children are exploited in mining or in fisheries. Girls in particular are trafficked into child domestic labour.

Many children are moved away from their homes and are exploited in the informal economy, where they are difficult to trace and at high risk of many forms of violence. Criminal networks and individuals exploit children in begging, street hawking, car window cleaning and other street-based activities. Some children are exploited as drug couriers or dealers or in petty crime such as pick-pocketing or burglary.

Some of these activities may not immediately be seen to be labour. However, the reality is that they have a commercial motive and the child is seen as exploitable labour by those seeking to make a profit from trafficking.

The ILO has thorough experience in the world of work. Its unique tripartite structure facilitates analysis and action that is anchored in the realities of labour markets and structures. For more than a decade, ILO's International Programme on the Elimination of Child labour (IPEC) and its partner organizations have worked to combat the trafficking of children and have built up considerable expertise in the vital links between child trafficking and labour exploitation. Since the adoption of the ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention (No.182) in 1999, the trafficking of children is considered a worst form of child labour in international law and has been a part of ILO-IPEC's work at national, subregional and international levels.

This resource kit captures this work and makes the Programme's experiences and knowledge available to those who design, implement and improve policy and programming to fight child trafficking.

The resource kit is composed of five independent, but interrelated books that each cover a particular set of themes: Book 1 is designed to help users to understand human trafficking, particularly trafficking that involves children (people under the age of 18 years); Book 2 is about acquiring knowledge prior to designing responses to child trafficking; Book 3 is about building a legal and policy framework within which to address trafficking, and also pays attention to mobilization and building of partnerships; Book 4 is about the actual remedial action to address child trafficking and provides insight into the initiatives that have been and can be taken to prevent such trafficking, protect children from becoming victims of trafficking, respond where trafficking exists and provide support and services to those who have been trafficked; Book 5 is about effective processes that may contribute to effective remedial action, and highlights amongst others the value of child participation, monitoring and documentation of learning.

Accompanying the text are more than 150 resources that range from publications to protocols, and from 'how-to' manuals to copies of relevant international instruments. They also include complementary resources from ILO projects, partners and other agencies working to combat child trafficking, and links to web-based resources.

Although the resource kit is comprehensive in nature it recognizes the dynamic and evolving nature of trafficking (and its responses). The intention is to update it regularly to capture new knowledge and learning points.

ILO Convention No. 182 requires immediate measures to prohibit, prevent and end trafficking of children as a matter of urgency. In bringing these various resources together, we aim to make a valuable contribution to the work of governments, workers' and employers' organizations, international agencies, NGOs, youth groups, researchers and advocates, and indeed all those who work to end the trafficking of children.



Michele Jankanish
Director

International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour
ILO

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The resource kit was developed by the ILO's International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC), in collaboration with the following ILO departments or programmes: Bureau for Employers' Activities (ACT/EMP), Bureau for Workers' Activities (ACTRAV), International Labour Standards Department (NORMES), International Migration Programme (MIGRANT), Social Dialogue, Labour Law and Labour Administration Department (Dialogue), and Special Action Programme to Combat Forced Labour (SAP-FL).

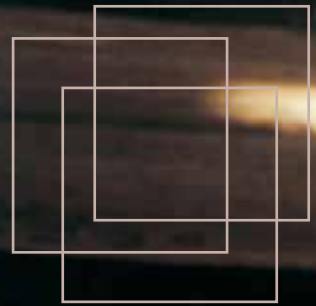
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Book 1

**Understanding what
child trafficking is**

International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour

Combating trafficking in children for labour exploitation

A resource kit for policy-makers and practitioners

Book 1: Understanding what child trafficking is

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
EUROPOL	European Police Office
HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus
ILO	International Labour Organization
ILO-DECLARATION	ILO Programme on the Declaration of Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work
IPEC	International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (ILO)
PROTECT-CEE	Project of Technical Assistance Against the Labour and Sexual Exploitation of Children, including Trafficking, in Countries of Central and Eastern Europe (IPEC)
SELL	Sharing experiences and lessons learned (publication series from ILO-IPEC's TICW project)
STD	Sexually transmitted disease
STOP	Stop the Trafficking of People (EC programme)
TICW	ILO-IPEC Mekong Subregional Project to Combat Trafficking in Children and Women
UN	United Nations
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
US	United States of America

Contents of Book 1

Book 1 aims to clarify the concept of child trafficking. It considers child trafficking within the context of labour migration and the exploitation of the child's labour.

The book outlines the different stages of child trafficking: recruitment, movement and exploitation, and considers the factors that make some children more vulnerable to trafficking and exploitation than others. There is a brief outline of who the traffickers are and the different ways in which they work, and it also touches upon supply and demand. This book also considers the impact of trafficking on children, their families and communities and on social development.

A clear understanding of child trafficking will guide the development of research initiatives (Book 2), policy initiatives, plans of action and partnerships (Book 3), action to address child trafficking (Book 4), and matters of process (Book 5).

Target Audience

This book is aimed at policy-makers and programme planners in government and workers' and employers' organizations, members of organizations working for children or against trafficking, human rights professionals, members of the legal profession, international agency staff members, journalists, researchers, students and anyone with an interest in understanding child trafficking.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Child trafficking affects children throughout the world. When children are trafficked, they are often cut off from their family and community. Their possible isolation in another region or country where they do not have legal status or speak the language makes them vulnerable to severe physical and psychological abuse and exploitation by unscrupulous employers. Any attempt to refuse demands made upon them, to disobey, protest or escape, may result in them being punished, or being denounced to the authorities and then arrested, detained, or deported. They almost always end up in work that is dangerous to their health, safety or morals. They are exposed to long working hours, heavy loads, dangerous tools and toxic substances, fear and intimidation, violent punishment and sexual abuse. Often, they are unable to go to school and thereby lose the opportunity to improve their lives in the future.

Child trafficking is a crime under international law and a violation of children's rights. It reduces victims to "commodities" to be bought, sold, transported and resold for sexual exploitation, labour exploitation (such as in domestic work, agriculture, and mines) and other exploitation (such as children involved in crime or armed conflict).



1.2 RIGHTS OF THE CHILD AND THE BEST INTERESTS OF THE CHILD

ALL children should be enjoying ALL the rights in the Convention on the Rights of the Child.

Apart from the dangers that a child faces while being trafficked and then being exploited, child trafficking violates many rights promised to children under international law.

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) reminds us that every child “without discrimination of any kind, irrespective of the child’s or his or her parent’s or legal guardian’s race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion national, ethnic or social origin, property, disability, birth or other status” is born with the same rights.

When we focus on child trafficking we tend to look most closely at the child’s rights to be free from exploitation and not to be trafficked (i.e. Articles 32, 34 and 35). While understandable, we should recognize nevertheless that all children should be enjoying all the rights in the Convention, and put the child at the centre of our efforts, or in other words, take a rights-based approach. Article 3 (1) of the Convention states in this context: “In all actions concerning children, whether undertaken by public or private social welfare institutions, courts of law, administrative authorities or legislative bodies, the best interests of the child shall be a primary consideration”.



Resource 1.1 (on CD ROM)

United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989

1.3 MIGRATION CONTEXT

Child trafficking happens in a broader context of migratory movement. People move - with their families, with friends or alone, within their own countries or across national borders, for a short time or forever, to find something better or to escape something bad. Children (people under the age of 18) are no exception to this. They may move with their families, alone or in groups and, like adults, this move can be voluntary or against their will.



Resource 1.2

Taran, P: “Migration and labour solidarity”, *Labour Education*, Vol 4, No.129, 2002

This publication provides more detailed information on the labour migration context of child trafficking.

Where legal migration channels are closed, difficult to take, or not known to people who want to migrate for work, then illegal migration, people smuggling and human trafficking are more likely to happen.

Many of these people move to find work. There may be a shortage of work where they live or they may not have the skills needed to do the work that is available. They may be cut out of the job market for various reasons, for example they may be discriminated against because of their ethnic origin, colour or caste. Women in particular are often denied access to work even where it exists because some employers, other workers or a woman's family or community may not accept that women should have a job outside the home. Adolescents, too, often find that securing decent work is a challenge. Worldwide, youth unemployment is a harsh reality, and many of those who look outside their home towns or countries for work are children (above 14) of working age. Where they cannot find work by themselves, they look to others for help and this puts them at high risk of falling prey to traffickers and exploiters.

An important lesson learned from the ILO's work in labour migration and trafficking is that it is very difficult to protect the rights of migrant workers (and protect them from trafficking) if their migration movement is not managed through safe channels. Keeping migration channels open and helping families and youth to use them in a regular, safe and easy way is an important step in preventing illegal migration, smuggling and trafficking.



Resource 1.3

IPEC (TICW): *Legal labour migration and labour markets: Alternatives to substitute for trafficking in children and women*, ILO, 2002

This document explores legal labour migration as an alternative to prevent and fight trafficking.



Resource 1.4

IPEC (TICW): *Going straight (Labour migration)*, ILO, 2002

This paper documents experiences and lessons learned on legal labour migration to fight trafficking.

People who move for work – including children above the legal working age – have the same fundamental labour rights as all workers. These are enshrined in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Their Families, 1990. Often, because of their status as migrant workers, however, both adults and children of working age are deprived of their rights through legislation, negligence, discrimination or malice.



Resource 1.5.

UN Convention on the Rights of All Migrant Workers and their Families, 1990



Resource 1.6

Taran, P: "Clashing worlds - Imperatives for a rights-based approach to labour migration in the age of globalization", Presentation to the International Symposium on Globalization, Migration and Human Rights, ILO, Geneva, 2006

This presentation provides further insight into the importance of ensuring fundamental labour rights and human rights to all workers, regardless of their migrant status.

In addition to Conventions on international migration (see Book 3, section 3.2), the ILO has developed a set of non-binding principles and guidelines for a rights-based approach to labour migration. It is important to be clear about internationally agreed labour standards that in most countries are also translated into national laws. These standards are at the heart of defining decent work – a goal to be achieved to ensure that all those working enjoy their rights.



Resource 1.7.

ILO Multilateral framework on labour migration, 2005



Resource 1.8.

ILO: *Rules of the game: A brief introduction to international labour standards*, 2005

An overview of international labour standards.

1.4 MIGRATION AND SMUGGLING OF PEOPLE ARE NOT TRAFFICKING

Many people move legally for work, temporarily or on a more permanent basis. If people cannot move legally to find work – for example because a country will not accept workers from elsewhere or because they do not know how to use legal channels for migration – they may turn to illegal means. They may obtain fake documents that allow them to enter a country fraudulently; or they may enter with a tourist visa and then not leave the country when the visa expires. Sometimes, they may just enter a country using a route that avoids official border crossings, so that they arrive without any entry papers, thus becoming undocumented. All of these constitute illegal migration (sometimes called “irregular migration”).

If would-be illegal migrants pay someone to move them into a country clandestinely, then we consider them to be smuggled. For example, people may pay the owner of a boat to take them to another country by sea, or they may identify a person or an agency that operates vehicles that cross borders by road, often carrying other goods as well as people. Smuggling of people across national borders is illegal and both the smugglers and the people who pay to be moved are breaking the law. Smuggling is also dangerous. There have been many instances of people hidden in sealed containers in trucks and boats who have died from starvation, heatstroke or lack of air to breathe, and of people who have died crossing harsh terrain or rough seas.

Illegal migration and smuggling of migrants are not the same as trafficking. Illegal migration and smuggling aim at the illegal crossing of a border which is a violation of immigration law. Trafficking involves the movement of a person – within a country or across a border – for the purpose of exploitation, which is a violation of the person’s human rights and a crime against that person.

What makes trafficking such a heinous crime is that the trafficker takes advantage of the fact that the victim is out of her/his regular surroundings and isolated from known safety nets and support systems, and therefore more exploitable.

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Though distinct in nature, trafficking and smuggling can be related: What starts as illegal migration or smuggling may become trafficking, for instance if migrants, after crossing an international border, are lured into exploitation by a third party.

1.5 CHILD TRAFFICKING IS A WORST FORM OF CHILD LABOUR

When children take up a job but have not yet reached the legal minimum age for work, this is considered to be child labour. When they are employed in work that is likely to harm their health, safety and morals, they are in a “worst form of child labour”. Similarly, when they are trafficked into any form of work, it is also a worst form of child labour. This is because children who have been trafficked are in a particularly vulnerable situation. They are away from home, usually separated from their family and community, may be isolated in a country or region where they do not know the language, cannot get help and have no way to return to their home. Isolated in this way, they are commonly the victims of abuse of power. Trafficked children are totally at the mercy of their employers or the people who are controlling their lives and so risk sexual aggression, starvation, loss of liberty, beatings and other forms of violence. All trafficked children (and children in any other worst form of child labour) must be removed at once from this situation and be given the support they need to recover and rebuild their lives in safety and security.

The worst forms of child labour are defined under international law in the ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No.182).



Resource 1.9

ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No.182)

1.6 THE CORE ELEMENTS OF CHILD TRAFFICKING

The United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (2000), and in particular its Supplementary Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (also known as the Palermo Protocol) contains a definition of trafficking that is

widely used. Article 3(a) of the Protocol defines trafficking as:

“...the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation.”



Resource 1.10

UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (2000): Supplementary Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Woman and Children

Some form of movement as element of child trafficking distinguishes trafficking from other forms of child slavery and slave-like practices enumerated in Art 3(a) of ILO Convention No. 182.

This suggests that with regard to adults there are three core elements – i.e. (1) action composed of recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of a person; (2) means such as threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, abduction, fraud, deception, abuse of power or of position of vulnerability, or payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person; and (3) exploitation.

Implicit in the first core element is the notion of movement, which is important – even if minimal – in order to distinguish trafficking from other forms of slavery and slave-like practices enumerated in Art. 3(a) of ILO Convention No. 182, and to ensure that trafficking victims get the necessary assistance specific to their situation.

The use of illicit means, including deception, violence or coercion, is furthermore irrelevant when dealing with children. This is because international conventions reject the notion that a child can be a willing participant in her or his own trafficking. It is presumed that, by definition, someone – or something – has influenced the move. The Palermo Protocol states that, as far as children are concerned, “recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of a child for the purpose of exploitation shall be considered ‘trafficking in persons’ even if this does not involve any of the means set forth in the definition”.

Child trafficking begins when a child is recruited (by force (i.e. abduction) or not) by a third person, for exploitative purposes.



Resource 1.11

IPEC: “Child Trafficking – Elements defined for the purpose of IPEC operations”. Excerpt from IPEC: **“Child trafficking: The ILO’s response through IPEC”**, ILO, 2007

This note breaks down child trafficking into its constituting elements – for IPEC operational purposes. These include an “act” (normally involving recruitment), “movement”, and “exploitation”. It is based on the Palermo Protocol and ILO Conventions No. 138 and No. 182.



Resource 1.12

Visual illustration of differences between child and adult trafficking

This graphic illustrates the important differences in how the trafficking of children and the trafficking of adults are treated in international law (the Palermo Protocol in particular).

1.6.1 Child trafficking begins with recruitment

Child trafficking begins when a child is “recruited” by someone or, in some cases, approaches a “recruiter” to find out about how to move to find work. A recruiter may be the person who actually employs the child, or an intermediary who is part of a chain of people involved in the trafficking. Recruitment happens in many different ways.

Children may be under pressure from their families to find work to help support the family, and there may not be work available locally. Sometimes, the family will seek the help of someone who they know can arrange work for children or the family will be approached by such a person who knows that they are in a difficult situation. There are various types of recruiters: it may be an elderly woman in the village who in fact makes her living out of recruiting vulnerable children and putting them into the hands of others who will exploit them, or an adult or an older child who has returned from being trafficked and knows that there is money to be made in encouraging another child to follow the same path.

Often there may be a relationship of trust involved: children may be approached by someone from their own community, or the same ethnic group, who offers an introduction into a similar ethnic grouping in another place or country. Girls, especially, are at risk of being lured into being trafficked by men who show an interest in them and promise them love, a good job, or even marriage. There are also agencies that, in the guise of finding work for those who seek it, actually act as recruitment agencies for traffickers.



Resource 1.13

ILO-DECLARATION: *Trafficking in human beings: New approaches to combating the problem*, 2003, pp.38-40

Although this publication does not focus specifically on child trafficking, it provides insight into the links between trafficking and forced labour/exploitation. It also provides information on how the issue of human trafficking cuts across a number of areas of ILO's work, and includes case studies outlining different end results of trafficking.

Occasionally a child of working age may decide to leave home and move away to find work or a better life and will approach someone s/he knows can arrange transport and who promises help with finding a job at the destination. In such cases, the child may be lured by the perception s/he has formed of life in other places – this perception may be right or wrong and may come from the media, from talking to friends or in other ways, for example from the Internet. Remember that, even if a child initiates the move her/himself, this is still a case of trafficking if the child is exploited by a third person at any time during the move or at the destination point.

Very young children may be trafficked alongside their parents and siblings, as the whole family is recruited and promised opportunities elsewhere. There have been many reports of families setting out from home and then being split up before they arrive at the promised destination. Sometimes the men are separated from the women and children and often the children are separated from the adults. It is not uncommon for a mother to be given someone else's child in place of her own so that she can be exploited to beg on the streets. In all these cases, the hope of being reunited with the rest of the family one day contributes to the trafficked person remaining obedient to the traffickers.

There are also instances of people being kidnapped or abducted into trafficking, although these are much rarer than people commonly think. Often movies and television depict trafficking as high drama, with children and women being kidnapped and bundled into a truck to be shipped off and locked up somewhere. In fact, trafficking happens most often because of disturbed migration patterns, especially labour migration, with traffickers moving in to exploit the situation and making money from people's vulnerability, aspirations and sometimes desperation.

Kidnapping and abductions do sometimes occur, however, and there is one particular situation in which they are known to occur frequently. There have been many reports of children who have been abducted from border zones in conflict areas by armed men who force them into becoming child soldiers or into other work with militias. Sometimes children have been forced to watch family members being tortured or killed and understandably this is enough to persuade the child to do what the armed men tell them.



Resource 1.14

Boonpala, P and Kane, J: *Unbearable to the human heart: Child trafficking and actions to eliminate it*, ILO, 2002

This is a general introduction to child trafficking. There is more on the mechanisms of moving people on pp.11-17, and more on children exploited in armed conflict on page. 23.

There may be variations on these forms of recruitment, but they often involve some sort of deception, inducement or threat. What all forms of recruitment of child trafficking have in common, is the vulnerability of the child concerned: vulnerability that makes the child a likely target for traffickers.

1.6.2 Child trafficking involves movement

Both adults and children can be trafficked within a country (domestic or internal trafficking) and across national borders (cross-border trafficking). The two ends of the journey are generally known as the “sending” and “receiving” places, or the “source” and “destination” places. Sometimes a trafficked person does not go directly to the destination place but crosses another country or stops over in another city. These are called “transit” places. Countries can at the same time be sending, transit and receiving countries, and this needs to be recognized in designing responses.

Internal trafficking may involve movement from rural to urban areas or from one city to another, as a rule to unfamiliar surroundings, which further compounds children's vulnerability. Generally, internal travel will use various forms of land transport – train, truck, taxi, bus or private car – and sometimes people are also taken on foot.

Trafficking in children may happen internally or across national borders and countries can at the same time be sending, transit and receiving countries; this needs to be recognized in designing responses.

Where national borders are relatively open, people may travel by road or on foot across the border using routes that have been known to local people for many years. These may be relatively easy crossings but they may also involve hazardous and tortuous routes using mountain tracks, for example, through deserts or across a river.

This is often the case for trafficking of people from Eastern Europe to Western Europe. Where sea routes are relatively easy, there may also be trafficking by sea. In the 1990s, the city of Vlora, Albania, became a major trafficking centre because speedboats operated from there taking young girls across the short sea passage to Italy. Air routes are also used to move people for trafficking purposes, although not in large numbers. Criminal groups have been known, for example, to traffic men from Russia to Greece, where they join tourist flights to London and end up exploited in agricultural work in the British Midlands.

1.6.3 The result of child trafficking is exploitation

Children who have been trafficked are by definition exploited when they arrive at their destination. This exploitation can take many forms, depending on the gender of the person, their age, the nature of the labour market into which they have been trafficked, and the level of their skills, as well as their vulnerability.

Many people think that trafficking always ends in prostitution. This is not true. Trafficking victims are exploited in a wide range of different sectors: they may end up in agricultural work on small farms and plantations, in mining, factories of various kinds, entertainment outlets like bars or clubs, street-based activities such as hawking or organized begging, or armed conflict. Many children are trafficked to become household servants, a form of exploitation known as child domestic labour.

Although the exploitation can take many different forms, it usually involves demanding, dangerous work for little or no pay, with inadequate rest time, no safety nets like health insurance or social assistance, and often includes a degree of force or violence. While both boys and girls may be trafficked, the profiles of the trafficked children differ

Children are not only trafficked into commercial sexual exploitation but into a wide range of sectors including agriculture, domestic work and organized begging.



according to the demand in the place of destination. A profile may also change as the child matures. For example, in parts of South America and South Asia, both boys and girls are trafficked from rural or semi-urban areas into major cities to work as child domestic labourers. Boys, however, tend to move on from domestic labour as they approach adolescence and may end up being exploited in agriculture, manufacturing or service industries.

In Africa, there is a long tradition of placing children with relatives who have traditionally raised them as part of the family, for example when they do not have children of their own or when the child's parents cannot care for them. In recent times this has too often become an opportunity for the extended family members to exploit the child as a domestic servant, or to sell the child on to work in someone else's household, or for other exploitative work. What was once a way of providing care for the child has in many instances become trafficking.

All over the world, girls and women are particularly vulnerable to being trafficked into the sex trade. This happens because the sex industry worldwide is a thriving and profitable market and because there is often a demand for women who are

considered in some way different or exotic by clients of the sex trade and by the brothel owners and pimps who provide women to them. As a result, foreign women and girls are often preferred by clients and, at the same time, those who make a profit from providing their services can exploit the vulnerability of these women and girls to make bigger profits.

Prostitution of children under 18 years of age is a worst forms of child labour and is generally referred to as “commercial sexual exploitation”. It must be prohibited and eliminated under ILO Convention No. 182. In addition to the unacceptable nature of the work, the children involved often face severe exploitation, including long working hours and low wages, and serious risks to their health. They may be held against their will when the brothel operator or pimp refuses to give them their passports. These women and girls may be told (truthfully or not) that they entered the country on false papers and therefore will get into trouble with the police if they themselves report their exploitation. They are often introduced to drugs and so have to continue working to obtain the substances on which they have become dependent – a form of forced labour. Violence – both real and threatened – is also a disincentive to those who wish to escape. Though statistics show that it is mostly women and girls who fall victim to sex trafficking, boys and young men are also affected.



Resource 1.15

O'Connor, M and Healy, G: *The links between prostitution and sex trafficking - A briefing handbook*, European Women's Lobby, 2006

This is a resource book outlining concepts, issues and resources on the links between prostitution and trafficking.

Children – especially very young ones – are also trafficked into forced begging. They often operate in groups of children with one adult supervisor, or “handler”, keeping control of the children and the money they earn.

Trafficked children are also used for criminal activities, often petty crime like pickpocketing, because they are considered to be disposable, easily replaced by another child if they get caught. Children are also increasingly trafficked into organized crime, often lured by promises of



expensive gifts, money and an exciting lifestyle. Peer pressure is also a factor here, as adolescent boys, in particular, encourage each other to take risks and live the high life. For most children who end up in organized crime, the reality is much less glamorous: they are subjected to violence to keep them compliant and to threats against themselves and their families.

In some parts of the world, particularly in South America, there are insidious links between the trafficking of children and the drug trade. Children are trafficked into exploitation as drug couriers and dealers, and are often paid in drugs intentionally so that they become addicted and thereby entrapped. Such children are also at high risk of physical violence and of harmful threats. More often than not, when caught by the authorities, these children are treated as serious criminals whereas in fact they are in need of specialized help.

In short, traffickers and exploiters will put trafficked children to work wherever there is a way to make a profit from their labour, and from their extreme vulnerability due to the fact that they have been moved away from their homes and families.

ILO-IPEC in Bangkok has developed a board game as part of a trainers' kit to empower children, young people and families that deals with the kind of exploitative situations that can occur. Some of the early obstacles to overcome in the game illustrate typical risk factors that make children vulnerable to trafficking.



Resource 1.16

Migration snake and ladder game, extracted from 3-R Trainers' Kit, ILO, 2006

A board game designed to be used as part of a training course on empowerment of children, young people and families at risk of exploitation. It can be used as a stand-alone aid to understanding the rights of migrant workers.

1.7

RISK FACTORS AND VULNERABILITY

Poverty alone cannot explain why:

- some countries have more child trafficking than others
- there are more children in worst forms of child labour in some cities than in others
- traffickers are active in some places and not in others
- some communities face more child trafficking than others
- some families are more at risk of trafficking than others.

When asked why they think some children become victims of trafficking, many people would immediately answer “because they are poor”. It is true that poverty is an important element at play in explaining why some children are trafficked. However, poverty can mean many things and it is not by itself the answer to the question unless it is qualified. There are many children living in poverty who do not fall victim to trafficking, and understanding the type of poverty and differences between these children and victims of trafficking is important if we are to know how to protect children at risk.

In fact, poverty – as in lack of income – is one of a range of risk factors that create vulnerability to trafficking. Often children experience several risk factors at the same time, and one of them may act as a trigger that sets the trafficking in motion.

For example, a poor family with two parents and three children, aged 4, 10 and 16, may have a low income but may cope well enough as long as the father and oldest child are working. They may be able to send the two youngest children to school, even if there is not much money for anything other than basic survival. They are not at immediate risk of a member of the family becoming a trafficking victim, even though they are poor. Now imagine that the father becomes sick and can no longer work. The oldest child’s earnings are not enough to feed five family members. The mother has to stay at home to care for the father and their 4 year-old, so the first thing that might happen is that the 10 year-old child will be taken out of school and be put to work. The family’s vulnerability in general – and the child’s vulnerability to being trafficked – have now increased. Even with the child bringing home some money, it is not equivalent to the father’s earnings and, in addition, there may be costs associated with the father’s illness, such as medicines or paying a doctor or healer. The father’s sickness is clearly a risk factor that makes the child vulnerable to trafficking.

Now that the second child is in child labour, any recruiters who are living or working in the area will know that the family is facing difficulties. Dropping out of school is another known risk factor that alerts recruiters and should also alert anyone keeping an eye on the welfare of the family. It is not unlikely that the recruiter will approach the mother and father and suggest to them that the 10 year-old, since s/he is out of school in any case, could earn more money in a good job in a

Understanding risk and vulnerability factors and putting in place ways of recognizing these in children and their families - and then working to reduce or eliminate the vulnerability - is the key to protecting children from trafficking.

neighbouring town (or country) and that, additionally, this will give the family one less mouth to feed. The recruiter will promise that the child will send money back to the family, that s/he will be well looked after and that s/he will return with valuable experience and even some savings. The family may not know anything about child trafficking, and their ignorance also makes the child vulnerable. The risk factors have now accumulated to the point where the 10 year-old is very vulnerable to being trafficked.

The recruiter may ask the family to pay some travel costs – and often a desperate family will sell what little they have left to do this. They may be offered a loan that can be paid back from the child’s first pay packet. Now the family is facing debt, which is another risk factor that is enough to lock them into the decision to send their 10 year-old away. These tempting arguments are enough to persuade many desperate families that sending their child off to work somewhere else is in their interest and in the child’s best interest too. Even if they have lingering doubts, the gravity of their situation and the lack of other options for survival go a long way to putting these to rest. Many families who take such offers never receive a cent from their child – any money s/he earns goes to paying back that loan, with interest – and may in fact never see their child again.

In this case, it was the tipping point of sickness in the family that increased the number of risk factors resulting in extreme vulnerability and led to a child being trafficked. Other triggers include economic shocks, natural or man-made disasters, or more obviously family-centred crises such as divorce, death or unemployment.

This example also illustrates what can be called “poverty plus”, a situation in which poverty (as in lack of income) does not by itself lead to a person being trafficked, but where a plus factor such as illness combines with poverty to increase vulnerability. There are other family disruptions that can be considered as vulnerability or plus factors: for example men in the family going off to war or being killed in conflict , or one or both parents dying of AIDS and leaving children with no adult support.

Understanding risk and vulnerability factors and putting in place ways of recognizing these in children and their families – and then working to reduce or eliminate the vulnerability – is the key to protecting children from trafficking.

There are often a number of risk factors – at source, in transit and at destination points – that, if combined, make children more likely to be trafficked. These include not only poverty but also, for example, parent illiteracy, illness or death of one of the main family breadwinners, unemployment, early school drop-out of the concerned children, absence of workplace inspection or policing, and a specific demand for child labour.



Resource 1.17

Van de Glind, H: *Identifying risk and vulnerability factors*, ILO-IPEC, 2007

This is a series of practical exercises designed to promote understanding of how risk and vulnerability can be identified with a view to targeting prevention and protection initiatives.

Risks and vulnerability to trafficking are not only intervening factors in sending communities but also at destination, often in cities. For instance, children who are away from their parents may run out of money, may have lost their identity cards, may work in the informal sector, or the intermediary may increase the children's dependence by giving them drugs for free until they are addicted. Such risk factors at destination also create vulnerability to being lured into exploitation.

There are also wider social/economic factors that disrupt family finances, such as drought or floods that leave a rural family with no food stocks and no income. In addition to such natural disasters, there are man-made emergencies, such as conflict, that might drive a family from their home into a refugee camp where recruiters will be active rounding up children whose families have lost everything. In extreme situations like these, children may also be abducted and trafficked for their labour or into armed militias.

However, most often, it is not the extreme situations that underpin trafficking events but an accumulation of the everyday realities of survival. Many families live in poverty partly because the adult members of the household do not have jobs that provide enough money for the family to survive. It may be that there are no jobs in the area where they live, but often it is because the adults are not equipped for the jobs that do exist. This is why getting jobs for parents and keeping children in school, followed by some sort of training is so important – it is the only way to break the cycle of unemployment and poverty that puts whole families at risk.

Domestic violence has also been shown to be a factor in increasing the vulnerability of children to trafficking. In families where violence is present – whether between the adults or among the children or inflicted by parents on the children – children may yearn to get away and may readily take up offers to go with a recruiter. Children who witness or suffer violence in

the home may also run away and live on the streets, where their vulnerability to exploitation, violence and trafficking is acute. Left to fend for themselves, they become easy prey to traffickers because they have no means of survival.

In many societies, if a child is to be sent to work, it is often the girl who is chosen. Girls are more readily taken out of school (or never sent in the first place) because some parents believe that education is wasted on girls who will one day marry and leave their parents. They think that life experience is more useful and likely to make the girl a better wife and mother. Therefore, it is not surprising that domestic labour constitutes the most common form of child labour for girls under the age of 16. In fact, child domestic labour is often the end result of trafficking because, by its nature, it most often involves a child going to live in someone else's home and leaving his/her family behind.



Resource 1.18

Kane, J: *Helping hands or shackled lives? Understanding child domestic labour and responses to it*, ILO, 2004

An overview of child domestic labour, with case studies from ILO projects around the world.

Trafficking into child domestic labour also illustrates another risk factor because, in some countries, children from ethnic minority groups or certain castes are traditionally exploited as domestic servants and may be trafficked into this servitude. Discrimination on the basis of sex, ethnicity or race increases vulnerability to trafficking as well as to other forms of violence and abuse.

These are only but a few of the numerous risk factors that cause a child to become vulnerable to trafficking. For a comprehensive, yet non exhaustive overview, IPEC has developed a table that groups them at individual, family, community, workplace and institutional levels.



Resource 1.19

IPEC: *Child trafficking; The ILO's response through IPEC*, ILO, 2007

This brochure gives an overview of child trafficking globally and a response framework. On page 3-4 it includes a listing of groups of risk factors that create vulnerability to child trafficking, and that are crucial to consider when designing targeted interventions.

1.8 TRAFFICKING IS OFTEN A LOOP, NOT A STRAIGHT LINE

Although we often think of trafficking as having a beginning, middle and end, like a straight line, in fact often it is more like a loop where former victims of trafficking are re-trafficked. The crucial lesson here is that if the risk factors that contributed to people being trafficked remain unchanged, then trafficking might happen again.

Children may be re-trafficked if the risk factors, that made the child vulnerable to trafficking, are not addressed.

Consider the example of a 14 year-old boy trafficked to work in a sweatshop in another country. He was vulnerable to trafficking because his father passed away and the family is comprised of his mother and six children all living on a small pension and his oldest sister's earnings. The boy left school to start work as soon as he was 14 but, because of his age and inexperience, could only find unskilled work that paid very little. Other boys his age told him stories about the golden opportunities they had heard about in a neighbouring country and suggested they all go to a local agency that was known to arrange travel and work for young boys like them. The boy ended up being trafficked by a local syndicate that arranged false papers for him, threatened him with disclosure to the immigration authorities if he tried to leave, and then forced him to work 15 hours a day in a sweatshop with little food and poor accommodation for which he was obliged to pay out of the money he earned. This boy was noticed during a visit from a local labour inspector to the factory and was eventually rescued and returned to his home. When he got back, the risk factors that created vulnerability were unchanged – his family income had not increased; his education and skills level had not improved; his friends still spoke dreamily of a better life somewhere else. The only difference was that he knew he had survived trafficking once and deep down thought he might be able to take more control if he were to find himself in that situation again. He is willing to take the risk and seek to move once more. If anything, his vulnerability to trafficking has increased.



1.9 WHO ARE THE TRAFFICKERS?

There are different kinds of traffickers and recent studies have helped us to better understand how they work. Essentially, all traffickers are people who intend to exploit people by moving them into exploitation.



Resource 1.20

Schloenhardt, A: *Organized crime and the business of migrant trafficking*, Australian Institute of Criminology, 1999

This article outlines the different models of organized crime involvement in trafficking.



Resource 1.21

Kane, J: *Child trafficking - The people involved*, ILO, 2005, p.7

This publication from ILO-IPEC's subregional programme to combat trafficking in Central and Eastern Europe (PROTECT-CEE) focuses on lessons learned about the people involved in child trafficking.

Trafficking is not a single act but a series of events that may take place in the child's home community, at transit points and at final destinations. Each of these may involve a different individual or organization, or the whole series may

Child trafficking is a combination or series of events that may take place in the child's home community, at transit points and at final destinations. Those who contribute to it with the intent to exploit - recruiters, intermediaries, document providers, transporters, corrupt officials, service providers and employers of these children - are traffickers, even when they take part only in a small fragment of the whole process.

be run by one group. The processes involved include recruitment, transport (often different forms at different stages), reception, accommodation, employment, and the preparation of false documents or the acquiring of bogus papers. These are supported by other intermediary services, such as people who specialize in providing information to traffickers (and people smugglers) about which border crossings are open and when, and who give advice on the best times to move people. Some intermediaries take responsibility for identifying and bribing corrupt border guards or immigration officers. At the place of destination, there may be intermediaries whose job it is to keep watch over the trafficked children as "guardians", and sometimes bodyguards who are there not so much to protect the children but the investment of the trafficker. This diverse range of people are often called intermediaries although they are all effectively traffickers, even if they do no more than drive the vehicle carrying trafficked children.

Sometimes traffickers make their profits in one part of the trafficking event, for example by arranging the transport of the trafficking victims. Sometimes they may run the whole operation: making money during recruitment (by selling false papers, getting the family to pay for services provided or even charging a fee); during travel (adding a margin to travel tickets, charging a fee for bribing authorities, actually owning the transport); and then at the point of exploitation (paying low or no salaries, operating an often sub-standard workplace, providing high-priced accommodation, food and transport to/from work).

The profits of trafficking are known to be substantial. In fact, it is often the trafficked victim who pays for the services the trafficker promises. There is also a big business side to human trafficking: In 2002, the Director of the European police agency, EUROPOL (in a statement to the ILO/STOP Conference on Trafficking in Brussels) reported that organized criminal networks were hiring out their infrastructure to traffickers. These services and structures often put in place to move drugs and other contraband are then used by other criminals to move trafficked people. They include transport, corrupt officials, safe houses and personnel, and in 2002 were estimated to be bringing in "rentals" of some US\$12 billion a year for the crime bosses.

The key to stopping trafficking is to stop it from being profitable through strict law enforcement, confiscation of profits of traffickers and increased protection (and reduced vulnerability) of children.

The costs of child trafficking are low for traffickers because, if the children get caught, they can easily be replaced with more vulnerable children. While machinery, raw materials and infrastructure are expensive to replace, children are not. The commercial realities of child trafficking are important to understand, since they are the key to knowing how to stop it. In fact, children's rights are not a concept that is ever considered by traffickers: for them, trafficking is all about money. The key to stopping trafficking is making sure that it is no longer profitable, by making it difficult (for example by reducing the vulnerability of children), interrupting it (for example through good policing at borders) and confiscating profits and infrastructure (for example by closing exploitation places and transferring crime proceeds to victims).



Resource 1.22

Belser, P.: *Forced labour and human trafficking: Estimating the profits*, ILO-DECLARATION, 2005

This working paper estimates the profits of forced labour and human trafficking to be USD 31.6 billion a year.

Research has shown that if they begin to lose money or just stop making a profit, traffickers readily move on to some other form of crime that will make money for them. Law enforcement systems that have vigorously pursued traffickers have quite often used a gamut of laws in order to close down trafficking operations, even where specific anti-trafficking legislation may not be in place or be difficult to enforce. Prosecutions for money laundering, illegal money transfers, migration offences, forgery, even vehicle licensing laws can be pursued in order to make life difficult for those involved in child trafficking and to impose financial sanctions.



Resource 1.23

Iselin, B: *Fatally flawed*, UNODC, 2002

This PowerPoint presentation proposes a new paradigm for law enforcement in the area of human trafficking and a multi-sector model that takes into account the rights of the victims.

Much of what we have learned about the way traffickers operate has come from research by law enforcement specialists and those who study criminal organizations and

market mechanisms. In 1999, the Australian Institute of Criminology published research suggesting that trafficking operations can generally be grouped into three distinct models (the first has two slightly different forms):

- The first model is known as “corporate” because it is organized like a business and usually involves organized criminal groups. It is structured like any big business, with a boss at the top – sometimes an individual, sometimes a family or tight-knit group – and a pyramid-like structure. Each level of the pyramid only knows the tier directly above it and answers to people in that tier. At the bottom, of course, are the workers – the recruiters, transport providers, document forgers and so on – who are so far removed from the top of the pyramid that they have no idea who is actually in charge and so, if they are caught, cannot lead to the boss. Typically the boss (or bosses) will also be involved in extortion, drug production or peddling, illegal gambling and corruption. The whole pyramid is held together by threats and violence so that each tier of people remains faithful to the tier above.

A variant on this first model also involves organized criminal groups but this time working together in a much looser, decentralized way. This is called the “network model” because there is no one boss at the top but a network of specialists who each control their own special area – for example the recruitment part of the business or the exploitation (for example a group running illegal sweatshops). These specialists communicate with each other and put together the series of events and facilities that make up trafficking. They may work together regularly or just occasionally. This model is seen as safe because, if one group of specialists drops out for any reason, it can easily be replaced.

- The second model is much less business-like and is based on small groups of well organized criminals who specialize in leading victims from one country to another along well known routes. They are in some ways little more than criminal guides and they generally work in just one geographical area, the one they know. Such services are vital to trafficking operations, though, and



many countries focus on the activities of intermediaries like these guides in attempts to stop cross-border trafficking.

- The third model is the most common. It is made up of amateurs: individuals who provide a single service such as transport, forged documents, recruitment or reception services. These people are often also called “intermediaries”. They essentially hire out their services for money; and may do this regularly or just once in a while. Sometimes family members or friends may set themselves up as intermediaries, making money from leading a niece or nephew or friend into the hands of traffickers. Are intermediaries traffickers? Many people would say they are because what they do is part of the trafficking process. In general, though, when intermediaries are caught and arrested they are not tried as traffickers but according to the specific crime they have committed, for example enticement or forgery or aiding illegal border crossing.

An article on business models regarding trafficking argues that, in addition to the demand affecting the volume of trafficking, the treatment of victims also affects the volume of business. In countries where conditions are particularly harsh, there is an enormous volume of trafficking.



Resource 1.24

Shelley, L: “Trafficking in women: The business model approach”, *Brown Journal of World Affairs*, Vol. X No.1, pp.119-131, 2003

<http://policy-tracc.gmu.edu/resources/publications/shelle58.pdf>

Although this article focuses on the trafficking of women, the business models outlined are also applicable to the trafficking of children and provide insight into the relationship between treatment of victims and volume of the business. Furthermore, it argues that when there is little relationship between the past and present victims of trafficking, the level of violations increases.

1.10 WHAT IS DEMAND?

Trafficked people are on the supply side of trafficking. Consumers of the results of the work of trafficked people are on the demand side. It is important to distinguish between consumer or primary demand and derived demand by exploiters, and recognize that they occur at different points of the trafficking chain.

Consumer demand is generated directly by people who actively or passively buy the products or services of trafficked labour, for example the husband who buys flowers picked by a trafficked adolescent or the tourist who buys a cheap T-shirt made by a trafficked youth in a sweatshop. Research suggests that most of this kind of demand is non-determinant because generally it does not directly influence the trafficking — for example, the husband buying flowers does not specially ask traffickers to exploit children to pick them, and the tourist buying a cheap T-shirt does not specially ask traffickers to exploit children either.

Derived demand is a very different matter because it is generated by the people who stand to make a profit from the transaction. These might include pimps and brothel owners, the various intermediaries involved in trafficking, corrupt factory owners or farmers who exploit trafficked labour to keep their costs down, prices low and profits flowing.

When addressing the demand side of trafficking it is important also to recognize a variety of motivations. For instance, the tourist who gives money to a child beggar may do so to improve his/her conscience and should be targeted in a different way than the client who pays for sex with a child and thus commits a criminal offence. The tourist could be briefed before departure on holidays about the likelihood of child begging at his/her destination, and could for instance be advised to donate money to selected charities such as NGO shelters for street children and initiatives to assist former child beggars, rather than to donate money directly to child beggars. However, the sex offender should be charged with a criminal offence and tried in a court of law.

Understanding the different types of demand and motivations is important if appropriate actions are going to be designed and implemented to target the right people in the right way.

Derived demand by intermediaries and exploiters is a different matter altogether and in many countries is motivated by high profit in combination with low risk due to lax law enforcement. It may happen during the process of trafficking and/or after the child reaches the exploitative destination. Sound monitoring of travel, recruitment practices and labour conditions is crucial to address derived demand, along with vigorous law enforcement. Such actions can have a significant impact on the reduction of demand and therefore on trafficking itself, if the risk of getting caught increases.

1.11 THE IMPACT OF TRAFFICKING

Trafficking has a massive negative impact, first and foremost on the affected people and their families, and also on the societies of which they are part. A thorough understanding of the human and economic costs should provide the necessary arguments to mobilize society and to allocate sufficient government resources to address child trafficking effectively.

1.11.1 The impact of trafficking on children and families

Trafficking has devastating consequences for those who fall victim to it, but it is especially damaging for children because its impact will have a lasting effect on the child's future.

In the worst cases, trafficking and the exploitation it involves can cause a child's death, serious illness or permanent injury. The journey might be treacherous; the conditions of work are often dangerous; the standard of living provided by traffickers is invariably substandard. Trafficked children may be denied access to doctors and health workers who might report their situation to the authorities. Often children who fall ill are simply turned out onto the streets by their exploiters and left to fend for themselves or in some cases may suffer a worse fate.

Trafficked children are subjected to violence of many kinds. They may be beaten or burned to keep them obedient. The threat of such physical violence is in itself a form of psychological violence. Often, trafficked children are badly

fed or even starved, again to keep them compliant. Girls are at risk of sexual abuse, although boys may also face sexual violence. Depending on the type of labour they have to undertake, they face different health repercussions: agricultural work, for example, may expose them to toxic chemicals. Factory work may include operating machinery that is beyond their capacity. Commercial sex work carries its own particular risks, including unprotected sex that results in STD (including HIV) infection, unwanted pregnancy or reproductive illnesses.

Many trafficked children are exposed to substance abuse. They may be given drugs to keep them quiet and exploitable or to ensure that they become dependent on their supplier and therefore less likely to try to run away. Additionally, being in a trafficking situation has severe psychological risks for children: they are separated from family, friends and community. They may be totally isolated by fear, including fear of threats against their families. Trafficked children often end up in a vicious cycle of desperation, trafficking, exploitation, dependence and re-trafficking. For these reasons, children who have become victims of trafficking may lose all sense of hope and plunge into depression, leading them to do harm to themselves or even attempt suicide.

The impact on families is severe. While many families may believe that sending or allowing their child to relocate to find work will bring benefits, they may never see the trafficked child again; many more never receive any of the promised income.

1.11.2 The impact of trafficking on society

The social impacts of trafficking are similarly wide ranging and long lasting. The impact on the family of losing a child to traffickers can be long term, especially if the family was enthusiastic about the child's leaving to find work. Conversely, if the child does send some money home or even returns to the community, this might be an incentive to other families to send their children into a trafficking situation so that a whole community can be "corrupted" by trafficking.

When the trafficked child's education is cut short the impact is severe on the child and her/his family as well as on the community. This has both a social and an economic

impact. The child's future is less assured because s/he will not have the skills required to earn a living or progress in life. Girls may find their marriage prospects are diminished, especially if they are known – or thought – to have been involved in commercial sexual exploitation. Social development efforts are undermined and the cycle of poverty continues, putting younger generations also at risk of trafficking.

At community and even national level, economic development is stymied by the lack of educational development, and because potentially productive workers are lost to the economy. Children and adults who return from trafficking with injuries or diseases also put a financial burden on their families and on the country, not least because the young and middle-aged people who are trafficking's most likely victims are unable to work and support the older people who depend on them.

There are important long-term but vitally necessary costs involved in the rehabilitation of trafficked children (and adults), as well as costs involved in making sure they can rebuild their lives and prepare a safer future.

It is clear that government efforts to combat child trafficking can not only result in improved protection of children's rights but are also an important contribution to broadly defined social development. Consequently, there is a strong imperative for mainstreaming anti-child trafficking policies and programmes into national development efforts, coordinating such policies and programmes across all relevant government departments, and allocating sufficient resources to vigorously tackle this multi-faceted problem.

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On trafficking in general	
Resource 1.11	IPEC: <i>Child trafficking – Elements defined for the purpose of IPEC operations</i> , undated (Geneva, ILO, 2007)
Resource 1.12	Van de Glind, H: <i>Visual illustration of differences between child and adult trafficking</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2007)
Resource 1.13	ILO-DECLARATION: <i>Trafficking in human beings: New approaches to combating the problem</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2003)
Resource 1.14	Boonpala, P and Kane, J: <i>Unbearable to the human heart: Child trafficking and actions to eliminate it</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2002)
Resource 1.15	O'Connor, M and Healy, G : <i>The links between prostitution and sex trafficking: A briefing handbook</i> , (Brussels, European Women's Lobby, 2006)
Resource 1.16	ILO: <i>Migration snake and ladder game</i> , extracted from 3-R Trainers' Kit, (Bangkok, 2006)
Resource 1.17	Van de Glind, H: <i>Identifying risk and vulnerability factors</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2007) (Exercises)
Resource 1.18	Kane, J: <i>Helping hands or shackled lives? Understanding child domestic labour and responses to it</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2004)
Resource 1.19	IPEC: <i>Child trafficking; The ILO's response through IPEC</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2007)
Resource 1.21	Kane, J: <i>Child trafficking: The people involved</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2005)
On labour migration and trafficking	
Resource 1.2	Taran, P: "Migration and labour solidarity" in <i>Labour Education</i> , Vol.4, No.129, (2002)
Resource 1.3	ILO: <i>Legal labour migration and labour markets: Alternatives to substitute for trafficking in children and women</i> , (TIA-1 in the Technical Intervention Area Summary Notes series), ILO-PEC Mekong subregional project to combat trafficking in children and women (TICW), (Bangkok, ILO, 2002)
Resource 1.4	IPEC: <i>Going straight</i> , (SELL-8 in the Sharing Experience and Lessons Learned – SELL – series), ILO-PEC Mekong subregional project to combat trafficking in children and women (TICW), (Bangkok, ILO, 2002)
Resource 1.6	Taran, P: <i>Clashing worlds – Imperatives for a rights-based approach to labour migration in the age of globalization</i> , Presentation to the International Symposium on Globalization, Migration and Human Rights, (ILO, 2006)
Resource 1.7	ILO: <i>ILO multilateral framework on labour migration</i> , (Geneva, 2005)

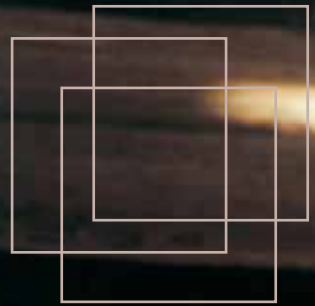
Resource 1.16	IPEC: Migration snake and ladder game, extracted from 3-R <i>Trainers' Kit</i> , (Bangkok, ILO, 2006)
Principal international Conventions	
Resource 1.1	United Nations: Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989)
Resource 1.5	United Nations: Convention on the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Their Families, 1990
Resource 1.8	ILO: <i>Rules of the game: A brief introduction to international labour standards</i> , (Geneva, 2005)
Resource 1.9	ILO: Worst Forms of Labour Convention (1999), No.182
Resource 1.10	United Nations: Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (2000): Supplementary Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children
On the economic and criminal aspects of trafficking	
Resource 1.20	Schloenhardt, A: <i>Organized crime and the business of migrant trafficking: An economic analysis</i> , (Canberra, Australian Institute of Criminology, 1999)
Resource 1.22	Belser, P: <i>Forced labour and human trafficking: Estimating the profits</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2005)
Resource 1.23	Iselin, B: <i>Fatally flawed</i> , UNODC, 2002
Resource 1.24	Shelley, L: "Trafficking in women: The business model approach", in <i>Brown Journal of World Affairs</i> , Vol.X No.1 pp.119-131, 2003 http://policy-tracc.gmu.edu/resources/publications/shelle58.pdf

Additional websites	
ILO website	www.ilo.org/childlabour
ILO-IPEC Subregional Project to Combat Trafficking in Children and Women (TICW)	www.childtrafficking.net
ILO Project to Prevent Trafficking in Girls and Young Women within China	www.preventtraffickingchina.org
Anti-Slavery International	www.antislavery.org
Child Trafficking Digital Library	www.childtrafficking.com
Web Resource for Human Trafficking	www.humantrafficking.org
Child Rights Information Network	www.crin.org
Coalition against Trafficking in Women	www.catwinternational.org
Defence for Children International	www.dco.org
ECPAT International	www.ecpat.net

Global Alliance against Traffic in Women (GATW)	www.gaatw.org
International Organization for Migration (IOM)	www.iom.int
International Criminal Police Organization (INTERPOL)	www.interpol.int/Public/THB/default.asp
Office for Drug Control and Crime Prevention	www.unodc.org
Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe	www.osce.org/cthb
Save the Children Alliance	www.savethechildren.org
UN Global Initiative to Fight human Trafficking (UN.GIFT)	www.ungift.org
United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF)	www.unicef.org
United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM)	www.unifem.undp.org
United Nations Inter-Agency Project (for East-Asia Pacific region, based in Bangkok)	www.no-trafficking.org
US Protection Project	www.protectionproject.org
World Vision International	www.worldvision.org



International
Labour
Office



Combating trafficking in children for labour exploitation

A resource kit for policy-makers and practitioners

Book 2

**Research and building
the knowledge base**

International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour

Combating trafficking in children for labour exploitation

A resource kit for policy-makers and practitioners

Book 2: Research and building the knowledge base

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CL-Info	Child Labour Information
ILO	International Labour Organization
IPEC	International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (ILO)
Lao PDR	Lao People's Democratic Republic
NFE	Non-formal education
NGO	Non-governmental organization
RA	Rapid Assessment
RWG-CL	Regional Working Group on Child Labour in Asia
SELL	Sharing Experiences and Lessons Learned (publication series from ILO-IPEC's TICW project)
SIMPOC	Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour (ILO-IPEC)
STD	Sexually transmitted disease
TICW	Mekong Subregional Project to Combat Trafficking in Children and Women (ILO-IPEC)
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNMIK	United Nations Mission in Kosovo
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
US	United States of America

Contents of Book 2

Book 2 provides information on analysing a trafficking or risk situation and gathering knowledge. It includes references to case studies and examples, and to resources that can be used for analysis and information gathering.

This book emphasizes the importance of reliable data as a basis for the development of policy and programming and describes a range of data collection methods. It underlines the importance of profiling children to assess their level of risk to being trafficked (and the profile of traffickers), and of mapping the routes, locations and exploitative end results of trafficking.

It also contains a section on research protocols and some specific guidelines on interview techniques and the ethical issues that must be taken into account both in interviews and in the storage of data on vulnerable children and those who have fallen victim to trafficking.

Target Audience

This book is intended to help those who require knowledge on child trafficking to prepare effective responses (i.e. not necessarily researchers but those that commission research). The book targets programme planners in government and workers' and employers' organizations, organizations that fight trafficking, funding bodies that support counter-trafficking or child protection actions, international agency headquarters and field staff, and those who undertake evaluation and monitoring exercises of anti-trafficking work.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

There are three major obstacles to success in anti-trafficking work:

- insufficient preparation because initiatives have been launched before reliable information has been thoroughly reviewed;
- missing links between cause and effect (often as a result of poor understanding of why or how things happen) that lead to a mismatch between the desired outcome and the actions taken to reach it; and
- false “common wisdoms” that recur throughout the various elements of project design or policy planning and that invariably lead to ineffective (or even harmful) outcomes and a waste of resources on initiatives that have little beneficial impact on the children to be protected.

The key to avoiding these is thorough preparation that includes making sure that the information used to inform the initiative is up to date and reliable and that it has been thoroughly analysed and understood.



Resource 2.1 (on CD ROM)

IPEC: *Notions on data gathering and analysis for problem definition*, CP-TING, ILO, 2005

This publication is one of a series of documents produced by ILO-IPEC's SIMPOC programme that provide insights into methodologies for data collection and analysis.

2.2 HOW MANY CHILDREN ARE TRAFFICKED?

Most reports on trafficking somewhere include a statement about the lack of reliable data. The criminal and hidden nature of trafficking means that the only data we have are generally based on the few reports that come to light – for example when trafficking victims are found and appear in official police, immigration or social welfare statistics. Some figures are calculated from the data we have on cases that come to court, hospital and health reports on victims, or national data that are often a mix of police and immigration figures, social services input and

other sources of information. By their very nature, these figures underestimate the true picture.

Nevertheless, some attempts have been made to estimate the number of people trafficked each year. The US State Department's annual report on Trafficking in Persons (TIP) estimated in 2004 that a "flow" of between 600,000 and 800,000 people are trafficked across borders every year. This does not include people who are trafficked within their own countries. The report indicated that 80 per cent of trafficking victims were women or girls and that half of the total were minors.



Resource 2.2

Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons: *Trafficking in Persons Report*, US Department of State, 2007

This document is re-issued each year. Updated versions are downloadable at: www.state.gov/g/tip

The ILO estimated a "stock" of 1.2 million children in 2000 who had been trafficked and are still in a situation of exploitation. This estimate includes cross-border and internal trafficking. It represents just under 15 percent of the estimated number of children who are in so-called unconditional worst forms of child labour – forced and bonded labour, armed conflict, prostitution and pornography and illicit activities.



Resource 2.3

Hagemann F. et al.: *Every child counts: New global estimates on child labour*, ILO-IPEC, 2002



2.3 RELIABLE DATA AS A BASIS FOR PLANNING

Reliable data on child trafficking are of crucial importance in planning effective responses.

Although exact figures may not be available on the extent of trafficking worldwide, it remains important to collect what information is available – both quantitative and qualitative – as a basis for targeted programmes and funding. It is better to miss a funding round and aim for the next one than to begin a project without proper preparations and run a high risk of failing. Authorities anxious to move forward in order to meet international reporting requirements or domestic budgetary deadlines will also achieve better impact that is in the best interests of children if all preparatory phases have been carefully completed.

Gathering information and data is the first step in combating child trafficking, and there are several ways to do this. Since 1998, IPEC's Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour (SIMPOC) has developed methodologies for measuring child labour, including some of the worst forms, and has developed a number of guides. Most of these can be downloaded from the ILO website.



Resource 2.4

Child labour research section of ILO's website:

www.ilo.org/ipec/ChildlabourstatisticsSIMPOC/index.htm

In addition to research manuals and reports, the site includes an up-to-date list of countries in which SIMPOC has worked with national authorities to carry out surveys and other research.

SIMPOC also regularly partners with governments (often the national bureau of statistics, if there is one) in the collection of data on child trafficking or to put in place data collection systems that will provide usable data in the area of child labour more generally, and a check with the relevant arm of government in a country will often lead to data on child labour that can be used in project or policy preparation.

2.3.1 Aims of data gathering

Before embarking on data collection, it is important to know for what purpose data is needed, and what kind of data that should be. Some of the aims of research might be:

- the need for national estimates to inform or influence policy change for example: the number of child victims and the cost to society; the number of traffickers and the profits they make, and the number of children at risk;
- justification of the selection of geographical areas (i.e. sending areas, transit areas or destination areas) in which to implement policy or outreach interventions;
- forecasting how child trafficking will develop over time without remedial action;
- understanding cause and effect, risk factors and vulnerabilities at both the supply and demand side, for more effective counter trafficking measures;
- effective targeting (for example, already trafficked children or those at risk and/or the traffickers themselves) to aim for maximum impact;
- determining baselines (of number of child victims, children at risk, or traffickers) to be able to monitor progress and measure the impact of interventions;
- documenting learning from pilot initiatives for replication and to contribute to global debate;
- identifying ongoing interventions and unmet needs (mapping) so that gaps can be filled and repetition avoided.

Further considerations with regard to research aims and methods to be selected are covered in



Resource 2.5

Van de Glind, H.: Research considerations regarding child trafficking (PPT presentation), Istanbul, May 2007.

This presentation was given during an international meeting to discuss research methods on the unconditional worst forms of child labour, including child trafficking.



2.3.2 Numbers

Reliable and accurate data on the numbers of children trafficked every year from or to a certain place, nationally, by region or globally are hard to obtain given the clandestine and hidden nature of child trafficking. At best, we have only estimates using various statistical methods with various degrees of accuracy. It should also be borne in mind that children who have been trafficked can be assumed to end up in some sort of exploitation and so are likely to figure in statistics relating to the exploitative sector in which they labour. To avoid double counting, figures on trafficked children are not usually added to the total figures for the worst forms of labour.

Reliable data on numbers are particularly important for organizations that are responsible for arguing to the State Treasury why counter-trafficking actions should receive a certain allocation of the national budget. They need to be able to demonstrate the size of the problem, the trends (increases or decreases) over a certain period, and the costs to society. Information on trends is also important to see whether actions being taken to reduce trafficking are having an impact. Trends can furthermore be used to forecast how the problem of child trafficking will develop over time if no remedial action is undertaken.

However, a grassroots NGO running a shelter for children who have been rescued from trafficking may not need such figures. Such an NGO may instead need data on the number of children who come to the shelter. This is vital to ensure that individual children receive follow-up assistance and that the support given to them can be evaluated for impact. Knowing how many children under the age of 15 have been reintegrated into school and how well they have coped will indicate whether more attention to this particular action is needed, or whether alternatives must be found.

2.3.3 Beyond numbers – Disaggregation

Aggregate numbers at a national level or at the level of an NGO are not sufficient however – they need to be broken down into smaller categories. For example, how many of these children in the NGO shelter were girls and how many boys? And how old are the children? An average is not useful here – one will need to know how many children under school age, and how many teenagers, etc.

Looking beyond the basic numbers to try to understand the groups of children they represent becomes possible only when data are “disaggregated”, that is collected and recorded according to various categories. These can differ according to the nature of the data and the use it will be put to, but should always, at a minimum, include sex, age, origin, family characteristics, ethnicity and whether the child has a disability (so that special services can be provided if necessary).

2.3.4 Beyond numbers – Qualitative information

For purposes of understanding the nature of trafficking itself (and planning effective responses), it is useful to know about how the children entered into trafficking: were they recruited by someone and if so, who? What methods did the traffickers use to trick children into trafficking? Did their parents or other family play a role and was that active or passive? What sort of transport was used to move them, who paid for it and how was it provided? What kind of work did they end up doing? What was their attitude towards working in the city? Who are the exploiters and what are their motives? There are numerous details that can be collected about the trafficking event itself, and these will help to paint a more detailed picture of the nature of the problem.

When data are disaggregated by sex, age, origin, family characteristics, ethnicity and (dis)ability we are in a better position to understand typical (and atypical) groups of children behind the data sets.

Numbers only tell part of the story. It is crucially important to also have qualitative information on recruitment methods, root causes, and for instance risk factors that create vulnerability to trafficking.

Other useful data categories would include whether or not this was the first time the child had been trafficked, where they were trafficked to, the nature of the exploitation they faced, how long the trafficking event lasted, and what their health care needs are. If the data collection exercise also includes children who are at risk of being trafficked, then additional questions can be added relating to the child's perceptions of school, migration for work, whether they are attracted to life in the city, how they formed these perceptions (for example, from friends or the media, or from information being circulated by recruiters) so that protection and prevention initiatives can be properly targeted.

In order to improve protection of children against child trafficking, it is useful to have a thorough understanding of the root causes and risk factors that make children vulnerable to trafficking. Questions could include: why do some countries have more child trafficking than others? Why is there a higher incidence of child labour exploitation in some cities than in others? Why are traffickers active in some places and not in others? Why do some communities face more child trafficking than others? Why do some poor families face more trafficking problems than others? And why are girls (in most cases) more at risk of trafficking than boys?

Answers to these kinds of questions and issues are extremely important to policy-makers who have a number of options of dealing with trafficking. The data can give some indication of whether child trafficking in a country is largely unorganized, for example operated by village recruiters who work by word of mouth to find people looking to exploit children and then pick up children from time to time to make money from that knowledge. The data might show, conversely, that those who traffic children work in a much more organized way, with semi-permanent recruitment, transport and exploitation networks. The data may also show that in villages within close proximity to schools trafficking is less of a problem than in villages far away from schools. Another example could be that data point out that cities with organized trade unions face fewer child labour cases than cities with a large informal and unregulated economy.

Analysing the exact nature of trafficking in each instance is fundamental to putting in place appropriate policies and

programmes to counter it, and this requires accurate and appropriate data that go far beyond just numbers of children trafficked.

In preparing for interventions, a vital element is normally a “situation analysis”. This is aimed at understanding the particularities of trafficking in a certain country, region or locality before policy and outreach initiatives are designed. The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) has prepared a useful summary of tools that can be used when analysing the situation of trafficking as it relates more broadly to both adults and children.



Resource 2.6

UNODC: *Toolkit to combat trafficking in persons*, 2006

Pages 13-17 outline survey instruments used in developing situation analyses of human trafficking in Benin, Nigeria and Togo.

In order to compare data sets across countries or regions and over time it is crucial to have common terms and definitions.

2.3.5 Agreeing common terms and definitions

One problem with much of the existing data sets is that they are not comparable to other data and cannot easily be combined to build a bigger picture. For example, some immigration services record data on children returned to their families and then classify the statistics by age group: 0-5, 6-11, 12-15, whereas a neighbouring government might also collect data on returned children, classifying them into age groups of “under 6”, 7-14, 15-18. Often the ranges used are based on such things as the compulsory age for school attendance, the legal minimum age for work, the age of reaching adulthood in national law – and these differ from country to country. Sometimes they are arbitrary. The problem is evident: what happens if we need to know how many children aged between 8 and 12 were returned in each country (for example because we are planning a regional education project)? This can only be determined by going back to the original data for individual children (which may or may not have been stored) and repeating the analysis.

Countries even use different definitions for “child”, basing this on national law and not international agreements that stipulate that any person under the age of 18 is a child for the purposes of guaranteeing her/him special rights and protection.

In order to compare data sets across countries or regions and over time it is crucial to have common terms and definitions.

In the absence of agreed parameters, it is important to know and understand the definitions, terms and categories of analysis before using the data. When data are collected, it is vital to ensure that the parameters fixed for the data are as compatible as possible with other available data collection systems and that the results of the data collection are therefore widely usable. In this context it is highly recommendable that research on child trafficking utilizes the definition of trafficking enshrined in the Palermo Protocol combined with ILO Conventions Nos.138 and 182 for a determination of exploitative end results (see Book 1, section 1.11).



Resource 2.7

IPEC: *Manual for child labour data analysis and statistical reports*, ILO, 2004

This is a comprehensive guide to analysing and presenting data collected through child labour surveys. It gives examples of work done in a number of countries and provides samples of the nature of data collected and how these can be used.



2.4 RESEARCH METHODS

2.4.1 Secondary data analysis – Sources and reliability

It is not always possible, or indeed necessary, to begin a data collection exercise from scratch. Some statistical data, ideally disaggregated, are already available from a number of sources such as ministries of health, labour, justice, social welfare, children and youth. Court statistics, databases of hotlines, police and immigration services, and healthcare organizations such as hospitals and clinics may also have relevant information at local or national level.

Analysis of such secondary data may help to determine in which geographical area and on which sub group of the population further primary research should be conducted.

Since the data are generally stored anonymously, there is no way to know who the individual children are behind each data set. As a result, there may be some double counting. For example, a child who figures in the data from the immigration services because he was returned to his family may also figure in the health-related data because he had been beaten by his traffickers and needed medical attention. So it is not possible to simply add up numbers from different sources and suggest that they indicate a “total” of any kind.

Although there are regularly calls for these various agencies to collect more data – or to begin collecting data if they do not do so already – what is often overlooked is the reliability and usefulness of the data collected.

An innovative way of analyzing secondary data was undertaken by ILO-IPEC's CP-TING project in China. It analysed over 800 cases of trafficking as reported in the media over a period of two years, which provided increased clarity on the profile of victims of child trafficking.

2.4.2 Household-based surveys

Increasingly, countries are undertaking national census exercises on a more frequent basis. SIMPOC works with a large number of governments to support data collection on child labour through national household surveys or modules

Before starting any new research endeavour one should always do secondary data analysis to ensure new research adds value to existing knowledge.

attached to labour force or living standards measurement surveys. These significant data collection exercises can serve as a vehicle for obtaining other more specific data. They are household-based surveys, which means that households are asked questions about all the members of the household, ranging from their age and sex to household income, educational level, employment, and number of televisions in the home. All types of data can be collected in this way. The ILO has piloted drawing data from specific questions in household-based surveys in relation to child trafficking.

➔ Resource 2.8
Habiyakare. T.: Estimating child trafficking through household-based surveys, (PPT presentation)

This PowerPoint presentation provides an outline of the methodology for household-based surveys and how the data collected can be used.

Additionally, SIMPOC has produced a comprehensive manual on the different kinds of surveys that can be undertaken, including surveys of children on the streets, in schools and in workplaces.

➔ Resource 2.9
IPEC: *Child labour statistics: Manual on methodologies for data collection through surveys*, ILO, 2004

Another publication from the SIMPOC series on data collection, this one dealing specifically with methodologies that can be used for surveys.

While census data is being collected, it is useful to add questions relating to a specific issue, such as whether and how many children are economically active and their ages. This is called piggybacking on a bigger exercise.

In Lao PDR, the ILO's Mekong Subregional Project on Trafficking in Children and Women (TICW) trained trainers on research and data collection techniques and piggybacked a National Statistics Bureau poverty survey, covering 900 villages in Khammouane province. The aim was to obtain an overview of the status of migration in one province as comprehensively as possible. If TICW had organized a survey independently of the national poverty exercise, it would have been too costly to cover all 900 villages, but adding a few migration-related questions to the poverty survey, allowed the needed data to be collected at

Birth registration is crucial to protect children and give them access to services. It also makes it easier to follow children in administrative records.

less cost and more efficiently. One of the lessons of this experience is that birth registration of all children is extremely important. Once a child is registered at birth, s/he is more easily followed through life – in school records, health records and so on. The child's age can also be known with more certainty, and this helps if ever there are questions of law relating to whether or not the child is old enough to work, marry, do military service, and of course whether s/he should be considered a child if s/he falls victim to traffickers.



Resource 2.10

IPEC: *Number crunching with baselines*, ILO, 2002

This brief document contains more information on the Lao PDR exercise. It also includes lessons learned on research and data collection from Phase I of the ILO-IPEC Mekong subregional trafficking project, TICW.

When there is not a bigger exercise to piggy-back, or where the necessary resources are available, it may be possible to do a stand-alone survey. These can be on child labour generally or on a specific type of child labour. They can cover the entire country or a specific area and may include questions to determine whether children were trafficked into situations of child labour.



Resource 2.11

National Institute of Statistics and ILO-IPEC: *Child domestic worker survey report*, 2003

This survey, undertaken in Phnom Penh, Cambodia, in 2003, is a good example of how preliminary information on the scope and nature of a worst form of child labour - in this case the very hidden phenomenon of child domestic labour - can be collected. The survey is geographically limited because of the complexity of the issue but nevertheless results in invaluable information that can be used for planning, advocacy and as a basis for more comprehensive data collection.

Child domestic labour is often highly exploitative. Because children in domestic labour in other people's homes are generally hidden from public scrutiny and there is no way of knowing the conditions under which they are labouring, an increasing number of countries recognize child domestic labour as high risk and one of the worst forms of child labour. Many children also end up in child domestic labour as a result of being trafficked, so surveying child domestic labour opens the doors to collecting data that helps us to understand a range of issues, including on the percentage of children that were trafficked into domestic labour.

In Cambodia, a survey was conducted in all the districts of the capital, Phnom Penh, and a number of randomly selected villages. In each city district or village, 20 households were randomly chosen to provide a random sample of 2,500 households. This survey identified 293 children working in domestic labour in these households. The next stage – to add qualitative information to the quantitative data – was to interview these children. They were asked about their family circumstances, how they entered child domestic labour, their conditions of work and other basic demographic information.

Data from surveys that are limited in geographical scope (for example administered in one city or in one province) may not be representative of the situation elsewhere. The results of these surveys can nevertheless be used to plan actions in the places where they were collected.

2.4.3 Other kinds of surveys

In addition to being household based, surveys can be establishment or workplace based, or they can be random surveys for street children, or school based surveys.

Establishment-based surveys gather data from children in the workplace and employers. The establishments are often chosen from among a list of workplaces identified by working children during a National Child Labour Survey. The kind of information gained from establishment-based surveys includes working hours and conditions, benefits, injuries children sustain, why employers hire children and how they recruit them. Among this information there may be some insight into the situation of trafficked children, for example, children may reveal that they began work several years before and that they were brought to the workplace by a recruiter who moved them from their home village. It is unlikely, however, that much information will come to light about illegal situations, since an employer of children who knows of such illicit practices will probably not cooperate with the survey team or will insist on being present when the children are interviewed so that they are unable to speak openly.

Random surveys of children living or working on the streets and their employers and/or clients provide information that cannot be captured through household-based surveys.

Surveys can be household based, establishment (or workplace) based, school based or street based.

Such surveys are important to reach out to children at high risk of trafficking such as runaways, homeless children and children working on the street.

School-based surveys provide information on students, teachers and school management. Information can also be gained on the quality of the teaching and how children feel about their education. This information is useful in the planning of child trafficking prevention programmes, because keeping children in school is an important element in reducing vulnerability to trafficking.

2.4.4 Rapid Assessments

Rapid assessment is a way of quickly gathering information that describes hidden or illicit forms of child labour (for example child domestic labour and commercial sexual exploitation) and in a limited geographical area. Rapid assessment methodology has been used by the ILO and UNICEF to respond to the need for more data and information on the worst forms of child labour, including trafficking.



Resource 2.12

ILO and UNICEF: *Manual on child labour rapid assessment methodology*, 2005

Presentation of the methodology used in rapid assessments and recommendations on the approach. The methodology was extensively field-tested before this final version of the manual was produced.

Rapid assessments provide useful qualitative information that may help in designing focused responses to child trafficking but the findings cannot be extrapolated beyond the sample itself.

It is important to recognize that rapid assessment does not provide representative statistical data but does give important qualitative information on issues that otherwise remain hidden. It should not be used for extrapolating beyond the sample or for making general conclusions on the child population as a whole. SIMPOC has produced a set of lessons learned on using the rapid assessment methodology when investigating the worst forms of child labour.



Resource 2.13

IPEC: *Lessons learned when investigating the worst forms of child labour using the rapid assessment methodology*, ILO, 2004

This document provides a detailed analysis of the lessons learned by ILO-IPEC in using the rapid assessment methodology in 38 data collection exercises over two years, from 2000 to 2002.

Results of rapid assessments allow project design to begin while other sources of data are gathered to build up a bigger picture. In addition to the conclusions of rapid assessments, policy-making in a particular area also needs to take into account updates on experiences and direct actions at grass-roots level.

Rapid assessment methodology is valuable because it provides information that comes from the children themselves and from those who have been involved with them (teachers, social workers, family members, NGO representatives), so that there are cross-checks to the information that improve its reliability. Rapid assessments, results are particularly useful in attempts at profiling children who might be at risk of trafficking or other worst forms of child labour. They also allow initiatives to be targeted to sectors to which children may have been trafficked – (for example carpet factories, tourist bars and restaurants or cocoa plantations in receiving/destination countries) on the basis of information the children provide.

Rapid assessment can also help us to understand mechanisms and means of trafficking because the children surveyed generally include some who have been trafficked and the information they give is based on real experience. Typically, the children participating in a rapid assessment exercise on child trafficking will include children who have returned from trafficking and those who have never been trafficked but may in some cases have been approached by a recruiter. It is quite rare for children who are actually in the process of being trafficked to participate since their traffickers will keep them away from anyone asking questions and, in any case, the exercise would be high-risk for both the children and those asking the questions. When children feel threatened during the interview, they are also less likely to give truthful answers to the questions for fear of reprisals.



Resource 2.14

IPEC: *The commercial sexual exploitation of children and adolescents in Belize*, ILO, 2006

This document provides an overview of some of the obstacles encountered in carrying out a rapid assessment exercise to gather information on the commercial sexual exploitation of children in Belize. It also explains how the methodology was implemented and the results analysed.

2.4.5 Participatory research methods

Participatory research provides information that is highly targeted to a particular use within a defined context and community. It generally involves a number of different ways of collecting information with the target children themselves and presumes that the target children will also be involved in analysing the data collected and consulted on how it is used to design responses. The engagement itself, if truly participatory, will empower the children to be better protected against trafficking.

Common techniques used in participatory research include direct observations (usually in a pre-selected place where at-risk children will be, such as bus stops, and routes to and from school or work), which are recorded in a systematic way. Focus group meetings are also frequently used as an element of participatory research. These can range from unstructured free discussion groups (although with careful noting of the discussion so that it is not lost) to more structured groups with carefully planned questions, role-playing activities or exercises. In some circumstances, where the level of the participants' literacy requires, picture card prompts or other visual aids can take the place of written questions or exercises.



Other creative activities can also elicit valuable information. These include the creation and/or performance of songs, dance and theatre excerpts, or painting, drawing and even video recording. Individual or small group interviews can also be used and whether or not these are recorded depends on the use to which they will be put and the acceptance of the recording by the interviewee.

ILO-IPEC's Mekong Subregional Project on Trafficking in Children and Women (TICW) has produced a lessons-learned brochure on participatory and action-oriented research from its first phase of project experience. This lists common research problems and contains general guidelines for research on the worst forms of child labour and trafficking. It also outlines the principles of action-oriented research (research that is designed to lead directly to project/programme planning) and has some notes on important issues such as how to gain access to children who are in child labour and the ethical issues that are involved.



Resource 2.15

IPEC: *Participatory and action-oriented research on worst forms of child labour, including trafficking*, ILO, 2002

This document captures lessons and experiences in conducting participatory and action-oriented research on worst forms of child labour including trafficking.

There is a useful overview of the issues that need to be considered in developing action-oriented research on the worst forms of child labour, including trafficking, in a handbook produced by the Regional Working Group on Child Labour in Asia. The handbook includes a strong argument for involving children and young people in research where possible and appropriate, and highlights the importance of targeting geographical areas of particular sub-groups of people, on the basis of preliminary research, perhaps using secondary data. This allows more focused primary data gathering of a more participatory nature in the selected target area at a next stage.



Resource 2.16

RWG-CL: *Eliminating the worst forms of child labour including trafficking: A handbook for action-oriented research*, 2002

2.5 ZOOMING IN ON THE CHILDREN, TRAFFICKERS AND ROUTES THEY USE

2.5.1 Profiling child victims and children at risk

Qualitative data – the who, what, how, why – is necessary for profiling children, which allows us to identify those at risk of trafficking and move to protect them before they become victims.

Profiling of children who have been trafficked helps us to draw up vulnerability profiles based on which we can identify children at risk in a target area. For example, we may have learned that trafficked children in country or town X were generally from Province Y and from families with more than five children, where one parent only was working. The children may overwhelmingly come from a particular ethnic group. They may comprise many more boys than girls and most of the children may have dropped out of school between the ages of 12 and 14. If the profile is confirmed across the range of children surveyed, it gives a good idea of the children we need to target immediately as at high risk of trafficking. In this case we might consider project activity designed to run in schools and to target boys aged 10-11 (approaching “drop-out danger” age). Social programmes might be targeted at large families, and programmes to help large families increase their income (for example by mobilizing the women in the family to start up small businesses) will address another of the risk factors that create vulnerability to trafficking.

Vulnerability profiling is one way of making sure that the actions proposed are matched to the actual protection needs of the children and their families and communities. Such actions are likely to have a positive impact on reducing child trafficking because there is a direct cause and effect between the problem and the solution proposed.

2.5.2 Profiling the traffickers

Profiling can also help us to understand more about the traffickers, who they are, and how they operate.

When profiling traffickers one should look beyond those that kidnap children: recruiters, intermediaries, document

Profiles of victims of child trafficking are useful to understand the factors that made these children vulnerable to trafficking, and are crucial in determining the type of assistance needed to protect children at risk that are in similar situations.

providers, transporters, corrupt officials, service providers and employers of children can all be considered traffickers if they contribute to trafficking with the intent to exploit, even when they take part only in a small fragment of the whole process.

In finding out more about how traffickers operate, surveyed children may shed light on the general method of recruitment in their area. If for instance, the research points out that the recruitment is done by adolescents who have returned from trafficking and who earn money by providing new children to an adult who visits once a month, then this information can be used to set up better community mobilization programmes.

2.5.3 Mapping of routes, locations and exploitative end results

Surveys and participatory research (particularly at community level) that collect qualitative information from children and adults on the ground can also provide some insight into the routes that traffickers take to move children, and the places of recruitment and exploitation. This allows law enforcement officers from police and immigration services to intercept traffickers before children are exploited. An interesting example of such mapping was undertaken by the Federal Highway Police and ILO in Brazil. They mapped the points of vulnerability where commercial sexual exploitation of children might take place, such as gas stations, restaurants, motels, bars and nightclubs nearby federal highways.



Trafficking routes change all the time. Information may therefore be out of date or may quickly become unusable. Traffickers are known to employ information specialists who advise them on when certain routes are being policed or when new routes are opening up.

The places where trafficking can be interrupted and where children may need support can also sometimes be identified from surveys. Bus terminals, railway stations and places where children hang out such as sports fields may all attract traffickers or form part of their infrastructure. Again, be aware that these will change as traffickers learn that they are being watched and are no longer safe.

The people who work in some of these places – for example food vendors at bus stations, attendants at petrol stations, porters at railway stations – may also be able to provide insight into traffickers' movements or unusual patterns of movement of children. They can also be surveyed.

Research may also cover likely exploitative end results for instance in domestic labour, organized begging, and children in agriculture. In undertaking such research, one could also attempt to determine how many of the children working there were trafficked into this work.

2.6 RESEARCH PROTOCOLS

Always clearly define key terms and concepts prior to starting the design of research tools, or even better, define these in the terms of reference for a research project.

For each research initiative to be undertaken, a research protocol should be designed and agreed upon by all those involved in the exercise. The protocol spells out definitions, timing of data gathering, research tools to be used, interview techniques, and ethical issues. The research protocol acts as an agreed set of rules that govern what is done, why, how and by whom. It should be followed at all times.

2.6.1 Definitions

It is important to clearly define key terms and concepts prior to designing research tools. The definition section of the research protocol should cover the purpose and nature of the research, the specific context and group under study

(for example the sex, age and risk level of the children, or the particular labour context in which they are to be found). It should also cover key terms and concepts, for example “out of school” (dropped out or never been in school or playing truant?) or “on the street” (living permanently on the street, or working there during the day?).

In any research on child trafficking IPEC recommends use of the following resource:



Resource 2.17

IPEC: *Child trafficking; its elements broken down for ILO operations*, ILO, 2007

This note breaks down child trafficking in its constituting elements along with an illustrative table that distinguishes child and adult trafficking and also spells out exploitation.

2.6.2 Timing of data gathering

Trafficking is not a “nine-to-five” business. Depending on the nature of the information being sought, it is important to time the data gathering to be sure that no valuable information slips by while the researchers are absent. For example, if children are at risk of being intercepted by recruiters while they are walking home from school, there is little point in gathering information in the middle of the day while classes are in progress. If children are at risk of trafficking between two different crop seasons for example in the month of June in Africa when the rice planting season ends and the cocoa season starts, then there is little point in gathering information on that form of trafficking in October.

If the research is very preliminary and is being done to gain some first ideas of the levels of risk, the nature of the problem and the way recruitment/trafficking/exploitation occur, then it will be important to have 24-hour coverage throughout the week by teams of observers/researchers to ensure that no elements are missed.

In gathering data it may be necessary to interview the same child more than once, first to establish a rapport and then later to gather information. Sufficient time should be built into the research plan for this type of follow-up.

2.6.3 Research tools

A research protocol should also spell out the research question to be answered (or aim) and how this will be answered. This requires a listing of research methods to be used and the development of research tools specifically developed for the purpose of the particular research. Such research tools could be a direct observation sheet to systematically note down any observations, or a questionnaire to be used when interviewing parents, or a visualization exercise for a focus group discussion with children. For more information on this please see the handbook for action-oriented research on the worst forms of child labour including trafficking, listed as Resource 2.16 in section 2.4 of this book.

2.6.4 Interview techniques

Information that comes directly from children is of great value in planning actions to counter child trafficking, protect children from it and help those who have been victims. It is also valuable to some extent to inform policy and decision making at the level of local and national authorities. However, there are some important principles that must always be followed before and during interviews with children:

- Minimize the risk of reprisals. Children who are at any risk of reprisal if they are interviewed – or even thought to have been interviewed – should not be approached for interviews at all. The best interests of the child must prevail and so discretion is important at all times when children are in a situation where someone else is controlling them. This is especially true if they are in a worst form of child labour such as sexual exploitation or have been trafficked into labour. It is better to interview a child who has exited from the situation and who is no longer at risk of any danger.
- Make sure the child has given informed consent. Any child who is interviewed should agree freely to be interviewed and should understand why s/he is being interviewed. It is advisable to proceed slowly and build a relationship of openness and trust before any interview is attempted.

Children at risk of harm resulting from interviews should not be interviewed at all.

- Be aware of any trauma that the child might be experiencing, especially if they have recently experienced abuse or trafficking. A traumatized child should not be used as a subject of general research. When it is vital to interview children in this position – for purposes of judicial process, for example, then there are detailed guidelines that must be followed. These have been drawn up by UNICEF and focus clearly on the rights and best interests of the child.



Resource 2.18

UNICEF and UNMIK: *Let's talk: Developing effective communication with child victims of abuse and human trafficking*, 2004

This manual was produced for use with abused and exploited children in Kosovo, in the wake of conflict and displacement. However it is more widely usable as a guide to communicating with children and keeping their best interests in mind.

- Inform the child. Children must be told exactly what will be done with the information they provide, who will see it and how they will be protected.
- Ensure confidentiality. There must be clear plans in place for ensuring the confidentiality and anonymity of all information received. There should be written rules on who can access the information, how it will be stored and how it can be used.
- Cross-check information. Cross-check and supplement information from the children through interviews with other respondents (“key informants”) – parents, teachers, social workers – who can comment on the children’s situation from a different point of view.
- Encourage child participation. Where possible, train children themselves as researchers and interviewers. They are more likely to receive informative replies. Alternatively, gather data through trained adults but the age gap should not be too big.
- Make sure the child feels safe. Remember that children who feel threatened are likely to give the answer they think the interviewer wants to hear, and not the answer they want to give. Children should be helped to feel confident, supported and safe.

- Do not repeat the same question more than once, even if you are not satisfied with the reply. When children think they have not been believed, they are more likely to change or invent a new answer.
- If someone else insists on being present during the interview (which should be discouraged), be aware that this may affect the child's answers. This is especially true if the person present is a parent, employer, teacher or someone else whose reaction the child might fear or wish to influence.
- Interviews with children can be one-on-one, or done in groups. Be aware of group dynamics, though, and try to observe how these might influence the information given. For example, does one child try to dominate and so exaggerate? Are the girls timid when boys are present?
- Mix one-on-one interviews with focus groups to get better results. Consider one-on-ones and follow these with structured focus groups at which you can test some of the information you have received (used so that it cannot be recognized as coming from one child, of course).
- Avoid asking direct and confrontational questions. Consider asking children about their dreams, hopes and things they like and don't like first.
- Never pretend to be someone you are not. For example, do not pose as a labour inspector to gain entrance to a workplace; do not pretend to be a client to get into a brothel. These situations are not only unethical, they are dangerous.
- Leave sensitive topics until last and only address them when you feel that an adequately trusting relationship has been built with the child. Remain sensitive to the child's feelings and reactions at all times.
- It goes without saying that all interviewers, data handlers, analysts and others working on data gathering exercises should not only be thoroughly trained in the skills and techniques used but should also understand and commit to the protocols and codes set up to protect the children and the data gathered.

- Make sure that these codes and protocols are in place and are monitored at all times.

2.6.5 Ethical issues

Ethical issues are often mentioned but not always taken into consideration when designing systems and structures. Always remember that children have a right to be protected – including from well-meaning people who put them at risk through carelessness or lack of thought.

When one gathers data about children at risk, one holds in one's hands exactly the kind of information that traffickers want. This information must be safeguarded to ensure that the children are not put at even greater risk.

Children also have a right to privacy. Although we may wish to help them, we do not automatically have the right to know all about them and to have access to their personal information. We should only have access to the information that we need to be able to do our jobs properly – no more. Focusing only on the essentials also helps to keep the research task manageable.

So the questions to ask are:

- Do we really need this data? Do we need to do research with children or can we find the information we need from secondary sources, such as a desk literature review? (Obviously, if you need information on a particular group of children you are going to work with, then this question will not apply.)
- Are we sure we know which data we need and what we need the data for? Data gathering, research and information should have a practical use, not be an end in themselves.
- Have the children (and any guardians) agreed to provide the information freely? Has there been any kind of pressure on them to speak to us and, if yes, what can we do to make sure that the children are indeed willing to speak to us?

- What will be the result – for the children – of their providing information? If there is any chance that the children will be harmed (through reprisals, being singled out because they have spoken out, even of having raised expectations that will lead to disappointment), then do not proceed. The children can receive something positive in return for their cooperation (such as a meal), but not a gift or money, since that might influence their answers.
- How will the children and other informants get to know the results of the research? Find a way to give them some feedback. In fact, one of the most important things you can give to children to acknowledge their contribution is a sign that their input was taken into account through feedback or follow up in terms of programming action.
- Are the field workers who are gathering the data safe? This is particularly important if there may be recruiters, traffickers, pimps or employers of children in the area. Try not to send researchers into interviews unaccompanied.
- Does the researcher speak the same language as the children? If not, then make sure there is an interpreter present who understands and commits to all the ethical issues covered here and who is trained in the research methods being used.

To handle data on children and information from children ethically, it is necessary to set up protocols on how the data will be gathered, stored and used, and a code of practice that all those handling the data will agree to follow.

Protocols on how the data will be gathered, stored and used should cover:

- Means to ensure that the data are stored and used in such a way that an individual child cannot be identified – unless that is necessary (for example by health personnel who need to have direct access to the child). One way of doing this is to assign each child a reference number and to note the number only on the information/data. The child's personal details can then

Data should be stored and used in such a way that individual children cannot be identified.

be stored, with the same reference number, separately from the data/information, and access to the reference number key can be highly restricted, perhaps with a system for double-checking anyone who requests access to this key.

- A clear plan for who can have access to the data/information, and which data/information they can see. Access should be restricted on a needs only basis – the data/information are not for general interest but for practical uses only.
- A statement on how data/information will be used. This should be prepared before the data/information are gathered so that those providing the information can be told truthfully what will be done with it. This should not be subsequently changed.
- These ethical questions should form part of the training of all those involved in the data/information exercise and should be regularly reviewed and updated.

2.7 VALIDATION, REPORTING AND DISSEMINATION

Before publishing findings, these should be validated through a consultative process. This may help to ensure acceptance of findings on sensitive issues by the government. Findings of recent research on child trafficking in Uganda were for instance validated in communication with key government officials. The launch of the report during the Day of the African Child was attended by a key minister and resulted in a lot of media attention.

Reports resulting from any research should spell out what was known already prior to the start of the research (based on secondary data analysis) and highlight new findings that add to the knowledge base.

Reports should include a chapter that describes how the research was undertaken and any methodological issues worth mentioning. This in turn will facilitate secondary data analysis by future researchers.

Once completed, share the report (or the essence thereof) with relevant policy makers and practitioners in one-on-ones, during press events, meetings or conferences.

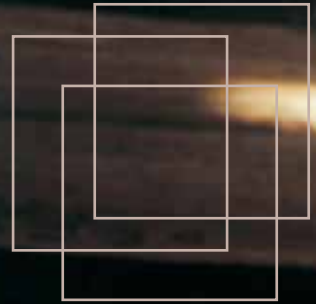
Also, ensure that the report and the raw data that led to it are stored and made accessible easily for future use.

RESOURCES REFERRED TO IN BOOK 2

On data gathering and information sources	
Resource 2.1	IPEC: <i>Notions on data gathering and analysis for problem definition</i> , (CP-TING), (ILO, 2005)
Resource 2.2	US Department of State, Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons: <i>Trafficking in Persons Report</i> (Washington, 2007)
Resource 2.3	Hagemann F. et al: <i>Every child counts: New global estimates on child labour</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2002)
Resource 2.4	www.ilo.org/ipecc/ChildlabourstatisticsSIMPOC/index.htm
Resource 2.5	Van de Glind, H: <i>Research considerations regarding child trafficking</i> (PPT presentation), Istanbul, May 2007
Resource 2.6	UNODC: <i>Toolkit to combat trafficking in persons</i> , (New York, 2006)
Resource 2.7	IPEC: <i>Manual for child labour data analysis and statistical reports</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2004)
Resource 2.8	Habiyakare, T.: <i>Estimating child trafficking through HH-based surveys</i> , PPT presentation (Geneva, ILO, no date)
Resource 2.9	IPEC: <i>Child Labour Statistics: Manual on methodologies for data collection through surveys</i> , (SIMPOC), Geneva, 2004
Resource 2.10	IPEC: <i>Number crunching with baselines – SELL-1, (TICW)</i> , (Bangkok, ILO, 2002)
Resource 2.11	National Institute of Statistics and ILO-IPEC: <i>Child Domestic Worker Survey Report</i> (Phnom Penh, 2003). See: http://www.nis.gov.kh
Resource 2.12	ILO and UNICEF: <i>ILO/UNICEF Manual on child labour rapid assessment methodology</i> , (Geneva, 2005)
Resource 2.13	IPEC: <i>Lessons learned when investigating the worst forms of child labour using the rapid assessment methodology</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2004)
Resource 2.14	IPEC: <i>The commercial sexual exploitation of children and adolescents in Belize</i> , (San Jose, Costa Rica, ILO, 2006)
Resource 2.15	IPEC: <i>Participatory and action-oriented research on worst forms of child labour including trafficking</i> , (Bangkok, ILO, 2002)
Resource 2.16	RWG-CL: <i>Eliminating the worst form of child labour including trafficking: A handbook for action-oriented research</i> , Bangkok, 2002
Resource 2.17	IPEC: <i>Child trafficking; its elements broken down for ILO operations</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2007)
Resource 2.18	UNICEF and UNMIK: <i>Let's talk: Developing effective communication with child victims of abuse and human trafficking</i> , (Kosovo, 2004)



International
Labour
Office



Combating trafficking in children for labour exploitation

A resource kit for policy-makers and practitioners

Book 3

Legal and policy frameworks, mobilization and partnerships

International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour

Combating trafficking in children for labour exploitation

A resource kit for policy-makers and practitioners

Book 3: Legal and policy frameworks, mobilization and partnerships

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ACTRAV	ILO Bureau for Workers' Activities
CARICOM	Caribbean Community
COMMIT	Coordinated Mekong Ministerial Initiative Against Human Trafficking in the Greater Mekong Subregion
CP-TING	Project to prevent trafficking in girls and young women for labour exploitation within China (IPEC)
CRIN	Child Rights Information Network
EC	European Commission
EU	European Union
IFJ	International Federation of Journalists
ILO	International Labour Organization
IPEC	International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (ILO)
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IPU	Inter-Parliamentary Union
LUTRENA	Subregional project to combat the trafficking of children for labour exploitation in West and Central Africa (IPEC)
MAGIC	Media and Good Ideas for, with and by Children (web site hosted by UNICEF)
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
NAP	National Action Plan
OHCHR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
PROTECT-CEE	Project of technical assistance against the labour and sexual exploitation of children, including trafficking, in countries of Central and Eastern Europe (IPEC)
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
SAARC	South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation
TBP	Time-Bound Programme
TIA	Technical Intervention Area (publication series from ILO-IPEC's TICW project)
UN	United Nations
UN CRC	United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child
UNDAF	United Nations Development Assistance Framework
UN.GIFT	United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
WDACL	World Day Against Child Labour

Contents of Book 3

Book 3 covers the legal and policy frameworks that govern all initiatives designed to combat child trafficking, whether at policy or programme level. It outlines important actions that underpin these initiatives, in particular the formulation and implementation of National Action Plans against child trafficking and building consensus around these through consultation.

This book also outlines the range of actors involved in anti-trafficking efforts and their relative roles. It outlines experience in mobilization of a range of stakeholders, including employers' and workers' organizations, and provides insights into how these groups can contribute.

Target Audience

This book will be of particular use to those responsible for the development, implementation and oversight of national and regional policy and programme initiatives against child trafficking. The book targets government authorities, workers' and employers' organizations, funding agencies, and international and regional bodies. It also contains valuable resources that can be used by all those engaged in anti-child trafficking work.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

For all initiatives against child trafficking, whether at the policy or programme level, there are legal instruments and frameworks that provide a sort of common platform. These legal instruments and frameworks are negotiated commitments or plans through which people have agreed to work to combat child trafficking, protect children and support child victims. These instruments and frameworks exist at international, regional and national levels.

They encompass internationally agreed conventions that have been developed through a consultation process that is broad-ranging and attempts to take different countries' specific concerns into account. The strongest of these international conventions are those which succeed in building a wide consensus around the agreement, so that many countries ratify or sign up to the instrument. The countries that have ratified a convention undertake to bring their national laws into line with its provisions, so that the international agreement is translated into applicable laws in each country.

Similar agreements are negotiated at regional level, through regional bodies such as the Council of the European Parliament, the Council of Europe, the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC), the African Union, the Caribbean Community (CARICOM), the League of Arab States, and the Organization of American States. These regional agreements have different weight in relation to national law. In some instances, a regional instrument – sometimes called a convention, sometimes a framework decision, or given some other name – is binding on the states that are members of the regional body. For example, instruments adopted by the Council of the European Parliament are binding on the 27 Member States of the European Union. Sometimes the instruments are rather intended to guide countries on the basis of what they have agreed are important matters of principle. Regional and bilateral agreements among countries are typically well placed to address the cross-border aspects of child trafficking.

In addition, there are national laws and frameworks that apply in a specific country. An increasing number of national laws are being brought into line with international principles and so

Regional and bilateral agreements among countries are crucial in tackling the cross-border aspects of child trafficking.

there is more consistency and harmony in the treatment given, in individual countries' laws, for example, to children who have been trafficked. At national level, national action plans (NAPs) serve as master plans for work in a particular area. Many countries, for example, have drawn up or are developing Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) as part of their relationship with international financial institutions (the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund). PRSPs are detailed plans to address poverty in a country and, since poverty is often a major vulnerability factor in trafficking, it follows that plans to counter child trafficking should take account of and add value to the national PRSP. Also, if it can be demonstrated that child trafficking is an impediment to poverty alleviation, one has strong arguments to address child trafficking in the PRSP itself, which may in turn result in budget allocations to combat the issue.

Member States of the United Nations have also agreed a set of eight goals – the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) – with deadlines set for reaching them. Country specific translations of these goals are included in countries' UN Development Assistance Frameworks (UNDAF). Again, as with the PRSPs, since child trafficking is closely linked to development issues such as education, child health, employment and poverty, strategies to combat it should also take account of and add value to the UNDAF (and MDGs) in each country. In some countries pilot tests are underway for integrated holistic UN initiatives under the slogan “UN delivering as one”. Given the multi-dimensional nature of child trafficking, it is important that the issue is integrated in such coordinated holistic endeavours.

A number of countries have also developed or are in the process of developing Time-Bound Programmes to eliminate child labour. These differ from country to country, as each country identifies the priority areas relating to child labour that it will address within a set time-frame; child trafficking may be one of the priority areas selected. The Time-Bound Programme process includes extensive consultation, the development of a National Action Plan, and the planning of actions that are designed to be completed within a set time and so represent priority areas for action. IPEC has been instrumental in working with governments and other actors

to develop Time-Bound Programmes in a number of countries and has developed some comprehensive resources to be used for this purpose.



Resource 3.1 (on CD-ROM)

IPEC: *Eliminating the worst forms of child labour: An integrated and time-bound approach*, ILO, 2001

This is a guide for governments, employers, workers, donors and other stakeholders. It outlines the TBP framework and steps to be taken in developing a national TBP.



Resource 3.2

IPEC: *TBP manual for action planning paper IV-12. Eliminating the worst forms of child labour: a guide to targeted interventions*, ILO, 2003.

This is a resource pack designed to support implementation of initiatives contributing to the development of a TBP.



Resource 3.3

IPEC: *TBP Manual for action planning: Paper IV-1: Mainstreaming action against child labour in development and poverty reduction strategies*, ILO, 2003

This publication is targeted particularly at government policy-makers and planners and gives recommendations on how to mainstream child labour and trafficking initiatives into broader development and poverty reduction plans.

ILO-IPEC has also compiled a list of lessons learned as it has accompanied TBP processes.



Resource 3.4

IPEC: *Lessons learned from ILO-IPEC support to national Time-Bound Programmes (TBPs)*, ILO, 2007

This gives insight into the lessons learned from recent ILO-IPEC initiatives to support the development of TBPs in several African countries.

To ensure that the rights of children are not forgotten when these government-to-government contracts are put into place, UNICEF has developed a model bilateral agreement that includes protection of child victims of trafficking.



Resource 3.5

UNICEF: *Guidelines for the protection of the rights of child victims of trafficking - Model bilateral agreement*, 2005

This model takes a child-centred approach to bilateral and multi-lateral agreements relating to cross-border trafficking.



3.2 INTERNATIONAL INSTRUMENTS

It is important to know which frameworks are applicable to child trafficking so that plans against child trafficking coincide with the aims of international frameworks and other instruments and will also be supported by the critical mass that grows around an agreement of this kind. The major international and regional framework agreements are provided here for reference.

ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No.182)

This declares child trafficking to be unacceptable in all countries regardless of their level of development, and calls for it to be eliminated without further delay. Convention No. 182 requires ratifying countries to both prohibit and eliminate trafficking of children (all people under 18 years of age). It suggests operational guidelines to effectively prevent and eliminate child trafficking, while providing protection for boys and girls who have fallen victim to trafficking or are at risk of doing so. Article 8 urges ratifying countries to cooperate and assist one another, including support for social and economic development, poverty eradication programmes and universal education.

➔ Resource 3.6 (see also Book 1, Resource 1.9)

[ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 \(No. 182\)](#)

Worst Forms of Child Labour Recommendation, 1999 (No. 190)

This document offers suggestions to States that ratify Convention No.182 on implementing the Convention in national law and practice. It includes provisions on programme elements, research, target groups, planning, monitoring, enforcement and coordination.



Resource 3.7

[Worst Forms of Child Labour Recommendation, 1999 \(No. 190\)](#)

ILO Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138)

This Convention tackles child labour by requiring national policies to eliminate child labour and fixing the minimum legal age for work in harmony with the end of compulsory education, and generally at age 15; with various flexible options depending upon the country's level of development and nature and conditions of work. It is a fundamental prerequisite to combating child labour and the exploitation element of child trafficking.



Resource 3.8

[ILO Minimum Age Convention, 1973 \(No. 158\)](#)

United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989)

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN CRC) has been ratified by all except two of the United Nation's member States and outlines all the rights that children have as a consequence of being children. These rights are not "given" to them but are theirs as a matter of course, regardless of their sex, ethnicity, religion, nationality, or other individual characteristics. The UN CRC states that all people up to the age of 18 are considered children unless a ratifying state fixes a different age of majority.



Resource 3.9 (See also Book 1, Resource 1.1)

[United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child](#)

Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography (2002)

The Protocol defines the sale of children as “any act or transaction whereby a child is transferred by any person or group of persons to another for remuneration or any other consideration, i.e. (i) offering, delivering or accepting, by whatever means, a child for the purpose of (a) sexual exploitation of the child, (b) transfer of organs of the child for profit, (c) engagement of the child in forced labour; or (ii) improperly inducing consent, as an intermediary, for the adoption of a child in violation of applicable international legal instruments on adoption.” It declares the sale of children, attempts to sell, and complicity or participation in the sale of children as a serious criminal offence.



Resource 3.10

[Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography \(2002\)](#)

UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (2000): Supplementary Protocol to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons, especially women and children

Known as the “Palermo Protocol”, this was designed as a tool for combating cross-border trafficking through judicial and law enforcement means. It emphasizes putting in place effective legal and law enforcement frameworks and responses. These include: the criminalizing of traffickers rather than of victims; protection of victims from re-victimization; sanctioning of individuals and organizations involved in trafficking; and promotion of child-friendly procedures for securing testimony.



Resource 3.11 (See also Book 1, Resource 1.10)

[Palermo Protocol](#)

UN Convention on the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Their Families, 1990

This Convention protects the rights of all migrant workers and their families irrespective of their status. Migrants are to be treated equally to nationals in matters such as living and working conditions, access to justice, freedom of movement and social protection. Social protection might include access to services such as health, legal, education, vocational training and housing. The UN Convention sets out State responsibilities for promoting sound, equitable, humane and lawful conditions of migration. In managing migration, States are to consider not only matching the demand and supply of labour and economic markets, but also the social, economic, cultural and other needs of migrant workers as well as the consequences of migration on the communities concerned (Art 64). Thus States should facilitate the migration process and throughout each stage, secure appropriate services and information for migrants.



Resource 3.12 (See also Book 1, Resource 1.5)

[UN Convention on the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Their Families, 1990](#)

ILO Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29)

This Convention reflects the fact that trafficking of human beings is inextricably linked to exploitation, which includes forced labour. The Convention defines forced or compulsory labour as “all work or service which is extracted from any person under the menace of any penalty and for which the said person has not offered himself voluntarily”. It calls upon Member States ratifying the Convention to ensure that forced or compulsory labour is treated as a penal offence and that adequate penalties are imposed by law and strictly enforced.



Resource 3.13

[ILO Forced Labour Convention, 1930 \(No. 29\)](#)



ILO Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105)

While the Forced Labour Convention (No.29) deals with forced labour in general, Convention No.105 specifically covers some designated types of forced labour, namely: imposed as a means of political coercion or education, as a method of mobilizing and using labour for economic development, as a means of labour discipline, as punishment for strike action, and as a means of racial, social, national or religious discrimination.



Resource 3.14

[ILO Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 \(No. 105\)](#)

ILO Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97)

ILO Convention No. 97 provides conditions to create orderly recruitment of migrant workers. It stipulates that members must take all appropriate steps against misleading propaganda relating to immigration, and that members must provide treatment no less favourable to immigrants than that it applies to its own nationals, such as remuneration and minimum age employment, collective bargaining rights, accommodation, social security, employment taxes and legal proceedings relating to matters outlined in the convention. Article 4 additionally requires member States to take measures to facilitate the safe departure, journey, and reception of migrant workers.



Resource 3.15

[ILO Migration for Employment Convention \(Revised\), 1949 \(No. 97\)](#)

ILO Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975, (No.143)

ILO Convention No. 143 calls for its members to respect the basic human rights of migrant workers (Article 1) through the suppression of illicit and clandestine movement of migrant workers (Article 3). It aims to promote the adoption of national policies on equality of opportunity and treatment, and to protect the rights of workers who may be working in abusive conditions, as well as to prosecute the predators of illicit migration.



Resource 3.16

[ILO Migrant Workers \(Supplementary Provisions\) Convention, 1975 \(No. 143\)](#)

ILO Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997 (No. 181)

ILO Convention No. 181 defines minimum standards regarding the operation of private employment agencies (businesses that provide labour market services) to safeguard the rights of workers. Adopted in 1997, it includes provisions that prevent discrimination (Article 5 section 1). This Convention highlights the importance of bilateral agreements between sending and receiving areas to prevent abuses and fraudulent practices in recruitment, placement and employment and the need to penalize illegal or fraudulent agencies especially that abuse workers rights (Article 8). Article 9 contains provisions against the use of child labour, and Article 11 sets out ten basic provisions that private employment agencies should provide for their workers, such as freedom of association, social security benefits and occupational safety, workers compensation in the event of accidents, and maternity leave.



Resource 3.17

[ILO Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997 \(No.181\)](#)

3.3 REGIONAL INSTRUMENTS

Council of Europe Convention on action against trafficking in human beings (Treaty series No.197), 2005

This Convention provides enhanced protection of the rights of trafficked people. The Convention includes internal trafficking in its definition and provides guidelines for trafficking prevention as well as safe repatriation.



Resource 3.18

[Council of Europe Convention on action against trafficking in human beings \(Treaty series No.197\), 2005.](#)

Communication to the European Parliament and the Council COM (2005) 514 final

This document offers a European strategy to prevent and fight illicit trafficking, while holding in regard the rights of the victim. It calls for the regular monitoring of labour migration as well as a reduction in demand for trafficked labour.



Resource 3.19

[Communication to the European Parliament and the Council COM \(2005\) 514 final.](#)

EU Action Plan on best practices, standards and procedures for combating and preventing trafficking in human beings, Brussels 2005.

This action plan concentrates on effective reduction of trafficking through measures coordinated at EU-level. Some procedures include common standards for data collection, increased sharing of intelligence and EU-wide information campaigns.



Resource 3.20

[EU Action Plan on best practices, standards and procedures for combating and preventing trafficking in human beings, Brussels, 2005.](#)

European Union Directive on residence permits for victims of trafficking, 2004

This Directive defines the conditions for granting residence permits to third country nationals who cooperate in the fight against trafficking in human beings or against action to facilitate illegal immigration. It calls for action in the best interest of the child and stipulates that minors should have access to the educational and medical systems in the destination country.



Resource 3.21 (See also Book 4, Resource 4.51)

[European Union Directive on residence permits for victims of trafficking, Brussels, 2004.](#)

OSCE action plan to combat trafficking in human beings (2003)

This action plan offers a comprehensive approach to trafficking in human beings and includes a focus on (a) bringing to justice those responsible for this crime, (b) carrying out effective measures to prevent it, while (c) maintaining a humanitarian and compassionate approach in rendering assistance to its victims.



Resource 3.22

[OSCE: Action plan to combat trafficking in human beings, \(2003\)](#)

SAARC Convention on Preventing and Combating the Trafficking in Women and Children for Prostitution (2002)

This Convention promotes cooperation amongst the member states of SAARC particularly in countries of origin, transit and destination. The Convention defines the scope of trafficking (i.e. for prostitution) and calls for legal services for trafficked women and children as well as measures to ensure members states effectively deal with different aspects of prevention, prohibition, repatriation and rehabilitation of victims of trafficking for sexual exploitation.



Resource 3.23

[SAARC Convention on Preventing and Combating the Trafficking in Women and Children for Prostitution \(2002\).](#)

Multilateral cooperation agreement to combat trafficking in persons, especially women and children in West and Central Africa (2006)

The multilateral cooperation agreement to combat trafficking in persons, especially women and children in West and Central Africa is an example of a multi-country agreement covering mutual assistance in relation to cross-border trafficking. It is based on the Palermo Protocol and thus also constitutes an agreement on definitions and terms. It has a pronounced focus on law enforcement and protection of victims of trafficking.



Resource 3.24

[Multilateral cooperation agreement to combat trafficking in persons, especially women and children in West and Central Africa, \(2006\)](#)



Mekong subregional Cooperation Agreement to Fight Human Trafficking (2004)

The Mekong subregional cooperation agreement to fight human trafficking is a Memorandum of Understanding between the six countries in the Mekong subregion. It is an aspirational document containing a detailed preamble followed by 34 specific commitments in a range of intervention areas.



Resource 3.25

[Mekong Subregional Cooperation Agreement to Fight Human Trafficking, 2004](#)

This agreement among six countries in the Mekong subregion includes not only a focus on law enforcement and protection of victims but also emphasizes prevention and risk reduction through provision of alternatives.

3.4 COMPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

Two further resources complement the UN trafficking protocol and interpret it in the context of a human rights-based approach to their implementation. These are the *Recommended principles and guidelines on human rights and human trafficking* (2002) from the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights and the UNODC *Toolkit on trafficking in persons* (2006).

The former interprets the Palermo Protocol step-by-step and identifies the human rights issues that must be borne in mind as the Protocol is implemented. They include specific reference to the rights of children who fall victim to trafficking and underline the importance of ensuring that the best interests of the child prevail.

➔ Resource 3.26 (see also Book 4, Resource 4.28)
OHCHR: *Recommended principles and guidelines on human rights and human trafficking*, 2002

The UNODC toolkit is a guide to the Palermo Protocol.

➔ Resource 3.27 (see also Book 4, Resource 4.45)
UNODC: *Toolkit to combat trafficking in persons*, 2006

Both these resources are particularly useful to national authorities as international and regional treaties are translated into national policies and programmes.

Other complementary resources include a practical guide for Parliamentarians on ILO Convention No.182, developed by ILO and the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU).

➔ Resource 3.28
ILO and IPU: *Eliminating the worst forms of child labour: A practical guide to ILO Convention No.182*, 2002

A similar guide was developed by UNICEF and IPU on child trafficking.

➔ Resource 3.29
UNICEF and IPU: *Combating child trafficking*, 2005

UNICEF also developed a guide on the protection of child victims of trafficking



Resource 3.30 (See also Book 4, Resource 4.49)

UNICEF: *Guidelines on the protection of child victims of trafficking*, 2006

Finally, IOM developed a comprehensive guide on direct assistance for victims of trafficking.



Resource 3.31 (See also Book 4, Resource 4.54)

IOM: *The IOM handbook on direct assistance for victims of trafficking*, 2007

3.5 BROAD-BASED ACTIONS AND POLICY SUPPORT TO BUILD COHESION

Child trafficking is an invasive problem: it has many dimensions and penetrates into many different areas of the life and well-being of a child and her/his family and community. It is therefore evident that work to combat child trafficking has to be undertaken across a wide range of actions, at different levels and by a range of groups – from governments to trade unions to employers’ organizations to NGOs and more. These actions may address the child’s education, health, access to reliable information, the family’s income level and revenue-raising capacity, its coping mechanisms, channels for reporting vulnerability, means of reporting trafficker activity, law enforcement and so on.

No one government, organization or even network can take on all of these tasks. The secret to effective anti-trafficking activity is mobilizing a range of relevant partners around a platform for action (such as a National Action Plan), each partner playing its part according to its own capacity. This is often called a multi-sector approach because it presumes that agents from different areas of specialization will work – not necessarily together, but at least in coordination – towards the same goal. ILO Convention No. 182 states in this context to “designate the competent authorities to take action”. Such efforts at coordination within governments may increasingly be aided by efforts of the United Nations system to coordinate the work of its specialized agencies under its initiative UN Delivering as One.

The multi-dimensional issue of trafficking requires a multi-partnership response where a range of actors work together around a common platform for action such as a National Action Plan.

3.5.1 Advocacy and policy

Advocacy is not the same as awareness raising. Advocacy comprises efforts to convince key actors – usually in government – to change policy, develop new policy or undertake other important actions such as legislative review. Advocacy is about getting political commitment and supporting the transition from commitment to change. Most advocacy is generally done quietly, often through one-on-one communications, subtly and over a sustained period.

The ILO has documented some conditions necessary for success in advocating for new or updated policies and/or laws.



Resource 3.32

IPEC: [Good practice \(policy and government\)](#), Extract from *Good practices in action against child labour*, ILO, 2001

This extract includes examples of good practice in using research to change policy; making use of “the moment” to change policy; facilitating the law-making process; getting political commitment; creating a child labour unit; and, mobilizing government action through high-level commitment.

Key elements of successful advocacy include:

- reliable research that allows the advocate to put forward convincing reasons for change;
- making use of the “moment” as a hook for advocacy – for example taking the opportunity offered by a specific event – either a positive one such as an international conference on the subject, or a negative one such as worrying media reports about the issue concerned;
- identifying key agents of change within the organization that is being targeted – if it is government, for example, identifying the key minister or advisor who will be likely to support or promote change within government;
- involving all government leaders in processes around child trafficking work that will help them to understand the issue and see where the gaps are and what government can do;

- mobilizing pressure groups such as parents, teachers and the media to prompt public discussion on the issue and reinforce calls for change; and
- using international pressure where appropriate – for example highlighting overseas media coverage of the problem or using the good offices of a partner government that is visiting.

There is also a sort of reverse advocacy, which also positively influences working relationships between the government and implementing agencies, therefore making success in a number of areas more likely. Reverse advocacy means that, when governments do make change – by revising laws or introducing new ones, by reinforcing law enforcement, or taking other steps to underpin efforts to eliminate child trafficking – then trade unions, employers' organizations, NGOs, international agencies, youth groups and other implementing agencies help this effort by making sure the action is widely known, not only in the public forum but in particular among staff and volunteers who can integrate it into their work.

The ILO subregional project in West and Central Africa, LUTRENA, has documented its experience in both working to get laws against child trafficking passed and following up on new laws with actions to ensure that they are widely disseminated.



Resource 3.33

IPEC: *How to get a law against child trafficking passed*, ILO, 2007

This document outlines the experience of the LUTRENA subregional project in working with partners to promote new legislation specifically targeting the trafficking of children. It includes case studies from Cameroon and Togo and provides an overview of steps for lawmaking efforts to be a success.



Resource 3.34

IPEC: *What to do (first) after a law is passed: Getting the information out to affected communities*, ILO, 2007

In this document, the LUTRENA team explains the actions that were taken to follow up successful efforts to get new anti child-trafficking laws passed. It includes examples of the materials produced and the criteria identified for effective graphic elements of these materials.

Governments have prime responsibility to coordinate policies to fight trafficking in children effectively.

3.5.2 National Action Plans

Many countries have many different NAPs – on commercial sexual exploitation, on child labour, on human trafficking in general or child trafficking in particular, on poverty reduction or on education. Some have a broader NAP that includes many or all of the goals that a country aspires to achieve in order to improve the lives of its children; often these have been derived from the United Nations General Assembly Special Session on Children in 2002, which resulted in a list of objectives under the title *A World Fit for Children*.

NAPs, whatever their orientation, are much more than just plans outlining what needs to be done. Ideally, they should also include indications of who should take responsibility for each specific action and the time-frame in which the action should be completed. Other details can also be included: which actions need to be completed before others can begin, how the funds will be sourced and allocated, how the results can be documented and shared and, importantly, how their impact will be measured (including through use of indicators). Governments naturally have the primary responsibility to ensure the implementation of action plans aimed at tackling trafficking. Other actors, such as international organizations, trade unions, employers' organisations, NGOs, academic institutions and so on may complement government services depending upon their area of expertise.

To ensure child trafficking is covered, NAPs are suggested to include the following:

- Specifics on child trafficking in the NAP section on concepts and definition – such as irrelevance of consent when dealing with child trafficking, and recognition of exploitative end results beyond forced labour (i.e. any worst forms of child labour for children under 18; non worst forms for under 15s; light work for under 13s);
- A recognition of a range of exploitative end results that are typical for the country – and beyond only commercial sexual exploitation of children;
- Reference to data sets that are disaggregated by sex and age;

- Attention to a sound birth registration system that does not result in social exclusion of certain groups (See article 16(a) of Recommendation 146 to ILO Convention No.138);
- Outreach to children at special risk, including attention to the special situation of girls, for instance: runaways, children from dysfunctional families, homeless children, disabled children, AIDS orphans, children from ethnic minorities and out-of-school children;
- Age specific responses that recognize the specific rights and needs of specific sub groups of children. For instance, children under 16 should be offered free basic education (under the Education For All initiative), whereas children aged 15 and up are allowed to work if in decent conditions (and would benefit from skills training, job placement services, safe (internal) migration and youth employment interventions) and all children removed from Worst Forms of Child Labour should have a chance to complete basic education;
- Creation of child friendly court procedures and training of the judiciary on child specifics (where not yet done);
- Psycho-social counselling services that are specific to needs of children (i.e. different children of different ages have different needs);
- Awareness raising, mobilization, and training of labour inspectors and workers' and employers' organizations on compliance with child labour/trafficking aspects in national laws and ILO conventions;

Other elements to be included in NAPs but that are not specific to children:

- Recognition of internal versus cross border trafficking;
- Recognition of source, transit and destination areas and that each require different interventions;
- Addressing demand in addition to supply;
- Measures of protection, prevention, law enforcement, and victim assistance.

Anti-trafficking work can be made effective through a partnership of relevant agencies that work together around a common platform for action such as a National Action Plan.

The International Centre for Migration Policy Development has produced a valuable guide to developing and implementing a national anti-trafficking response.



Resource 3.35

ICMPD: *Guidelines for the development and implementation of a comprehensive national anti-trafficking response*, 2006

These guidelines, produced by the International Centre for Migration Policy Development, propose a comprehensive set of measures to be taken by a broad range of actors engaged in anti-trafficking work. They also include a recommendation on coordinating mechanisms and underline the value of monitoring and evaluation.

The development of a NAP needs to involve national debate, so that everyone who needs to work on implementing the plan will be consulted from the very beginning and so that no-one is excluded. An example of how this was done in Romania has been documented by the ILO-IPEC subregional trafficking project in Central and Eastern Europe.



Resource 3.36

“Overcoming the information overload”

This extract from IPEC: *Steps to the elimination of child labour in Central and Eastern Europe: Emerging good practices*, (ILO, 2007) briefly outlines the steps taken to coordinate information leading to the development of a NAP in Romania.

During consultations that lead to the development of a NAP, the views of children directly affected by the worst forms of child labour (and their families) need to be considered in line with the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and ILO Convention No. 182. Consultation among relevant organizations that have a potential role in fighting child trafficking is an important impetus to good mapping of the various parties involved in child protection and counter-trafficking in a country.



3.5.3 Mapping to ensure efficiency and good use of resources

Before starting interventions it is important to map out initiatives that have already been taken or that are in progress or already planned, and the resources that are available. These include tools, publications, research, training modules, trained staff and valuable lessons drawn from project experience – lessons that are both good and bad. In fact, bad lessons – especially analysis of what went wrong, why it went wrong and how it could be avoided in future – are particularly useful for project planning.

The same is true for the planning of new policies, regulations or laws. The key is to know as much as possible, not only about the issue being addressed but also about previous and current attempts to address it, both successful and unsuccessful. This includes not only project-based activities but national and local support services that are crucial to providing support to children at risk and those who have fallen victim to trafficking in source, transit and destination areas.

Mapping out who does (or has done) what is crucial in ensuring scarce resources are utilized effectively to combat child trafficking.



Resource 3.37

“Mapping of services for children and families”

This extract from IPEC: *Steps to the elimination of child labour in Central and Eastern Europe: Emerging good practices* (ILO, 2007) describes how CARE International, in partnership with national authorities, produced a map of social, educational and health services for children and families in Bulgaria.

It is important to know what is already being done in the area of child trafficking before you reinvent the wheel or allocate scarce resources only to find that the work you plan is already being done by someone else or, worse still, that it has already been tried and failed.

When you are mapping out the actions that are already in progress, planned or completed, you should think outside the box. For example, a project that is labelled as “improving the quality of education in X schools in Y district” may not have been planned as part of a child trafficking action programme but, if successful, it may well reduce the likelihood of children dropping out of school and therefore have an impact on children’s vulnerability to starting work prematurely and/or to trafficking. Mapping should therefore be as comprehensive as possible. For the same reason, governments developing, for example a NAP against Child Trafficking, should consult across ministries and engage all areas that may have relevance to the whole gamut of anti-trafficking initiatives, including Ministries of Children and Families, Religious Affairs, Labour, Justice, Education and Immigration. Such mapping exercises do not only help to clarify what is already being undertaken to avoid duplication, but may also help to determine with whom one could collaborate in future initiatives. ILO’s child trafficking project in China, CP-TING, drew up such a stakeholder analysis framework through which the strong and weak points of various potential partner organizations could be mapped.



Resource 3.38

Van de Glind, H. and Su Lin: *Process-based approach: Working method for the CP-TING project*, ILO, 2005

This brief paper includes a stakeholder analysis framework with an outreach dimension, and a policy dimension against which all organizations and networks can be ranked.

In countries where there is already a time-bound programme (TBP) on child labour or NAP on related issues, it will be relatively easy to find out who does what and where, as these are important rallying points for organizations working for children and working in a particular area (and have been the mainstay of many ILO-IPEC field offices in recent years). Updates on which countries have developed TBPs can be found in the annual IPEC implementation report.



Resource 3.39

IPEC: *IPEC action against child labour 2006-2007; Progress and future priorities*, ILO, 2008

IPEC's implementation report for the biennium 2006-07, highlights the Programme's activities worldwide. The report also reflects upon IPEC's work during its fifteen years of existence and the ILO's vision of eliminating all worst forms of child labour by 2016. The IPEC implementation report on action against child labour is issued annually. It can also be downloaded from the ILO web site.

In addition, there are a number of web sites that will be useful starting points to identify initiatives and organizations. These include the Child Rights Information Network (CRIN) site and a site by humantrafficking.org, both of which have thematic sections, information on organizations and initiatives, and news on events. Terre des Hommes offers a digital library on child trafficking.



Resource 3.40

CRIN website: www.crin.org



Resource 3.41

www.humantrafficking.org



Resource 3.42

Digital library (of Terre des Hommes) on child trafficking:
www.childtrafficking.com

3.6 PARTNERSHIPS AND MOBILIZATION

Working in partnership is more complex than working alone – it means constant communication, getting ideas together clearly enough to share them, taking account of others' strengths and weaknesses – but there is no doubt that working in partnership is also rewarding and effective.



Resource 3.43

IPEC: *Everybody can be IN to own what they build (Participatory approaches and ownership)*, ILO, Bangkok, 2002.

This brief publication outlines the participatory processes used in the programme and includes case studies of successful participation examples in countries in the Mekong subregion.

Because trafficking itself is a complex problem, it requires many different kinds of responses at the same time. This requires networking, collaboration and coordination of all those concerned. Although generally there has to be one lead organization in a multi-sectoral grouping to make sure that it is working efficiently, it is important to base plans and actions on everyone's individual strengths. It is also important to be honest about individual weaknesses so that these can be circumvented.



Resource 3.44

IPEC: *Multi-sectoral cooperation, Extract from: Steps to the elimination of child labour in Central and Eastern Europe: Emerging good practices*, ILO, 2007

This extract from a lessons-learned exercise undertaken by CEE-Protect illustrates how a coordinated response and agreements among the various bodies, agencies and institutions dealing with the issue of child labour and other forms of multi-sectoral cooperation can help to avoid the kind of fragmented approach that hinders the effectiveness of interventions. The case studies included are pilots from Albania and Moldova.


At a global level core agencies of the United Nations and other international organizations created the UN Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking (UN.GIFT) in 2007. The initiative aims at mobilizing state and non-state actors to eradicate human trafficking by (i) reducing both the vulnerability of potential victims and the demand for exploitation in all its

forms; (ii) ensuring adequate protection and support to those who fall victim, and (iii) supporting the efficient prosecution of the criminals involved, while respecting the fundamental human rights of all persons. In carrying out its mission UN.GIFT will increase knowledge and awareness on human trafficking; promote effective rights based responses; build capacity of state and non-state actors; and foster partnerships for joint action against human trafficking.

 Resource 3.45
www.ungift.org


This web site provides information on the UN Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking.

An example of a collaborative initiative where governments have taken the lead is the Coordinated Mekong Ministerial Initiative Against Human Trafficking in the Greater Mekong Subregion (COMMIT). Through this initiative among six countries in the Mekong subregion, a Memorandum of Understanding was developed that reflects commitments to work together to build a regional system to combat trafficking based on international standards, along with a subregional plan of action.

 Resource 3.46
www.no-trafficking.org

This web site provides an overview of the Coordinated Mekong Ministerial Initiative Against Human Trafficking in the Greater Mekong Subregion

During a meeting in Dakar (in 2007), twelve countries in West and Central Africa discussed considerations regarding the creation of a network of partner agencies. These included steps to be taken to build and sustain a network, such as defining goals and objectives, creating an action plan, establishing ground rules and defining how decisions will be made.

 Resource 3.47
[Van de Glind, H.: Presentation on networking, presented at a regional conference in Dakar, May 2007](#)

The PowerPoint presentation covers core considerations with regards to networking.

When developing partnerships, it is important to make sure that the budget will allow for all partners in a network to participate (or that each partner has resources to cover its own participation). Even simple meetings, for example, presume some travel expenses and time out from other work.



Resource 3.48

IPEC: *The whole is greater than the sum of the parts: Working together*, ILO, 2002

This document outlines efforts in the five countries covered by Phase 1 of TICW (Thailand, Vietnam, Lao PDR, Cambodia and Yunnan province of China), where partnerships were developed with relevant government ministries with responsibility for social affairs, employment and industry, as well as with employers' and workers' organizations and academic institutions. The document includes lessons learned from this experience as well as a checklist of criteria for replicability of the experience.

Since 1996, the European Commission's Daphne Programme to combat violence against children, young people and women, has gained significant experience in establishing and managing networks. Each project supported by the Daphne Programme must have at least two partners in two different EU Countries and, in practice, many Daphne projects have had multiple partners who have found ways of working together across national boundaries in loose as well as in more formal networks. The experiences regarding partnerships under the Daphne Programme can be found in the following resource.



Resource 3.49

Daphne: "Risk, partnerships and Monitoring and Evaluation", extract from *Elements of good project management, Papers from the third Daphne Conference*, Brussels, April 2007

The capacity-building workshop based on this paper was aimed at coordinators of projects supported by the European Commission's Daphne Programme, but the material covered is also relevant to all those designing initiatives to combat child trafficking. It includes a template for a risk register as well as insightful comments on developing effective partnerships.

Partners in a network of organizations that fight child trafficking can include government agencies, employers' and workers' organizations, NGOs, international agencies, communities including children and young people, media, and others. Each one of them is covered in the following:

Combating exploitation is a fundamental objective of Workers' and Employers' Organizations (and this includes the fight against child trafficking).

3.6.1 Government

Governments should always be a partner in anti-child trafficking work because it is they that are responsible for developing and enforcing the legal and policy frameworks to fight child trafficking. An important role that a governments can play as part of the wider team of actors engaged in combating child trafficking is as facilitator of NAPs but, additionally, the importance of government sending a clear message that child trafficking will not be tolerated cannot be overstated. Governments of destination/ receiving countries must similarly act to ensure that the exploitation into which children are trafficked is eliminated.

Given the multi-dimensional nature of child trafficking, it is important to offer a multi-faceted response engaging a range of government services in the areas of law enforcement, labour, education, social welfare and others.

3.6.2 Employers' and workers' organizations

Employers' and workers' organizations are key players in efforts to combat child trafficking and have been for many years. Child trafficking is essentially a combination of movement and exploitation, and combating exploitation is a fundamental objective of workers' organizations and employers who strive to uphold labour standards across the world of work.

Employers' and workers' organizations play a vital role not only in setting standards through their role in tripartite discussions at country, regional and international levels, but also in upholding those standards within their individual workplaces. Their efforts to eliminate child labour including child trafficking contribute fundamentally to efforts in attaining the overall objective of the labour movement: decent work for all those of working age and no exploitation. A recent ILO paper provides an overview of the role of employers' and workers' organizations in combating child labour, including trafficking.



Resource 3.50

IPEC: *The role of employers' and workers' organizations in combating child labour*, ILO, 2006

This publication presents a typology of employer and worker engagement in combating child labour. It analyzes obstacles to engagement and also identifies opportunities for enhanced cooperation and mobilization.

Traditionally, employers' and workers' organizations have focused their efforts against child labour in a number of different specific programme areas. Trade unions, for example, have pioneered the use of collective bargaining as a way of moving towards a child labour-free workplace; employers' and workers' organizations have undertaken workplace-based awareness raising activities, often accompanied by the training of worker and employer representatives to share information and spread the word about child labour.



Resource 3.51

IPEC: *Good practices in action against child labour*, ILO, 2001

This is an extract from a publication on employer and worker initiatives to combat child labour. Pages 28-30 look in particular at including a child labour clause in collective bargaining agreements, mobilizing trade unions, creating awareness among employers and establishing codes of practice. It includes suggestions of good practice elements in these experiences and obstacles to avoid.

In recent years, the growth of the unregulated informal economy – where much exploitation of children takes place and consequently is a frequent destination for trafficked children – has led to the development of strategies and policies to formalise informal activities. Employers' organizations and trade unions therefore have been active in lobbying for action to be taken to regulate those sectors of



the labour market where informal activities flourish and for the dismantling of “rogue” workplaces which not only function outside established labour standards and practices but also often harbour children and indeed adults who are being exploited and may have been trafficked. A document outlining the kinds of actions that employers’ and workers’ organizations regularly undertake, and the challenges facing them, was prepared in 2003 for the TICW project.



Resource 3.52

IPEC: *Avenues for action: Engaging workers’ and employers’ organizations to combat trafficking in children and women*, ILO, 2003

This is a comprehensive account of lessons learned and experiences in worker/employer mobilization and partnership from the first phase of the TICW project.

In Brazil, the World Childhood Foundation developed a nationwide programme with the transport sector to combat internal trafficking for commercial sexual exploitation. It includes 213 private sector actors, including the truck drivers association, association of distributors, federation of transport industries, tire producers, logistic associations, and insurance companies who all signed a Pact that commits them all to a list of rules to combat trafficking for commercial sexual exploitation on Brazilian roads and highways. The initiative also includes activities with the Federal Highway Patrol and sensitization initiatives with truck drivers unions, federations, toll companies and transport industry employers organizations such as Brazilian National Confederation of Transport (CNT) and its apprenticeship and vocational/professional network (SEST/SENAT).




Resource 3.53

www.namaocerta.org.br (in Portuguese)

This web site provides further information on the transport sector initiative to combat trafficking for commercial sexual exploitation in Brazil.

Another promising initiative has been undertaken by the transport union of Burkina Faso. It trained its staff, including bus drivers, on what child trafficking is and how and to whom to report cases of child trafficking. Lessons learned from the initiative have been shared in a regional meeting.

 Resource 3.54

IPEC: *Engaging workers' and employers' organizations in the fight against child trafficking; a good practice from Burkina Faso*, LUTRENA project, ILO, 2007.


This summary note describes the mobilization and training of workers and employers in the transport sector against child trafficking, including what made it a success and learning points.

International Trade Union Solidarity is another element in a comprehensive anti-child trafficking strategy as it may contribute to mutual reinforcement of action amongst trade unions in different countries. South-South collaboration amongst trade unions in developing countries and North-South collaboration amongst trade unions in developed and developing countries may contribute to addressing child trafficking at both the sending and receiving end.

3.6.3 NGOs

NGOs generally are the actors who are closest to children and whose work has a direct impact on the welfare of individual children. However, it is important that this direct action does not become an end in itself but is also seen as a way of directly implementing national policy, and an opportunity from which to learn for the formulation of national policy. Too often, NGO actions are seen as isolated from governmental policy, whereas, in fact, they should be a direct result of it and also an important source of field experience.

IPEC has analysed the potential links and routes that can be taken in learning lessons from grassroots and community initiatives to feed into policy-making levels and to upscale demonstration projects so that the lessons learned from them can be built on in other communities, at subregional or even national or regional levels.

 Resource 3.55

IPEC: *Imitation is the sincerest form of flattery*, ILO, 2002

This was developed in the first phase of the TICW project and provides lessons and good practice examples on transferring grassroots experience into policy-making structures at local and national levels.

The lessons also emphasize the importance of mainstreaming not only valuable field-level lessons but also the issue of trafficking itself into broader policy discussions. An important result of appropriately linking grassroots actions with government policy and programming is that the results of the actions are more likely to be integrated into national processes and so become more sustainable than stand-alone projects that usually depend on external funding.

3.6.4 International agencies

A number of different international agencies have programmes that relate to child trafficking. Although international Conventions are universally relevant, most agencies focus their work on supporting member States of the United Nations to implement specific Conventions that relate to the agency's principal mandate. Different agencies often have different main partners within government and civil society, and this can make cooperation among the agencies quite challenging.

IPEC, for example, uses as the guiding principle for its programme against child trafficking the ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No.182) and, where applicable, other labour-focused Conventions. Its main partner in-country is often the Ministry of Labour and, of course, ILO works closely with its other constituents, employers' and workers' organizations. UNICEF uses the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) as its guiding principle and its main partners at government level are Ministries of Children and the Family, and the Ministry of Education.

Of course, there is much cross-cutting of mandates, partnerships and output. At country level the UNDAF is responsible for making this cost-effective and efficient, by spelling out each agency's main role and responsibilities in relation to a common analysis of the situation in each country.

However, in practice, inter-agency collaboration is not easy, partly because it is time consuming and stretches meagre resources very thin. At the most basic level, agencies attempt to share information on issues relating to child trafficking. ILO-IPEC developed a series of lessons learned on inter-agency collaboration in its TICW programme, as well as an outline of some ways in which this can be achieved.



Resource 3.56

IPEC: *All together now! Inter-agency collaboration*, ILO, 2002

This document gives an overview of the experiences of the first phase of the TICW project in working with other agencies and mobilizing them around the issue of child trafficking.

3.6.5 Communities, including children and young people

Communities are important actors in efforts to eliminate child trafficking. Children and young people should themselves be involved in work to combat child trafficking – not only as beneficiaries and informants, but as active participants. Without their involvement interventions are unlikely to meet their needs and be effective. They should also be involved at the planning stage of policies and programmes against child trafficking. This can be as simple as consulting them through focus groups, community meetings or peer-to-peer discussions. The process can also be more complex and involve roundtable discussions to identify problems and means of solving them. Book 5, *Matters of process* has further information on child participation.

3.6.6 Media

The media are important allies in efforts to combat child trafficking, but their role and capacity have to be well understood. The media, for example, generally have good research resources and capacities. They are tuned in to many things happening on the ground and know key people in many domains. They have access to information that is often not available to non-media personnel and they have the skills to formulate information and influence people.

Too often, however, initiatives by NGOs, international agencies and governments attempt to offer advice to the media. In fact, no-one knows better than the media themselves what they are able to do and how they can do it, and also the limits within which they have to work – like editorial policies and commercial constraints. The key to mobilizing the media's capacity is to recognize this and concentrate on building good working relationships with them based on respect for them as



professionals. UNICEF, for example, has had good experience in developing a relationship with and then supporting groups of child-friendly journalists who develop special reports on children's issues. UNICEF provides them with regular newsworthy leads and keeps in touch with them whenever there are major international events. In return, the journalists do not have to make any promises to cover certain issues or events, but in practice what happens is that the journalists themselves become engaged in children's issues and build up experience and knowledge in this area so that coverage of topics related to children improves.

Professional journalists' associations have also been active in developing knowledge of issues related to children and in developing training courses and codes of good practice in approaches to children and their involvement in newsworthy events. The main international workers' organization for journalists, the International Federation of Journalists (IFJ), built consensus around a global code of practice for media professionals covering children's issues.



Resource 3.57


IFJ: *International Federation of Journalists Guidelines*, 1995

These guidelines are particularly useful because they were negotiated with journalists' associations worldwide by the IFJ. As a result, they already have buy in from many media professionals and are not viewed as something imposed by an outside body. They cover appropriate coverage of issues relating to children as well as operational questions relating, for example, to interviewing minors.

Media professionals should understand the risks to which they expose trafficked children (or indeed children exploited in child labour more generally) if, in the course of reporting, they identify the child by name or image, or even indirectly by mentioning the name of the workplace or place of exploitation along with recognizable personal details of the child. Exploiters and traffickers who make a profit from their crimes will often go to extremes to silence a child who has spoken out about them, not least as a warning to others to stay silent.

Around the world, journalists and those who work in areas related to journalism, such as media training, are linked through a website and e-mail newsletter that is designed to promote the exchange of information and materials and news of


upcoming events related to children and the media. This is a useful source of ideas for anyone planning to engage the media in activities around children's rights, including child trafficking, and it is known as the MAGIC project: Media and Good Ideas for, with and by Children.

 Resource 3.58
[The MAGIC project](#)

This link (www.unicef.org/magic) gives access to the pages related to the MAGIC project in the UNICEF website. The project resulted from work done by the Office of the Norwegian Ombudsman for Children in 1999 and focused on developing good working relations between media professionals and those working for and with children. The site has since become a global resource for exchange of information on issues relating to children and the media.

In providing information to journalists it is important to deal with common errors or wisdoms that often get repeated in the press. For example, it is important that journalists understand the difference between migration, trafficking and people smuggling. Confusion about these can reinforce public stereotypes of migrants or trafficking victims as perpetrators of crimes who should be sent back home.

Further advice on dealing with the media is included in a note developed for staff and partners of ILO's CP-TING project in China.

 Resource 3.59
[IPEC: *Guide to dealing with the media for staff and key partners of the CP-TING project in China*, ILO, 2006](#)

This document provides a guide to dealing with the media effectively. The first part discusses strategic issues: how to design communication initiatives that accomplish specific goals and fit into the project's overall strategy. It also includes a section on ethical issues in media coverage of trafficking victims. The second part of the guide focuses on practical issues: how to deal with reporters, give strong interviews, create a media contact list, write press releases and organize press briefings.

3.6.7 Others

It is important also to involve organizations and agencies which, in a given country, may have a particular role to play or a special influence or outreach. This will differ from country to country. A good example is organizations that belong to a religious community such as a church or mosque. Often these have good resources, trained staff and a tradition of working closely with communities. Importantly, they have broad outreach and considerable influence. In Moldova, for example, the ILO-IPEC subregional child trafficking project supported the Moldovan Orthodox Church in a range of outreach actions that were mainstreamed into church activities.



Resource 3.60

Working with religious groups

This extract from IPEC: *Steps to the elimination of child labour in Central and Eastern Europe: Emerging good practices*, (ILO, 2007) describes an ILO-IPEC mini-programme implemented by the IOM and the anti-trafficking NGO La Strada. The mini-programme was aimed at supporting and enhancing cooperation with the Moldovan Orthodox Church, which has the greatest outreach of any Moldovan organization, especially in those areas of the country where children are most at risk of child labour.

Another initiative worthwhile mentioning because it engages a range of organizations is the 12-to-12 Community Portal. This initiative derives its name from 12 June, the World Day Against Child Labour (WDACL). The portal aims to bring together the experiences and achievements of different actors from the global community in their efforts to combat child labour, including child trafficking. In 2003, the WDACL devoted special attention to child trafficking.



Resource 3.61

12-to-12 Community Portal: www.12to12.org

RESOURCES REFERRED TO IN BOOK 3

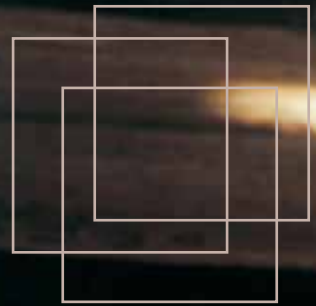
Legal and policy documents and related readings	
Resource 3.1	IPEC: <i>Eliminating the worst forms of child labour: An integrated and time-bound approach (A guide for governments, employers, workers, donors and other stakeholders)</i> , (Kathmandu, ILO, 2001)
Resource 3.2	IPEC: <i>Eliminating the worst form of child labour: An integrated time-bound approach (resource pack)</i> , (Geneva, ILO, n.d.)
Resource 3.3	IPEC: <i>TBP Manual for action planning Paper IV-1: Mainstreaming action against child labour in development and poverty reduction strategies</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2003)
Resource 3.4	IPEC: <i>Lessons learned from ILO-IPEC support to national Time Bound Programmes (TBPs)</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2007)
Resource 3.5	UNICEF: <i>Guidelines for the protection of the rights of child victims of trafficking – Model bilateral agreement</i> , (Dakar, 2005)
Resource 3.6	ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No.182)
Resource 3.7	Worst Forms of Child Labour Recommendation, 1999 (No. 190)
Resource 3.8	ILO Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No.138)
Resource 3.9	United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989
Resource 3.10	Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography (2002)
Resource 3.11	UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (2000): Supplementary Protocol to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons, especially women and children
Resource 3.12	UN Convention on the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Their Families, 1990
Resource 3.13	ILO Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No.29)
Resource 3.14	ILO Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No.105)
Resource 3.15	ILO Migration for Employment Convention (Revised) 1949 (No.97)
Resource 3.16	ILO Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention 1975 (No.143)
Resource 3.17	ILO Private Employment Agencies Convention 1997 (No.181)
Resource 3.18	Council of Europe: <i>Convention on action against trafficking in human beings</i> (Treaty series No.197), Warsaw, 2005
Resource 3.19	<i>Communication to the European Parliament and the Council COM(2005) 514 final</i>
Resource 3.20	EU: <i>EU Action plan on best practices, standards and procedures for combating and preventing trafficking in human beings</i> , OJ C 311, 09.12.2005, p.1, Brussels 2005

Resource 3.21	European Union Directive on residence permits for victims of trafficking, <i>Official journal of the European Unions</i> (Brussels, 2004)
Resource 3.22	OSCE: <i>Action plan to combat trafficking in human beings</i> , (2003)
Resource 3.23	SAARC: SAARC Convention on Preventing and Combating the Trafficking in Women and Children for Prostitution, 2002
Resource 3.24	Multilateral Cooperation Agreement to Combat Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children in West and Central Africa, Abuja, 2006
Resource 3.25	Mekong Subregional Cooperation Agreement to Fight Human Trafficking, Yangon, 2004
Resource 3.26	Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights: Recommended principles and guidelines on human rights and human trafficking, OHCHR, Geneva, 2002
Resource 3.27	UNODC: <i>Toolkit to combat trafficking in persons</i> , (New York, 2006)
Resource 3.28	IPEC and Inter-Parliamentary Union: <i>Eliminating the worst forms of child labour: A practical guide to ILO Convention No.182</i> (Geneva, ILO, 2002)
Resource 3.29	Inter-Parliamentary Union and UNICEF: <i>Combating child trafficking</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2005) www.unicef.org/publications/index_33882.htm
Resource 3.30	UNICEF: <i>Guidelines on the protection of child victims of trafficking</i> , (New York, 2006)
Resource 3.31	IOM: <i>The IOM handbook on direct assistance for victims of trafficking</i> , (Geneva, 2007)
On national plans, and building and maintaining partnerships	
Resource 3.32	IPEC: <i>Good practice</i> (pp.13-15 and 23-27 policy and government), Extract from <i>Good practices in action against child labour</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2001)
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International
Labour
Office



Combating trafficking in children for labour exploitation

A resource kit for policy-makers and practitioners

Book 4

**Taking action against
child trafficking**

International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour

Combating trafficking in children for labour exploitation

A resource kit for policy-makers and practitioners

Book 4: Taking action against child trafficking

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CCC	Children's Club of Cambodia
CCT	Conditional cash transfers
CEACR	Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations
CJP	Commission of Justice and Peace (Cameroon)
CLM-CT	Child Labour Monitoring system for Children victims of Trafficking
CPCR	Centre for the Protection of Child Rights
CP-TING	Project to prevent trafficking in girls and young women for labour exploitation within China (ILO-IPEC)
EU	European Union
ILO	International Labour Organization
IPEC	International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (ILO)
IOM	International Organization for Migration
LUTRENA	Subregional project to combat the trafficking of children for labour exploitation in West and Central Africa (ILO-IPEC)
LVC	Local vigilance committee
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
NFE	Non-formal education
NGO	Non-governmental organization
OHCHR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
SAP-FL	Special Action Programme to combat Forced Labour
SCREAM	Supporting Children's Rights through Education, the Arts and the Media
SELL	Sharing Experiences and Lessons Learned (publication series from ILO-IPEC's TICW project)
TIA	Technical Intervention Area (publication series from ILO-IPEC's TICW project)
TICSA	Subregional project to combat trafficking in children in South Asia (ILO-IPEC)
TICW	Mekong subregional project to combat Trafficking in Children and Women (ILO-IPEC)
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNIAP	United Nations Inter-Agency Project (East Asia and the Pacific)
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime

Contents of Book 4

Book 4 provides an overview of the kinds of actions that are taken to prevent child trafficking, protect children who are at risk of being trafficked, and support those who have been trafficked. It is a menu of options from a range of angles that various agencies may consider when embarking on anti-child trafficking initiatives.

This book stresses the importance of vulnerability profiling to identify those children most at risk and of support to at-risk families as a general protection measure. It covers actions in the areas of protection of children at risk and victims of trafficking, prevention of the crime of child trafficking, law enforcement, and elements of recovery, rehabilitation and rebuilding of trafficked children's lives.

There are references to projects that have been successfully implemented, with lessons from these projects and tried-and-tested tools that can be used in similar actions.

In implementing these various actions, monitoring of progress and measuring impact are crucial; more information on this is contained in book 5.

Target Audience

This book is intended for the use of government authorities, employers' and workers' organizations, agency field staff, NGOs, youth and other groups. It will also be of interest to researchers, donors, programme planners and those evaluating and monitoring anti-trafficking actions. Communications staff and advocacy/information personnel may also find the descriptions of anti-child trafficking work useful to inform a wider audience.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The key to deciding what action to take to address child trafficking is to understand the precise nature of the trafficking, including its root causes, and the risk factors and vulnerabilities at source, transit and destination (see Book 1 for further details).

Many promising policies have been put in place and actions have been well carried out but ultimately have had less impact than desired because they did not address the crux of the problem.

Possible response actions can be presented in a number of ways. One way of looking at them is by level: actions to fight trafficking may be of an outreach nature, directly benefiting individual children at risk and victims of trafficking, or more of a policy nature, for instance creating frameworks to reduce vulnerability to trafficking, improving law enforcement and addressing demand. In any of the suggested response actions below one may take an outreach approach and/or a policy approach.

Another way of looking at the various approaches is to consider where they are most likely to be implemented: in source areas where prevention of trafficking is obviously a priority; in areas of transit where interruption of trafficking is important; or destination areas, where places of exploitation need to be identified and closed down, perpetrators brought to justice and where children who have been trafficked are provided with the range of support they need to begin the road to recovery. Related considerations include the question as to whether the response actions match the precise needs of that particular location. For example, awareness-raising actions concerning child trafficking in source areas are more likely to focus on messages designed to alert children, families or others to the dangers of child trafficking/child labour; whereas awareness raising in destination areas might be designed to promote identification and reporting of exploitative situations and needs of those who have become victims. Also, appropriate policy frameworks, cooperation agreements and authority-led actions, such as law enforcement, need to be in place and target the identified needs at source, in transit or at destination.

It is vital to understand the 'cause and effect' of the response actions under consideration. Many promising policies have been put in place and actions have been well carried out but ultimately have had less impact than desired because they did not address the crux of the problem.



Action against child trafficking can also be presented according to the target of the action: be it children and families, traffickers and other criminal intermediaries, the public at large, or the issue of trafficking as an area of knowledge.

In line with Book 1 that describes trafficking as including “recruitment, movement and exploitation”, this book presents a menu of possible response actions that follow the chronology of trafficking, starting with the vulnerable child and her/his family, through recruitment and relocation, to exploitation and then eventual rescue and recovery.

In listing the menu of possible response actions, particular attention is paid to those that are in line with the mandate of the ILO and its network of partner organizations.

In selecting response actions to trafficking from this menu, it is important to remember that trafficking does not necessarily end when a child is removed from the trafficking event and given support. Unless there is fundamental change to the factors that lead to that child being trafficked, the cycle can start again. In other words, if the risk factors that create vulnerability to trafficking are not addressed, it may happen again.

The overriding aim of actions to protect children from trafficking is to address the factors that make them vulnerable to (re)trafficking.

4.2 PROTECTING CHILDREN TO PREVENT THEM FROM BEING (RE)TRAFFICKED

Protection is a broad term that includes both the protection of children to prevent them from being trafficked and the protection of victims of trafficking from further harm. This section covers protection initiatives aimed at preventing children from falling victim to traffickers and preventing them from being re-trafficked. It should be noted here that section 4.5 covers elements of victim assistance (e.g. recovery, rehabilitation, rebuilding). The section on protection is also relevant to broader efforts to prevent children from entering child labour, since they focus on identifying vulnerable children and families and reinforcing their capacity to withstand pressures to put a child into work prematurely.

Governments have the primary responsibility for child protection, in line with the commitments they have made in ratifying the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and other international agreements. However, a range of other actors also have responsibility for child protection, including those who have closest contact with the child: family, friends, teachers, social workers and, if the child is of working age, employers and workers' organizations.

4.2.1 Target the target group - Identifying children at risk

Although the ultimate aim of work on behalf of children is undoubtedly to move towards ensuring that every child is protected and that child trafficking is completely eliminated, these efforts have to begin with the children who are most at risk. These are the children whose risk profile (see Book 1) indicates that they are highly vulnerable to trafficking (and exploitation in general). Former victims of trafficking should be the starting point for the identification of risk factors that create vulnerability to trafficking, as they have the information that is necessary to target preventive interventions.

Some general risk factors include inadequate family income, large family size, and displacement from the family home.

Former victims of child trafficking may have information that can be of use in designing preventive interventions.

In our responses to trafficking we should be clear about which children are (most) vulnerable at source, in transit and upon arrival at destination, and target our actions accordingly.

Some extraneous risk factors come into play at certain times and we have to remain alert to them: environmental disasters such as drought and flood that put a strain on the family or community's coping mechanisms (these might get worse with time – for example a family might have a cow that provides milk at the onset of a drought but the cow might die or be sold as the drought continues).

There are also factors specific to one place or community: for example, living in a border area where the neighbouring country has a labour market that is thriving, or at a point where traditionally there has been cross-border movement for seasonal work. Gender differences – as well as factors like the age of the child – must always be taken into account: in some areas and in some age groups girls are more vulnerable to exploitation and trafficking than boys; in other areas and age groups, boys are more vulnerable.

As described in Book 1, risk factors do not only create vulnerability to trafficking at the source, they can also appear while children are in transit or upon arrival at their destination. For instance, youth of working age in hairdresser salons at destination may be at high risk of being lured into sexual exploitation.

Once a child, family, community or workplace has been identified as being in a high-risk situation, then the children and families can be targeted as beneficiaries of actions that specifically address the risk factors that have been identified for them at source, in transit and at destination. The aim is to reduce these risk factors that create vulnerability – and a series of different actions is usually necessary to do that comprehensively.

4.2.2 Reducing the family's vulnerability to trafficking through livelihood strategies, employment and conditional cash transfers

An important element of reducing the vulnerability of children to trafficking is addressing the risk factors that contribute to the family as a whole being open to pressure to send the child into work prematurely – whether in child labour in her/his home town or elsewhere. Responses should include helping

the family to understand the risks the child runs of being trafficked as well as the risks run by the family and community, and the advantages to be gained by protecting the child and her/his future contribution to the family's well-being.



Resource 4.1 (on CD-ROM)

IPEC: Action against trafficking and sexual exploitation of children: Going where the children are, ILO, 2001

This is an independent evaluation report on ILO-IPEC programmes in the area of trafficking and sexual exploitation of children in some countries of South-East Asia and Latin America. It includes details of the TWT project (pp.29-35), of targeted awareness raising (pp.37-40) and (p.35) child-friendly police desks and community monitoring in the Philippines. It also includes recommendations on how media and awareness projects might be approached to be effective.

Awareness raising must be carefully targeted to achieve this – for example, a multi-pronged outreach to mothers through baby and child clinics, to fathers through workers' associations or male-focused venues (for example places of religion which are frequented mostly by men) and to children and adolescents through the media, schools and clubs.

However, this is only likely to have an impact if the family can see that there are affordable alternatives to sending a child to work. Any efforts to help families to understand the dangers of trafficking and the many negatives of child labour must be accompanied by programmes that give the family alternative ways to survive, such as through livelihood strategies or employment for parents, and conditional cash transfers (CCTs).

While working to assist these individual families, such programmes should not be carried out in an isolated manner, but as part of larger policy level initiatives. At a policy level, an environment needs to be created that stimulates job creation – in particular aimed at creating more and better jobs for the poor in rural areas. This should be a central component in any poverty reduction strategies and provides sustainability to small outreach initiatives that would otherwise remain piecemeal.

Awareness raising on child trafficking must be accompanied by programmes that offer families alternative ways to survive, such as through livelihood strategies, employment and conditional cash transfers.

The aim of livelihood assistance to fight child trafficking is to get adults and adolescents into decent work and keep children under 15 in the school.

Livelihood strategies for families

Helping families to earn a living (in a legal, appropriate way that includes the fundamental principles of decent work and that does not include exploitation of any children) is of crucial importance in reducing the risk of children being trafficked.

Getting one or both parents into a situation where they can earn enough to support the family is the key to strengthening the family's ability to survive without child labour and the trafficking that is potentially linked to it.

For a long time family poverty and unemployment has been addressed through microfinance programmes. These provide start-up loans to families in conjunction with livelihood projects that generally aim to help the family generate its own income, for example through a new small business or a cooperative that brings together a group of families to share resources and tasks.

Over the years such programmes have been run with varying degrees of success and a number of lessons have been learned. These include the importance of ensuring medium-term plans to make sure that families who receive loans or credit can repay these without being put under undue financial pressure. It is also vital to ensure that any small businesses supported or any cooperative commercial schemes that are set up are based on sound business practices. It is necessary, for example, to make sure there is a market for any goods or services produced and that this market is not crowded with competing producers. This will require some market research and, of course, all small business undertakings should have a business plan, no matter how modest.

Encouraging and supporting families to put aside savings from their income or profits is key to ensuring good financial management and longer-term coping strategies for the family. It is also important to make sure that, as a small business or cooperative scheme becomes successful, children of school age do not get sucked in as cheap labour.

Another important lesson drawn from the experience of the ILO's anti-trafficking project in the Mekong (TICW) is that credit is best provided to people who, although in poverty,

clearly have opportunities and potential to raise income if they are given some set-up finance. Providing credit to the poorest of the poor who are unable to generate income burdens them with extra debt to repay and plunges them further into poverty. In such cases, welfare assistance with no increased liabilities should be considered.



Resource 4.2

IPEC: *Micro-finance interventions to combat the worst forms of child labour, including trafficking*, TIA-3, ILO, 2002

This publication explores a series of good practices and lessons learnt regarding micro-finance interventions for application in the combat of child trafficking.



Resource 4.3

IPEC: Summary of *Micro-finance interventions to combat the worst forms of child labour, including trafficking*, TIA-3, ILO, 2002

A summary sheet of the principal suggestions and learning points to consider when using micro-finance services to combat child trafficking.



Resource 4.4

IPEC: *Guidelines on the use of microfinance in IPEC support for the elimination of child labour*, ILO, 2006

This brief note prepared for the use of ILO-IPEC programme planners is a frank look at when and how microfinance can be successful and covers the main points to consider when deciding on this action.



Resource 4.5

IPEC: *Business enterprises can be any size: Microfinance services and business development to combat trafficking*, SELL-10, ILO, 2002

A note with learning points on the use of microfinance and business development services to combat trafficking, including factors that should be taken into consideration both in decisions when to implement them and also how they should be set up.

Employment for adults

Improving the rates of adult employment does not stop child trafficking but may help create alternatives for children at risk of trafficking, since it increases the chance of the adults in the family of being able to support the family and send the children to school. This is a complex and multi-faceted undertaking and is to a large extent the responsibility of governments who, working with investors

In rural areas skills training for 'self' employment in an agricultural setting may be more relevant than skills training for 'wage' employment (The latter may actually stimulate migration to cities).

and the business sector, aim to promote employment and productivity. However at a micro-level, individual families at risk can be targeted in different ways to ensure that they are able to compete in the labour market when jobs are available. This might include improving general educational levels of adults through non-formal education or basic literacy classes where necessary. It also includes vocational training that upgrades the skills of the adults to do particular tasks or else provides them with new skills where their own are lacking or do not match available work.

This presupposes that the vocational skills offered will match the demands of the labour market in the area where people are unable to work because they lack skills. One lesson from IPEC's work is that, in rural areas, particularly where there is little wage employment available, skills training might have to be targeted at helping people to become self-employed. Traditional apprenticeship schemes also fall into the category of skills training and also need to take into account the demand for labour in a given market.



Resource 4.6

IPEC: *Non-formal education and rural skills training: Tools to combat the worst forms of child labour, including trafficking*, (Summary note), ILO, 2002

When designing and implementing vocational or skills training programmes it is important to take account of gender differences in the marketplace but also to break free of "traditional" approaches to gender-specific training. The skills training provided must, quite simply, match the work and market opportunities that are likely available to both men and women.



Resource 4.7

IPEC: *Start with what you have and where you are: Skills training for self-employment*, SELL-9, ILO 2002

A lessons-learned summary, with checklists and recommendations, in the field of skills training.

CCTs provide modest cash incentives to parents on condition that they send their children to school.

Conditional cash transfers to families

Conditional cash transfer schemes (CCTs) provide modest cash incentives to parents on condition that they meet certain requirements – for example sending their children to school. There have been several evaluations of CCTs, and they generally conclude that CCTs have an impact on addressing some important family vulnerability factors such as family poverty, school attendance, household relationships (for example by reducing stress among the adults) and gender disparities (because the incentive is most often paid to the mother). An evaluation of a CCT scheme in Brazil demonstrated that the scheme reduced child labour and hazardous work.¹ Government resources are crucial to sustain this type of initiatives. Also, it is crucial that families develop the means to move out of the programme at an appropriate time – for example by learning skills that enable unemployed adults and adolescents to find work, or through other income-generating developments.

4.2.3 Youth employment

In recent years we have come to realize that improving the rates of youth employment is also a key to helping the family survive, while reducing child labour and trafficking.



Resource 4.8

ILO: *Global employment trends for youth*, ILO, 2006

An overview of the important issue of youth employment

In many countries where child trafficking is a problem, youth unemployment is also a problem.

It is an ironic fact that, in many countries where child labour and child trafficking are problems, youth unemployment is also a challenge. This is partly because adolescents of working age are overlooked in favour of employing children who are easier to control and exploit. However, it is also a result of the same factors that make children vulnerable to child labour and trafficking: low education levels and lack of appropriate skills. For this reason, targeting youth unemployment through both skills

¹ Y. T. Yap, G. Sedlacek and P. F. Orazem: *Limiting child labour through behaviour-based income transfers: An experimental evaluation of the PETI programme in rural Brazil*, (Washington DC, World Bank, 2002)

Skills training should always be accompanied by assistance to find employment.

training and programmes to encourage employers to employ more adolescent workers, is an important way of addressing the wider issues that provide a context in which child labour and child trafficking happen, along with policies that encourage job creation and economic growth.

4.2.4 Job counselling and placement

Job counselling and help to people in finding appropriate work are an important aspect of protection; there is little point equipping young people and adult members of a family with the skills to meet market demand if they do not know how to access that demand. In many countries, these services are provided by national authorities as part of the social welfare/employment system – for example through job centres – and sometimes job counselling is provided in the form of careers guidance services in schools.

Careers guidance or job counselling is also an important protection element for children who may have been exploited in child labour – including through trafficking – and who have consequently missed out on schooling or who may have spent a limited time in school. IPEC developed a practitioners' guide that includes a comprehensive programme of job counselling for children between the ages of 14 and 18 in particular who have been disadvantaged through child labour/trafficking and are ready to embark on a non-exploitative working life.



Resource 4.9

IPEC: *Careers Guidance: A Manual for IPEC Partners Working with Children aged 14-17 years*, ILO, 2007

The guide includes a range of exercises designed to guide counsellors in helping children to identify the kind of work that will be right for them, as well as detailed notes on the practical aspects of running the job counselling sessions.



4.2.5 Education as a key to long-term protection

Getting children into school and keeping them there is a vital step in reducing their vulnerability to trafficking.

The importance of education is recognized in the ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention (No.182). The preamble calls for action that takes into account the importance of free basic education and recognizes that the long-term solution to ending child labour will involve universal education. The convention emphasizes that national action plans should take into account the importance of education and that national data on children should include details on school attendance. It underlines the right of children removed from the worst forms of labour, including trafficking, to have access to free basic education and, where appropriate, vocational training.

In order to promote education (and protect children from trafficking) it is important to ensure that schools are violence- and discrimination free and safe, and have good quality teaching and a relevant curriculum.

There are many reasons why children are never sent to school in the first place: the parents may themselves never have been to school and may not recognize the importance of education (and indeed children may not recognize the importance of education). Conversely, the parents may have been to school but found that it was a negative experience, providing them with few of the skills they subsequently needed to earn a living or leaving them with other negative attitudes towards teachers, studies or the school environment. Therefore, it is crucial to make sure that the school experience is a good one and that this is recognized by parents.

In order to promote education (and protect children from trafficking) it is important to ensure that schools are violence- and discrimination free and safe, and have good quality teaching and a relevant curriculum.

Governments also have a responsibility to ensure that free basic education is, indeed, free. A major disincentive to school attendance is the fact that often families are faced with incidental expenses when they send children to school. These can include the costs of uniform, meals, heating and lighting in the classroom, stationery and books. Sometimes children are expected to donate money to supplement the teachers' income. Other costs include charges for photocopies or other incidentals. These hidden costs mean that free schooling is often not free at all.

IPEC considers the elimination of child labour and trafficking and the achievement of education for all children as interconnected challenges.



Resource 4.10

IPEC: *Combating child labour through education*, ILO, 2008

This paper provides an overview of IPEC's approach and strategy and makes the case for mainstreaming child labour/trafficking concerns into global efforts to achieve Education For All.

The interagency Global Task Force on Child labour and Education for All, has underlined the importance of education for all, not only as a vital element in efforts to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDG 2 especially) but also in reducing children's vulnerability to entering labour prematurely, which puts them at risk of

exploitation and trafficking. It also recognizes that child labour/trafficking is an impediment to achieving the global goal of achieving education for all children.



Resource 4.11

IPEC: *Reaching the Unreached - Our Common Challenge - the Global Task Force on Child Labour and Education for All*, ILO, 2007

This brief introduction to the UN inter-agency approach to education as a means of protecting children from exploitation in child labour includes interesting facts about the links between education and child labour.

The education of girls is a particular priority because in some families girls are seen as inferior to boys, or likely only to get married and leave home (so that educating them is considered a poor investment). Promoting the education of girls through targeted education and awareness raising of parents can make a difference. Linking girls' (and boys') education to incentives (for instance through provision of school meal programmes, cash transfers to parents or vocational training after school) or to other assistance has also been shown to be effective. However, it must be sustainable or lead to other programmatic ways to convince the parents that the children should stay in school.

Children who have been trafficked, as well as children who have been out of school for other reasons, may need help to catch up with learning or may not be able to fit immediately into the school system. Also, research amongst victims of child trafficking points out that in many instances they dropped out of school due to bad performance, peer pressure or other difficulties at school. Teacher training and individual monitoring and tutoring may help reduce drop-out that would increase vulnerability to trafficking.

In sparsely populated areas and other places where the formal school system is not well represented, non-formal education and skills training may be part of the response to address child trafficking.

➔ Resource 4.12
IPEC: *Formal and non-formal education to combat child labour*, ILO, 2008)

This paper reviews learning from 69 education initiatives in, Bangladesh, Cambodia, Colombia, Kenya, India, Peru, the Philippines, Senegal and Turkey.

➔ Resource 4.13
Haan, H C: *Non-formal education and rural skills training: Tools to combat the worst forms of child labour, including trafficking*, ILO, 2002

This publication includes lessons, both positive and negative, and tools from the long experience of Hans Haan in the field of NFE and rural skills trainings and contains suggestions on successful implementation.

➔ Resource 4.14
IPEC: *Education as an intervention strategy to eliminate and prevent child labour: Consolidated good practices*, ILO, 2007

A consolidated good practice guide to interventions that focus on education as a strategy to eliminate and prevent child labour. It contains an analysis of IPEC experience in programming education or school-based activities.

4.2.6 Targeted awareness raising to increase children's self-protection instincts

In protecting children from exploitation and trafficking, children themselves are an important resource. Empowering children by helping them to be aware of some of the mechanisms of trafficking – without frightening them – helps to protect them. This is particularly true of children who take control of their own decisions and may put themselves at risk through uninformed choices. For example, teenage girls need to be alert to men offering them good jobs in the entertainment sector; boys need to be aware that the adventure of going to the big city or neighbouring country may lead them into situations they cannot control.

➔ Resource 4.15
IPEC: *The medium is the message in awareness raising*, SELL-11, ILO, 2002

A lessons-learned summary with examples of awareness-raising actions tested in the first phase of TICW.



School based awareness raising programmes need to be complemented by initiatives that reach out to out-of-school children (who are at particularly high risk of trafficking).

There are many programmes run through schools, where information about trafficking is either included in the school curriculum or is presented in special events, but it is important to remember that many of the children who are at risk of being trafficked are those who are not in school in the first place. Information on the risks of trafficking and child labour exploitation more generally needs to be made available in the places where such children can be found. Street outreach teams can build up trust with these children and help to build their understanding of the risks of trafficking (as well as keep an eye on them more generally). Another effective way to reach out to children at risk is through other children.

Partners of IPEC have had some success in Cambodia with two kinds of programmes based on children as the main players. In the capital, Phnom Penh, children have been mobilized on the streets to keep an eye on other children and alert NGO/local authority task forces when the children's situation changes (for example if a parent falls sick or the child talks about having to start work). In this way not only are risk situations monitored, but also the children who are mobilized better understand the risks of trafficking and can also report recruiters in the neighbourhood. The likelihood that they themselves might be at risk is also reduced.

Also in Cambodia, IPEC supported the Children's Club of Cambodia (CCC) to develop a television series aimed at children, in this particular instance to help children to understand the dangers of child domestic labour, although the same format can be used for trafficking.

In Cambodia the CCC also runs high profile campaigns to encourage people to report child labour exploitation to the local authorities. They have distributed thousands of key rings with the number of the local authority hotline on one side and photos of popular singers and television stars on the other. Needless to say, these are very popular among children and are avidly sought.

Using the power of celebrities to attract children's attention and influence their behaviour is not a new idea but it works. In many places, the children who are most at risk of trafficking are precisely those who are easily influenced and who are made to believe that working overseas or moving to the city is a good idea. Celebrity role models or influential youth personalities can be mobilized to pass, instead, the more truthful message about trafficking: that it is a one-way ticket to exploitation and danger.

When preparing materials to transmit messages to children, it is vital to take the age of the children into account in developing the format of the messages and the way they are presented, and to test these formats with children themselves or involve the children in designing them. For example, the ILO-IPEC CP-TING project in China worked with the All-China Women's Federation to produce a set of illustrated brochures and posters for girls and adolescents in two distinct age groups: 10-15 year-olds and 16-24 year-olds. The messages take two distinct approaches to protection: the messages aimed at 10-15 year-olds emphasize the importance of gender equality, and education and training as preparation for work, while the messages aimed at 16-24 year-old adolescents underline risk factors and safety strategies for those who may be considering leaving their homes for work or who are preparing to do so.





Resource 4.16

IPEC: *Aware and be prepared (10-15)*, ILO, 2006

A booklet for girls aged 10 to 15 to help them be aware of the risks of trafficking and the importance of education.



Resource 4.17

IPEC: *Aware and be prepared (16-24)*, ILO, 2006

A booklet for girls and young women aged 16 to 24 to help them be aware of the risks of trafficking, while advising them how to migrate safely for work within China.

The European Commission's Daphne Programme to combat violence against children, young people and women has since 1997 supported awareness-raising projects in a number of areas relating to violence in Europe, including the trafficking of children. Some of these projects are featured in a lessons-learned compilation covering learning by NGOs, trade unions and film-makers.



Resource 4.18

Europe against violence: Messages and materials from Daphne, European Commission, Brussels 2002.

Downloadable at: www.europa.eu/justice_home/funding/2004-2007/daphne/project_daphne_en.htm.

Link to awareness raising materials. These include posters, brochures and newsletters. The text itself analyses the strengths and weaknesses of the actions undertaken and includes a communications checklist for those preparing national or local campaigns.

4.2.7 Beyond awareness raising: Behaviour change

Ultimately, awareness raising is not only about sharing information; it is about affecting behaviour change. This requires a comprehensive understanding of the links between beliefs and behaviour, and of the mechanisms for encouraging these to change. It also then presupposes a capacity to formulate the right messages to trigger these mechanisms and the right vehicles and formats to help them penetrate to the people being targeted. It also presumes an understanding of who those people are, why they need to change and how they might do that. ILO's CP-TING project in China developed further a background

Key in planning for behaviour change is knowing:

- what to achieve
- who to reach
- what you want them to do as a result of your action
- how you can reach them
- what messages to communicate.

paper produced for the TICW project and customized it for their use. It provides a comprehensive overview of the things that need to be taken into consideration in developing a communication strategy aimed at producing change.



Resource 4.19

Burke, A.: *Building change: Towards a communications strategy. Synthesis of a TICW-paper for the IPEC CP-TING project, ILO, 2006*

Affecting behaviour change can involve several different kinds of activity: TV and radio spots or programmes, posters and leaflets, music and theatre, displays and artwork, one-on-one presentations or discussions; formal speeches and increasingly web-based sites, chats and blogs and mobile phone messages and images. Whatever the format, the same rules apply: know what you are trying to achieve, who you want to reach, what you want them to do as a result of your action, how you can reach them and the messages you will try to communicate.

Beyond awareness raising, ILO-IPEC has had considerable success across many regions in promoting its package known as SCREAM – Supporting Children’s Rights through Education, the Arts and the Media. The package contains ideas for activities with children that allow them to explore issues and responses themselves, rather than just “receiving” a message that has often been developed by adults.



Resource 4.20

IPEC: *SCREAM - Supporting children’s rights through Education, the Arts and the Media*, ILO

Downloadable in sections at:

www.ilo.org/ippec/campaignandadvocacy/scream

Some examples of how SCREAM has been used in ILO-IPEC’s Central and Eastern Europe anti-trafficking project are available.



Resource 4.21

“SCREAM activities Eastern Europe”, extract from: IPEC: *Steps to the elimination of child labour in Central and Eastern Europe - Emerging good practices*, ILO, 2007

A brief note on how SCREAM is implemented and is integrated into anti-trafficking and child labour activities

Behaviour change to reduce the risk of trafficking should not only be aimed at children but also at the public at large, in particular in cases where the public is indifferent to the exploitative end results of trafficking (such as children in organized begging or commercial sexual exploitation). Initiatives by ILO-IPEC and its partners in Central America are, for instance, addressing public tolerance to sexual exploitation by men. For more on this, see Resource 4.39 in section 4.3.4.

4.2.8 Action by workers' organizations

Organizing youth of working age that are at risk of trafficking can contribute to reducing their risk of trafficking. Workers' organizations can play an important role in mobilizing and empowering these youth. In line with ILO Convention No. 87 on freedom of association, it is crucial that these youth are given right of access to join trade unions, make their voices heard, and participate in collective bargaining processes (see section 3.6.2 for more on collective bargaining). The International Trade Union Confederation now promotes portable trade union membership for migrant workers that cross borders, and this may contribute to providing protection if trade unions are active at both the sending and destination side.

4.2.9 Addressing exclusion and discrimination, including gender inequality

All members of disadvantaged populations, especially those in poor, ethnic minority and migrant communities, are vulnerable to exploitation, including trafficking. Their marginalization often excludes them from accessing basic services such as health care and even education. Such exclusion and discrimination plays into the hands of traffickers and makes these people vulnerable to trafficking.

Registration at birth of all children – regardless of ethnic origin – is extremely important to ensure that they have access to basic public services such as education and health care, and protection.

Discrimination and marginalization excludes children from basic services and makes them vulnerable to trafficking.

Irrespective of ethnicity, children, young people and women face specific disadvantages because cultural values and practices usually put them in the lower ranks in their families and society. Their low status allows and often encourages others to disregard their rights. This leaves them with low self-esteem and disconnected from information and networking opportunities.

Anti-trafficking programmes should take into account the gender inequality dimensions in these problems. They need to take account of the specific needs and concerns of girls and boys, the different roles and functions they may have within their families and communities, and the different responses that will consequently be necessary. Understanding and addressing the gender dimension in child trafficking problems, and their links to other social and economic inequalities, are crucial to empowering the most vulnerable, and to ensuring sustainable action towards the elimination of labour and human rights abuses.

ILO's regional office in Bangkok has developed a comprehensive toolkit called '3-R' (Rights, Responsibilities, Representation) that aims to:

- increase understanding of children's rights, workers' rights and gender equality among children, young people and their families in at-risk communities and workplaces;
- reduce gender and social gaps by raising awareness and providing skills for life and work to children, young people and adults in these communities and workplaces;
- empower poor and disadvantaged families and their members, especially children and women, to make informed decisions about their lives and job choices, and to increase their voice and representation in their communities and workplaces.



Resource 4.22

IPEC: *3-R Trainer's kit: Empowerment for children, youth and families*, ILO, 2006

The kit covers a range of topics: self-awareness and identity, human rights, gender and equality issues, problem solving and social skills, teenage relationships, keeping healthy, having a baby, reproductive health, violence and drugs, "smart" job seeking, migration for work and rights at work. It is packed with games, exercises, role-playing, situation cards, ideas for activities, and guidelines for facilitators.

The differences between girls and boys also need to be built into the processes that are put in place when implementing anti-child trafficking actions. For example, is there anything that may limit the ability of girls (or boys) to participate fully, such as the situation of a male facilitator in a male-dominated community who ignores girls wishing to speak and is patronizing and domineering of them.

ILO-IPEC has recommended a four-pronged approach to factoring gender into anti-child trafficking work. This involves (1) carrying out a gender analysis (to map out the issues); (2) programming interventions or strategies that are gender-specific (and that take account of the mapped out gender differences); (3) starting a process of institutional change in procedures and processes to take account of gender specificity; and (4) giving girls and women a voice by involving them in all these elements of anti-child trafficking processes.



Resource 4.23

ILO: *Gender mainstreaming in actions against child labour: Good practices*, ILO, 2002

This report, on the basis of specific criteria, offers a number of good practices on gender mainstreaming. The central prerequisite for the good practices included is that they support equality between men and women, and between boys and girls.



Resource 4.24

ILO: *Gender analysis: A key step in gender mainstreaming*, ILO, 2007

This PowerPoint presentation outlines the major elements of a gender analysis framework and how it can be applied.



Resource 4.25

ILO-ITC: *Gender planning: Training for IPEC staff and partners (LUTRENA)*, ILO, 2007

This PowerPoint presentation outlines the major elements of gender planning strategies and the key stakeholders who must be mobilized for them to be effective.

The ILO has also produced a detailed practical guide for organizations working against child labour and trafficking that includes basic concepts, strategies, tools for gender mainstreaming, notes on project design and other important things to remember when you are planning and implementing actions.

➔ Resource 4.26

IPEC: *Promotion of gender equality in action against child labour and trafficking: A practical guide for organizations*, ILO, 2003

This aims to serve as an easy-to-use manual for policymakers and practitioners committed to tackling the problem of labour exploitation and trafficking among girls and boys, men and women. It includes key concepts and strategies; an explanation of the rationale and key gender differentials in child labour; key principles and strategies for promoting gender equality in programmes against child labour and trafficking and a series of practical tools. It further includes a quick reference guide for training; a guide on how to mainstream gender in project design; and checklists to determine whether gender has been appropriately included in programme and research design.

Ensuring that gender disparities are taken into account at all stages of policy and programme design and implementation means also working with children, young people and women to reinforce their ability to function on an equal footing within their own communities and families. Both the already mentioned *3-R Trainers' Kit* and ILO-IPEC's participatory tool for facilitators offer guidance on facilitation skills to address gender issues.

➔ Resource 4.27

IPEC: *Gender equality and child labour - A participatory tool for facilitators*, ILO 2004

This participatory guide aims to help facilitators to promote an understanding and awareness about child labour and gender equality among young people, and adolescents in particular. It aims to help increase awareness of gender issues related to child labour and to deepen understanding of how society shapes the roles that people play and how these roles are linked to the type of child labour activities boys and girls become involved in. It fosters appreciation of child labourers as individual boys and girls, each with their own backgrounds, needs and fears. It includes a range of communication tools such as brainstorming, verbal exchange between the facilitator and participants, working groups with boys and girls, peer-to-peer education, drawing and role-playing.

4.3 PREVENTING THE CRIME OF CHILD TRAFFICKING

Where protection actions in anti-trafficking work (as described in section 4.2) are essentially focused on children and contribute to preventing these particular children from being trafficked, it does not mean that the crime of trafficking is stopped: the traffickers may move their operations elsewhere or focus on other groups of people. In addition to protection measures it is therefore important to prevent the trafficking from happening. Prevention actions are generally focused on addressing the problem of trafficking itself, including demand for exploitation in all its forms.

4.3.1 Strengthening the legal framework

In order to fight the traffickers it is vital that countries have the legal instruments to pursue traffickers and those who facilitate – or demand – their work. Bringing these criminals to justice is the surest way to send out a clear message that child trafficking will not be tolerated. It is also a strong deterrent to casual traffickers and to those who help them or exploit the children they supply.

The sanctioning of traffickers presumes clear and unequivocal laws that can be used not only to bring them to justice but also, through confiscation of their assets, dismantle the mechanisms they use to traffic and exploit children.

In 2002, the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights presented to the UN Economic and Social Council a set of *Recommended Principles and Guidelines on Human Rights and Human Trafficking*, which includes a guide to ensuring an adequate legal framework.



Resource 4.28

OHCHR: *Recommended principles and guidelines on human rights and human trafficking*, 2002

These call on states to provide for criminal liability for trafficking offences and effective penalties, including those

A major obstacle in the fight against (child) trafficking in many countries is the lack of specific and/or adequate legislation against (child) trafficking.

that fall under extradition treaties, and to confiscate both the proceeds and the instruments of trafficking. The guidelines cover the status of the victim in legislation and protection for witnesses. The document notes that one of the major obstacles identified in the fight against trafficking is the lack of specific and/or adequate legislation and calls on countries to amend or adopt legislation so that the crime of trafficking is precisely defined.

Although the importance of clear anti-trafficking legislation has been noted, in practice many countries still do not have specific anti-trafficking laws. A 2005 review of legislation related to child trafficking for sexual exploitation in the Member States of the Council of Europe, for example, found that only seven of the 22 countries that reported had specific anti-child trafficking laws. Many countries use other laws or parts of laws to charge traffickers, exploiters and intermediaries. For example, a counterfeiter who produces and supplies a false birth certificate that can be used to move a child who is not yet of a legal age across a border without her/his parents may be charged with laws governing the falsification of documents, laws covering illegal migration or counterfeiting. It is important that crimes that may not be covered under trafficking legislation should not go unpunished, but it is also important that the crime of trafficking does not get lost either in perception or in data collection.

ILO-IPEC's review of anti-trafficking laws in Asia concluded that where laws existed, they were not sufficiently rigorous to bring traffickers to justice and to punish them. One outstanding problem in legal instruments relating to trafficking – not only in Asia but in other regions – is that many laws still cover trafficking only when the purpose is for sexual exploitation and not for other forms of labour exploitation. As a result, both the formulation and the implementation of the law get bogged down in moral judgements around the legalization of prostitution – shifting the focus often onto the children and women who are caught up in the sex trade – and the criminality of the trafficking event often gets forgotten. This seriously limits the application of the law and is an obstacle to getting both the public and law enforcement and judiciary personnel to focus on traffickers rather than trafficking victims.

Laws against trafficking should include coverage of labour exploitation and differentiate between trafficking in children and adults.

The demand for a trafficked person's labour or services does not arise in sectors of the economy that are covered by labour law and that are routinely monitored and enforced.



Resource 4.29

IPEC: *Anti-child trafficking legislation in Asia: A six-country review*, ILO, 2006

A comprehensive comparative review of anti-child trafficking legislation in Bangladesh, Indonesia Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, and Thailand.

Another common and regrettable factor of many laws is that they do not differentiate between the trafficking of adults and of children, although the international community has recognized through the unconditional nature of the Palermo Protocol in regard to trafficking of children that there is indeed a difference. Some recent legislative reviews – in northern Europe particularly – have taken this into account and have based legal reform more closely on the Palermo Protocol, but generally this remains a challenge.

The ILO's Special Action Programme to Combat Forced Labour (SAP-FL) has issued guidance on legislation and law enforcement in relation to the forced labour outcomes of trafficking. These underline the importance of incorporating into anti-trafficking legislation the concept of "aggravating circumstance" for any trafficking offence committed against a person under the age of 18, with more severe penalties as a result.



Resource 4.30

SAP-FL: *Human trafficking and forced labour exploitation: Guidance for legislation and law enforcement*, ILO, 2005

This paper offers lessons learned on the provisions and implementation of laws related to the forced labour outcomes of trafficking.

Legislation and law enforcement are often also weak in relation to those sectors of the labour market where many trafficked children end up, such as domestic labour, while demand for a trafficked person's labour or services does not arise in sectors of the economy that are covered by the labour law. Because labour inspectors and law enforcement officials cannot readily enter the premises in which domestic labourers are to be found – generally private homes – these workers are denied the protection that the law should offer them. Children being exploited in child domestic labour hence go unnoticed and are ignored by the legal and labour inspection systems. Invisible and unprotected,



they are at high risk of exploitation and of being moved into trafficking (or indeed of having arrived where they are because they have been trafficked). The same holds true for children that end up in sexual exploitation and other illicit activities.

A particularly promising tool to fight trafficking is to confiscate the proceeds of the crime of traffickers, and use it to compensate victims. The 2005 European Union Action Plan on Trafficking specifically calls on Member States of the European Union to include asset confiscation in legislation relating to trafficking, but in reality few countries have introduced this.



Resource 4.31

EU Plan on best practices, standards and procedures for combating and preventing trafficking in human beings (2005)

Another important legislative action called for in the Palermo Protocol is the criminalization of corruption on the part of public or other officials that allow trafficking to occur. This ranges from border guards who turn a blind eye to irregular documentation, to civil service agents who provide illegal documents – for example a copy of someone else’s birth certificate so that the trafficked child’s age can be hidden – and others who, in various ways, contribute to trafficking.

Cheap, fast and transparent migration mechanisms need to be put in place if we are to offer alternatives to people who currently put themselves at risk of traffickers.

Finally, stringent law enforcement and punishment of traffickers in a given country has a longer term preventive effect as it deters potential traffickers from operating there. For more on law enforcement see section 4.4.

4.3.2 Promoting safe, legal migration

In recent years there has been a growing realization that one of the important ways of preventing child trafficking (and indeed adult trafficking too) is to promote safe, legal migration for those of legal working age, so that they are able to seek out decent work if it cannot be found in their place of origin. Where legal migration channels are cumbersome, slow and costly, people will continue to migrate illegally, putting them at risk of trafficking. If legal migration channels are open, then people are not so vulnerable to those who entice them into trafficking by promising to help them get to another place to find work.

Additionally, families that are in crisis because adult members cannot find work are less likely to resort to crisis coping measures such as removing children from school if they have other options such as legal labour migration of an adult family member.

ILO-IPEC developed research on this in South-East Asia and followed up with an expert meeting and a paper to explore the issue further.



Resource 4.32

IPEC and UNIAP: *Labour migration and trafficking within the Greater Mekong subregion: Proceedings of a Mekong subregional experts' meeting and exploratory policy paper*, ILO, 2001

This volume contains the policy paper commissioned by TICW to look at the issues involved in promoting safe labour migration and useful notes and ideas from an expert meeting based on it.

The paper argues that safe, legal migration is not the same as open borders – just opening up borders and letting people move freely across them is a recipe for uncontrolled migration and vulnerability to exploitation as people move with no means of support. Rather, the answer is “migration management” – putting in place procedures for safe migration of youth of working age and adults, based on

cross-border or inter-provincial cooperation among governments, and measures to ensure that people who do migrate have a clear path to employment and stability. This also means making sure that the labour market realities of origin and destination places are well understood and form part of the migration management plan. This would allow for the promotion of the movement of migrants to a certain place where there is a shortage of skilled or unskilled manpower, in a controlled way with safety mechanisms built in.

Such safety mechanisms should include regulation and monitoring of recruitment agencies as spelled out in ILO Convention 181 (see Book 3, resource 3.17).

Another important factor to remember is that having clear policies to promote safe, legal migration and putting in place the processes and structures for this to happen, will not be of much use if people do not know about them. Therefore, it is also important to accompany a strong, fair migration policy with ways of letting people know how it works and what it means for them. It is particularly important to make sure that those who might be likely to want to move for work (or for other reasons) know how they can do so safely. To do this, it will be necessary to identify who these people are (for example, is there a large body of unemployed adolescents in one place, or are there many single parent households with a child nearing the age when s/he might be compelled to go and find work?).



Resource 4.33

IPEC: *Trafficking prevention in China: The way forward*, ILO, 2007

This paper presents an integrated prevention strategy including attention to safe migration for youth who are above the minimum working age in the context of promoting decent work.

It is also important that migration services are made accessible to the target group and are relevant to their needs. Ideally the services should be offered in target communities, geared towards the specific needs of girls and boys of working age, and offered at times of the day and week that are convenient to them.



Resource 4.34

PowerPoint presentation on safe migration considerations, Changsha, 2005

ILO-IPEC's TICW project developed an awareness raising campaign to promote safe migration for decent work.



Resource 4.35

IPEC: *Travel smart, work smart: A “smart guide” for migrant workers in Thailand*, ILO, 2008

This guide offers simple suggestions to promote safe migration and prevent human trafficking.

ILO-IPEC's child trafficking project in China (CP-TING), in collaboration with China's railway authorities, developed a campaign against trafficking at the time of China's Spring Festival (New Year) when millions of prospective migrant workers are on the move.



Resource 4.36

IPEC: *The Spring Rain Campaign: Promoting safe migration on the railway networks*, ILO 2008

This resource describes the campaign's outreach programme targeting tens of thousands of migrant girls travelling by train and passing through railway stations during the period of the Spring Festival (Chinese New Year)

Where adults and adolescents of legal working age have decent work, they and their families are less likely to be vulnerable to exploitation and trafficking.

4.3.3 Promoting decent work

In recent years, the ILO has brought its anti-child trafficking work under the umbrella of its overarching policy to promote and ensure decent work. The thinking behind this is clear: where adults and adolescents of legal working age can earn a fair living, with access to their rights as workers – including the right to freedom of association and collective bargaining – and in decent, safe conditions, they and their families are less likely to be vulnerable to exploitation, discrimination, trafficking and child labour. Their communities and countries are more likely to be able to achieve the development goals agreed by the international community, including the goal of education for all children.

Decent work goals may not at first seem to be relevant to child trafficking, where the aim is precisely to keep children out of child labour altogether. Nevertheless, eliminating child labour and particularly the worst forms of child labour

are important elements of the Decent Work Agenda and fighting child trafficking contributes to achieving decent work. The tools of decent work are also important tools to combat child trafficking: labour inspections, for example, are vital to reducing exploitative labour practices, including child labour.



Resource 4.37

IPEC: *Guidelines for developing child labour monitoring processes*, ILO-IPEC, Geneva 2005

This is a practical guide for authorities to include child labour monitoring as part of labour inspections.

The ILO's unique tripartite structure engages employers' and workers' organizations in setting and monitoring standards, putting in place workplace codes of practice and supporting strong reporting mechanisms to uncover abuses. This is thought to contribute to reducing the demand for children to be trafficked.

The concept of "good demand" is also important in the promotion of decent work and in the role it plays in reducing the vulnerability of young people of working age to being trafficked into exploitation. Encouraging employers to recruit young people of minimum working age and making opportunities available to them in the context of decent work is one way of protecting these young people from exploitation, including through trafficking. The All China Women's Federation (ACWF), for example, plays an instrumental role in identifying female employers (who are also members of the ACWF) who can offer decent jobs with fair wages to young people of working age who are at risk of being trafficked.

An overview of the different kinds of interventions that ILO-IPEC has developed and how these fit into the decent work framework is available in ILO-IPEC's annual implementation report.



Resource 4.38

IPEC: *IPEC action against child labour 2006-2007: Progress and future priorities*, ILO, 2008

This volume describes the major policy and programming outputs of ILO-IPEC in 2007 and has numerous case studies taken from ILO field experience.

There is more information on decent work principles on the ILO website.

4.3.4 Demand reduction

Whenever there is a discussion about trafficking, demand is mentioned. Only in the past few years have there been real attempts to define demand and what steps must be taken to tackle it – specifically to reduce the demand factors that pull children into trafficking.

Book 1 (section 1.10) of this resource kit sets out some of the forms that demand can take – from a very clear derived demand for trafficked children’s labour from pimps, brothel owners, unscrupulous employers and those who handle children begging on the streets, to demand by customers or end users for the services of exploited children.

A study by ILO’s Mekong anti-trafficking project (TICW) defined the demand side as having six major characteristics: pressure for cheap and subservient labour; preference for sex with children or young women; weak or absent labour law enforcement; informal and unregulated forms of work; restrictive migration policies; and a lack of organization or representation of workers. TICW’s study concluded that the importance of eradicating demand lies in the fact that trafficking occurs against a background of social and cultural practices that create demand and/or tolerance of trafficking. It further recognizes that trafficking is a lucrative (high profit – low risk) business.

The study contains a range of recommendations including: challenging public indifference and discrimination; promoting corporate social responsibility; putting in place complaints mechanisms and reporting lines; and monitoring minimum labour standards including protective services like contracts and inspection schemes.

An ILO-IPEC project in Central America commissioned a study on demand relating to the commercial sexual exploitation of children that focused on the myths that underlie such demand. The study looks at clients’ views of the young women who find themselves in prostitution – misconceptions that are in fact common to many regions of the world and that allow clients to justify their behaviour on the grounds that the girls involved are earning “easy” money and are too lazy to study or do other kinds of work. It

A break-down of ‘demand’ in its various forms is crucial in order to address them effectively.

recommends a series of measures designed to improve understanding of the nature of sexual exploitation, including social mobilization and awareness raising and the setting of minimum standards for criminal codes to penalize the different conducts related to commercial sexual exploitation of children.



Resource 4.39

IPEC: *Commercial sexual exploitation and masculinity: A qualitative regional study of men from a broad spectrum of the population*, ILO, 2004

A summary in English of this publication can be downloaded at:
www.oit.or.cr/ipec/esc

The research carried out on demand by the ILO's anti-trafficking project in South Asia (TICSA) made the important point that the demand for cheap goods, lower prices, even exploitable labour cannot be presumed to be the same as a demand for trafficked people.



Resource 4.40

IPEC: *Demand side of human trafficking in Asia: Empirical findings*, ILO, 2006

The study, which looked at a broader range of exploitative labour than just prostitution, includes a statement that even if most consumers do not demand the results of trafficked labour, they are complicit to the extent that they do not really care what the background is to the price reduction they receive. With regard to employers of children in South Asia, the research showed that many of them deliberately sought out cheap, exploitable labour through social networks rather than legitimate recruitment channels, thus frequently supporting active demand for trafficked labour. The study concluded that the most important action to be taken to reduce demand in this case was the responsibility of the government, which must ensure that strict labour laws are not only in place but rigorously enforced.



Resource 4.41

ILO: *Merchants of labour*, 2006

An interesting compilation of papers covering “merchants”. Includes papers on recruitment agencies, policy and protection strategies, various aspects of labour migration, and an overview of the role of legitimate/non-legitimate recruitment agencies.

4.3.5 Supply chain interventions and codes of conduct

Even though child trafficking is most often into the informal economy where children for instance end up in domestic work or sexual exploitation, international companies can risk that child trafficking exists in increasingly complex sub-contracting arrangements in their supply chain. To prevent this from happening, it is crucial to have transparency with regard to all actors in the supply chain, and stringent monitoring by independent and well resourced agencies. Adherence to a code of ethics by all those involved in the supply chain to manufacture without subjecting children to slave-like practices is another option. For instance, companies operating in Brazil in areas that typically benefit from slave labour such as the iron, sugar and soy industries, have signed agreements to ban any form of involvement with businesswomen/men listed in the “lista suja” (the bad list). Some multinational corporations now issue annual Corporate Social Responsibility reports that are publicly accessible and hence boost transparency. A framework for meaningful engagement of multinational corporations is the *Tripartite Declaration of Principles concerning multinational enterprises and social policy* which includes a statement on multinational enterprises’ duty to take immediate and effective measures within their own competence to secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour including child trafficking as a matter of urgency. Another example is the Global Compact to support environmental and social principles, which includes a range of multi-national and other companies that have pledged to advance the principles of the Global Compact which include the effective abolition of child labour, including child trafficking.



Resource 4.42

Tripartite Declaration of Principles concerning multinational enterprises and social policy, International Labour Office, 2006.

This Declaration includes principles regarding Worst Forms of Child Labour including trafficking.



Resource 4.43

UN Global Compact: **10 Principles**

www.unglobalcompact.org/AboutTheGC/TheTenPrinciples/index.html

These principles include the Core Labour Standards enshrined in the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work.

Finally, a range of organizations in the travel and tourism industry agreed on a code for the protection of children from sexual exploitation in travel and tourism.



Resource 4.44

www.thecode.org

This includes the text of a code of conduct for the protection of children from sexual exploitation in travel and tourism.

4.4 LAW ENFORCEMENT

4.4.1 Targeting the target group – Spotting the traffickers and trafficking incidents

Although trafficking is a clandestine affair, its results often hidden away behind the closed doors of exploitative workplaces or brothels, there are times when it comes more prominently into public view. The most visible moments in trafficking are during recruitment, when a border is crossed, and sometimes at the end when children are being exploited. Recruitment is by nature a relatively open process since it often works by word-of-mouth and by person-to-person connections being made. Border crossings are relatively open to scrutiny. Transport hubs are also places where traffickers and children may be recognized – for example bus and railway stations, ferry terminals or airports. Also, exploitation by unscrupulous employers in a range of different sectors and types of work is sometimes visible to the public – for instance when children work on plantations or in agriculture, or when they are involved in organized begging. For more on “who are the traffickers” see Book 1, section 1.9.

The moments when trafficking is visible provide some opportunity for interrupting the trafficking event, although it is important to stress that such actions are the business of law enforcement authorities because of the danger they present. There is also a role, however, for NGOs, social welfare agents and others to stay alert to recruiters and traffickers, report these when they are identified and above all be ready to support the children who may be rescued if the traffickers are interrupted.

Law enforcement is the responsibility of the designated authorities, but they could benefit from reports/alerts by other agencies

What is needed is laws – including labour laws – and rigorous law enforcement against child trafficking, and its exploitative and results.

4.4.2 Improving law enforcement and ensuring punishment of traffickers

Laws are only as good as their implementation, and so law enforcement is a vital element of anti-trafficking work. Providing the means to impose dissuasive punishment on those who traffic children or help in the process is also useful to deter traffickers from operating. Such deterrence is boosted through stiff penalties, well-publicized laws and an effective and efficient law enforcement mechanism.

The role of the judiciary in bringing the full weight of the law to bear on trafficking cases is crucial, and it is therefore important that judges, prosecutors and attorneys are well versed not only in the laws that apply in child trafficking cases but also in labour laws that provide the framework in which exploitation can be identified and punished.

This should ideally be covered in advanced training courses for those entering the legal profession. However, it is also important that knowledge of labour law and of the growing battery of anti-trafficking instruments should be updated through regular briefings and training of practising law enforcement personnel. In Brazil an IPEC programme is offering training on the labour aspects of trafficking through associations of judges, prosecutors and attorneys.

The United Nations Office on Drug and Crime notes (UNODC):

Trafficking offences are difficult to prosecute. Because of the nature of the offence, the frequent need to rely on evidence collected abroad, the potential for victims and witnesses to be traumatized and intimidated or for public officials to be corrupted and the need for interpreters and translators, the prosecution of these offences offers difficult challenges to the judiciary.

Enhanced international judicial collaboration, effective collaboration with victim assistance services, and the development of stronger witness protection measures must be part of any strategy to address these challenges.

UNODC developed a toolkit on combating trafficking in persons that looks particularly into the law enforcement dimension of the response to human trafficking.

The proof of improved law enforcement is in the number of successful convictions and measure of punishment imposed on child traffickers.



Resource 4.45

Toolkit to combat trafficking in persons, UNODC, New York 2006

A compilation of texts and tools based primarily on implementation of the Palermo Protocol and with a largely law enforcement slant.

The proof of improved law enforcement is in the number of successful convictions and punishment measures imposed on child traffickers. Records on these are valuable in measuring progress.

4.4.3 Supervision of the implementation of relevant ILO Conventions

Most countries have ratified the ILO Conventions on child labour (Nos. 138 and 182) and forced labour (Nos. 29 and 105). This obligates them to bring their national legislation and enforcement mechanisms into line with the requirements of these Conventions, including with respect to combating child trafficking. Supervision of the implementation of the Conventions is based on governments' bi-annual reports submitted to the ILO. Governments are expected to consult employers' and workers' organizations when they draw up periodic reports. This consultation is mandatory where countries in question have ratified the Tripartite Consultation Convention, 1976 (No. 144). National employers' and workers' organizations, to whom governments must communicate copies of their reports, are encouraged to submit their own comments and observations on reports by governments – including on efforts to fight child trafficking – in this way helping to assess the degree of application of a Convention in practice. The government reports and comments provided by employers and workers are examined by an independent supervisory body, the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations (CEACR), which adopts comments regarding the application of a Convention by individual countries. Its report is submitted to the International Labour Conference, where it is discussed by a tripartite committee. The comments of the Committee and the discussions at the Conference are public.

Employers' and workers' organizations can make their views known to the government or may submit them directly to the ILO by a simple letter. Such submissions are important, because they allow for a fuller assessment of government

Community members are suited to spot factors that increase the vulnerability of families to trafficking and raise alarm when recruiters become active.

reports. Increasingly, employers' and workers' organizations benefit in their submissions from inputs by NGOs and academia.

4.4.4 Identifying recruitment patterns and reporting recruiters

Vigilance or community watch groups at community level are an important way of identifying trafficking. ILO-IPEC has piloted, tested and replicated the concept in a number of its country and subregional programmes to combat child trafficking. Vigilance groups are embedded in the community and harness the detailed knowledge that community members have of the people in their neighbourhood and their situations. Community members are much more likely to be aware of factors that increase the vulnerability of a family – for example a death in the family or sudden unemployment – and can raise the alarm when they become aware that there are recruiters active in their midst (or even just stories circulating of that elusive better life elsewhere).

ILO-IPEC's subregional project to combat the trafficking of children for labour exploitation in West and Central Africa (LUTRENA) supported the establishment of local vigilance committees (LVCs) that remain alert to trafficking-related events in their communities, for example in relation to the transportation or transfer of children. These multi-sectoral committees include the chief of the village, a development officer, a teacher, representatives of the women's association, youth association and parent-teacher group, a youth representative, someone from a grassroots NGO and representatives of trade unions and employers.



Resource 4.46

IPEC: *Going the distance to stop child trafficking: Local Vigilance Committees, ILO, 2007*

This document explains the concept of local vigilance committees as a grassroots watchdog to identify and track traffickers, remain alert to growing vulnerabilities among children and families, repatriate rescued children, monitor borders and keep records. It underlines steps that must be taken in implementing such a process - including: (1) sensitization of local authorities and communities; (2) agreeing on selection criteria for beneficiaries; (3) baseline/zero measurement; (4) registration of beneficiaries; (5) offering age specific services to children, along with family assistance where necessary; (6) monitoring - and drawing lessons from the experience in countries in which LVCs were formed.

These LVCs should not function in isolation but be interlinked so as to follow up on children who move elsewhere. In Cameroon the Commission of Justice and Peace (CJP) has developed a monitoring system that links migrants from the same rural community who find themselves in the same town or city and who often form socio-cultural associations. These expatriates in the city are linked to the LVC in their home community and the LVC can alert them to a child who goes missing and may have been moved to the city – making a link between the origin and destination places.

The LVCs are part of LUTRENA's broader approach to monitoring of children vulnerable to and victim of trafficking. This Child Labour Monitoring System for Children Victims of Trafficking (CLM-CT) includes vigilance, identification and interception of traffickers, referral of children to appropriate services and tracking of the children through a simple card index system so that their longer-term welfare is monitored.



Resource 4.47

IPEC: *Design of a child trafficking monitoring system*, ILO, 2007

This document summarizes the child trafficking monitoring system operated through local vigilance committees in West and Central Africa, by the LUTRENA project.

Similar monitoring schemes have been put in place in ILO-IPEC's subregional trafficking prevention initiatives in the Balkans, South-East Asia and South Asia. These have included variations on the model: for example in Nepal, the District Committees mobilized community members to monitor activities along the border with India and to report on attempts to move children across the unmanned sections of the border.

4.4.5 Rapid response teams

What do the vigilance or community watch members do when they become aware of trafficker/recruiter activity, increased vulnerability or the movement of children? They cannot just intervene themselves but need to call on the appropriate authorities to act: police, local authorities,



Rapid response teams need to:

- Know what services are available;
- Determine what service is needed;
- Offer referral to appropriate service providers;
- Ensure that services are provided (follow up);
- Keep a record.

immigration officers, social workers or others. The back-up to monitoring therefore has to be a group of different people ready to act according to the specific needs of the situation and contactable through a single contact point.

In some countries this multi-sectoral response team can be activated through a well publicized telephone hotline number. The person who takes the call has to know what services are available and has to be trained to react quickly to determine the needed service(s), provide referral and ensure that service(s) are offered, and keep a record. The telephone hotline model only works however when people regularly use the telephone as their means of communication. The key to rapid response is to base the channel for that response on a clear understanding of how people communicate information speedily – it may well be by telephone, but it could also be by sending an SMS message or an e-mail, or by getting on a bicycle and going to the local police station, or maybe running to the local temple or church and calling the monk or priest.

While hotlines are one possible reporting avenue, others should also be considered. In many communities, the local police post is an obvious first point of call. ILO-IPEC has supported child-friendly police desks at community level (in the *barangays*) in the Philippines. These desks are staffed by police officers who have received special training in child-related issues such as trafficking, exploitation, violence and other crimes. They can mobilize other services such as child-friendly lawyers, and social workers who focus on children's issues and others. Similar drop-in centres may be housed not in the police station but in the offices of a child welfare service or an NGO or, for reporting or advice on child labour/exploitation particularly, in the office of a trade union.

For monitoring purposes and improved future services it is furthermore important that all assisted cases are recorded in a data base. In the long run this will help enormously in profiling the target group and fine tuning the type of services needed.

4.5 VICTIM PROTECTION AND ASSISTANCE - RECOVERY, REHABILITATION AND REBUILDING

As mentioned in section 4.2, protection is a broad term that includes protection of children to prevent them from being trafficked or re-trafficked. Victims of child trafficking need protection from further harm, but they also need recovery, rehabilitation and rebuilding assistance. All three are covered in this section.

4.5.1 Target the target group - Victim identification


It is vitally important to speedily identify children in a trafficking situation as victims of trafficking so as to provide protection and make sure that the child's human rights are safeguarded. Identifying victims and referring them to appropriate services is the responsibility first of all of government authorities such as immigration officials, labour inspectors and police.

It is the State's responsibility to identify victims of trafficking and refer them to appropriate services.

The *Recommended Principles and Guidelines on Human Rights and Human Trafficking* issued by the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) note that failing to identify a trafficked person correctly is likely to result in further denial of that person's rights and that "States are therefore under an obligation to ensure that such identification can and does take place". The document calls on States to develop guidelines and procedures to permit the rapid and accurate identification of trafficking victims, to provide training to authorities for this purpose and to ensure cooperation between authorities and NGOs so that victims are identified and provided with support.

The Philippine Centre on Transnational Crime developed a checklist to facilitate the identification of victims of trafficking. It is included in the UNODC toolkit on trafficking (see pages 106-107 of Resource 4.45 above). It includes 11 questions designed to find out more about the person who may be a trafficking victim and 11 questions to help identify the accompanying person as a trafficker. This is a useful starting point on which to base identification procedures and training, although it could be further developed, especially in relation to children. The UNODC toolkit suggests that local NGOs should be present when potential victims are questioned, or that they be trained to do the interviewing. This would potentially reduce the possibility of a child victim being intimidated or frightened by the presence of law enforcement personnel.

UNODC has developed a number of other tools that are important assets in helping those working with trafficked children – especially law enforcement and judiciary and state authorities establishing policies and processes in this area – to apply the United Nations Declaration of Basic Principles of Justice for Victims of Crime and Abuse of Power.

 Resource 4.48

The UNODC website: www.unodc.org includes a number of tools to work with trafficked children.

4.5.2 Assessment of needs and appropriate response

When children are removed from a trafficking situation or when they return by themselves or, occasionally, are sent back by traffickers because they are no longer “useful”, that is far from the end of the trafficking event.

Children who have been trafficked need special support to help them to recover their lives or build new ones. They may or may not be traumatized by their experience and a prompt assessment of their psychological and physical health, as well as their material and family situation, is vital so that the appropriate steps can be taken to help them.

Article 39 of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child specifically states that: “States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to promote physical and psychological recovery and social reintegration of child victims”. Throughout the process of assessment and in all dealings with children who have been trafficked, it is important never to lose sight of the children’s rights and their needs. Their best interests should be paramount in all actions, even when one is anxious to pursue a trafficker or get information.

UNICEF has developed a tested set of guidelines on the protection of child victims of trafficking that provide a comprehensive but succinct guide to appropriate responses.

➔ Resource 4.49
UNICEF: *Guidelines on the protection of child victims of trafficking*, 2006

The guidelines underline the child’s right to non-discrimination, to express her/his views, to receive appropriate information, to confidentiality, and to be protected. They also cover in detail important principles such as the importance of presuming, if a child has no documentation to prove her/his age, that s/he is under 18 and therefore a child under international law. Where states proceed to try and verify the child’s age in the absence of official documents, this must be done in a way that causes

The best interest of the child must prevail in all actions to assist victims of child trafficking.

No “one size fits all”; each child is different and has different experiences and needs tailor-made assistance.

Trafficked children should never be pursued as offenders but as victims of a crime. They should be protected by the State.

no harm to the child. Where possible, the child should be helped to return to and live with her/his family in the first instance, and that the family may need support to allow this to be successful. If that is not possible, the guidelines recommend the appointment of a guardian to accompany the child through the first steps of recovery and up to the age of majority (or until the child leaves the jurisdiction of the state if s/he is relocated). There are other guidelines on appropriate ways to interview the child, regularizing the child’s status, and providing interim care and support.

Safe accommodation, of course, is an important element of providing stability and comfort to the child and must also take into account any possibility of the trafficker(s) or exploiter(s) attempting to reach the child. The guidelines outline the need to find a “durable solution” which will ensure the child’s medium- to long-term safety and ability to survive.

The importance of taking an individual approach to each child is also stressed. Each child is different and each child’s trafficking experience is different, so a custom-made response for each child is needed. This can be done through individual assessment of each case so that decisions in the best interest of each child can be made. These can then be followed through by tracking the child’s progress in a confidential case management system.

4.5.3 No double victimization

Importantly, legislation as well as processes and structures often fail to take into account the fact that children who have been trafficked, regardless of their status and circumstances, are victims of crime and not criminals. International instruments stipulate that no matter how children (and adults) got into a situation of trafficking, they should not be pursued as criminals, illegal migrants or undocumented workers, and their status as victims must be recognized in national laws and in all procedures relating to trafficking.

Children need support services that are tailored to their needs as victims and as children. This applies to support in possible judicial proceedings as well as the support they need either to stay in the destination place or return to their place of origin.

Child victims of trafficking should not have to testify against their traffickers as a condition to remain in their host country.

The UNODC trafficking toolkit contains guidelines relating to victims of trafficking but specific to the actions of law enforcement officers (See Resource 4.45, pages 87-88). These emphasize the humanitarian and legal duty of officers to treat the victims of trafficking in accordance with their fundamental human rights. The guidelines focus particularly on the process of investigation and how the victim must be treated.

Child-friendly police desks with trained police officers who are sensitive to children's rights and needs are a further element of response to exploitation and to risk situations. These officers should know and understand what these children have gone through, what their needs are and the rights that are guaranteed to them by law. The same is true of all those in the judicial system – lawyers, judges, court officials – who come into contact with the children and will be instrumental not only in securing justice for them, but also in aiding their rehabilitation through fair treatment and respect for their rights. To this end, the training and support of child-friendly lawyers and court officers – possibly through their respective unions/associations - is recommended.

A further victim-centred element that is regularly called for but often neglected is the non-conditionality of victim support. In practice as well as in legislation, most countries across the regions still allow trafficking victims to remain in the country only on condition that they testify against their traffickers. This is a difficult request for many trafficking victims who have been regularly threatened with reprisals against their families if they testify and who fear confronting their traffickers in court. At the same time, trafficked children and adults may fear returning to their homes, especially if they have been exploited in commercial sex work and face rejection from their families and communities. A European Directive issued on this subject in 2004 specifically called for trafficking victims who received a temporary residence permit to also be allowed access to the labour market so that they might be able to earn a living.



Resource 4.50

EU Directive on residence permits, *Official Journal of the European Union*, Council Directive 2004/81/EC, 2004

Key elements of psychosocial counselling include the following:

- No re-victimization
- No further punishment
- Safety & security
- No detention!
- Temporary or permanent residence
- Rebuild trust to overcome trauma
- Best interest of child
- Individual approach based on needs - seek views
- Right to privacy & confidentiality
- Life skills, empowerment & education/ training
- Promote social (re)integration
- Care providers should be trained and experienced

4.5.4 Psychosocial counselling and support measures

ILO-IPEC has piloted a number of methodologies relevant to supporting children who have experienced child trafficking and has developed several useful resources. The TICSAs project developed and piloted a handbook on psychosocial counselling and treatment for trafficked children that aimed to train local therapists to assess and provide the short- and medium-term psychosocial support that children may need. This methodology was subsequently tested in other regions where ILO-IPEC runs trafficking and victim support programmes and a lessons-learned exercise on the training methodology and implementation was written up as a resource for others.



Resource 4.51

Rehabilitation of the victims of child trafficking: A multidisciplinary approach, ILO-IPEC, Bangkok 2006

The 20-year experience of ILO-IPEC's partner in Thailand, the Centre for the Protection of Child Rights (CPCR), is explored and lessons shared in this volume.

A number of other important resources were produced. These comprise child-friendly standards and guidelines for the recovery and integration of trafficked children and lessons from IPEC partners' experiences in taking a multidisciplinary approach to rehabilitation.



Resource 4.52

Good practices in Asia: Prevention and rehabilitation, ILO-IPEC, Bangkok 2006

Pages 34-38 of this publication contain lessons-learned from TICSAs' experience in psychosocial counselling of trafficked children, based on work in South Asia and South-East Asia.



Resource 4.53

Child-friendly standards and guidelines for the recovery and integration of trafficked children, ILO-IPEC, Bangkok 2006

This comprehensive volume summarizes the experiences of the subregional trafficking project in South Asia and translates them into standard-setting tools.

Key elements of psychosocial counselling include the following:

- No re-victimization – No further punishment
- Safety and security
- No detention!
- Temporary or permanent residence
- Rebuild trust to overcome trauma
- Best interest of child
- Individual approach based on needs – seek views
- Right to privacy and confidentiality
- Life skills, empowerment and education/ training
- Promote social (re)integration
- Care providers should be trained and experienced

4.5.5 Permanent or temporary residence status

Central to a child's ability to building a stable and safer future is certainty of her/his residence status. Children who have been trafficked into a different jurisdiction – within their own country or across a national border – must “belong” somewhere and, if they cannot return home in safety and security, should receive support in settling into the country/city to which they have been trafficked if they wish to do so. This should include full entitlements to an education, training, social welfare support and, at the right time, access to the labour market. Similar services should be offered to children that return home.

4.5.6 Return and reintegration

Where possible, and in the best interest of the child, children should return to their country or community of origin. But return to the place of origin is not always the best solution for the victim. The International Organization for Migration has developed a guide on direct assistance to victims of trafficking. It covers security and personal safety, screening of victims of trafficking, referral and reintegration assistance, shelter guidelines, health care, and cooperation with law enforcement agencies.



Resource 4.54

IOM: *The IOM handbook on direct assistance for victims of trafficking*, 2007

Also downloadable at: www.iom.int

4.5.7 Life skills and (re)training/education

Children who have been trafficked have inevitably missed out on schooling and may be ill prepared to enter/re-enter education or may be at an age where they need to begin acquiring skills so that they can find decent work. The child's educational needs should be assessed and appropriate action should be taken to begin to equip the child to build a safer, sustainable future. This may include transitional classes to re-enter school, non formal education or special arrangements in lieu of formal schooling and/or vocational training. See section 4.2.5 for more on education.

4.5.8 Promotion of social integration through campaigns

The public at the destination place (or place of origin in case victims of child trafficking return home) may well misunderstand the status of a trafficking victim and may, for various reasons, fear that children trafficked to their town or country have committed an illegal act or are a threat to their jobs or security. Carefully targeted and conceived information campaigns, including through links with the mass media, can be an important step in helping to break down public fear and antipathy towards trafficking victims so that those who have already suffered are not re-victimized by being rejected by the community in which they find themselves.

4.5.9 Shelters and refuges for rescued children

Many child victims of trafficking need temporary or even medium-term accommodation. This might be because they are going to testify against their trafficker(s) and so need safe accommodation. It might be because they need to be close to counselling and trauma services, or because they have some other health need. It may simply be because they have nowhere else to go. Finding safe accommodation for trafficked children is crucially important but also a real challenge. It often requires costly infrastructure, but also related expenses for food, clothing and necessary services like education and recreation, health checks and treatment, and the staff to run all this.

A review of victim support services in Europe in 2005 by the Council of Europe found that safe accommodation was an unmet challenge for most governments in Europe and Central Asia because of the cost and because of an approach to victim support that focused on “moving the children on” as early as possible. In some European countries, private accommodation services have taken over the job of providing refuge to trafficked adolescents (paid either by the government through social payments or by the adolescent if s/he is of working age and can find employment). In most parts of the world, though, refuge is still generally provided in shelters and half-way houses that are in many cases under-resourced.

In Bangladesh, ILO-IPEC focused on supporting the Bangladesh Women’s Lawyers’ Association to put in place individual case management systems for the Association’s shelter in Dhaka. This substantially improved tracking of the children who arrived in the centre, allowing staff to follow up and check on their progress even after they had left the shelter.

4.5.10 Economic integration of rescued children

It is important to remember that the child will also need help to rebuild her or his material life. Rescued children are at extreme risk of being re-victimized if the risk factors that created vulnerability to trafficking – such as poverty, socio-economic distress, lack of family employment options - are not addressed.

Therefore, consideration should be given to how the rescued child, on a child-by-child basis, will be able to fulfil her/his basic needs on an ongoing basis - food, for example, and adequate and appropriate clothing - not just during the immediate recovery phase.

Depending on the child’s age, s/he may be able to begin work or an apprenticeship that provides basic needs and a small stipend. This means that suitable employment will have to be found. The sections on youth employment (4.2.3) and job counselling and placement (4.2.4) can be applied to child victims of trafficking who are of working age and whose trauma has been addressed. It is important though, given the child’s traumatic experiences, to monitor her/him on an ongoing basis until follow-up is no longer

Without addressing the risk factors that led to vulnerability to trafficking, children may be re-trafficked.

necessary. It will be important not only to monitor the child's working conditions but also the financial relationship between the child and her/his family or carers, so that the income is not diverted to other family uses, leaving the child without the means to survive and thus at risk of re-trafficking.

Where a child cannot earn an income, the situation of the family or care provider should be assessed and the economic needs of the family as a unit should be taken into account in devising a plan that reinforces the family's financial status.

RESOURCES REFERRED TO IN BOOK 4

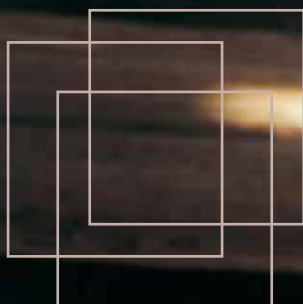
Protection of children to prevent them from being trafficked	
Resource 4.1	IPEC: <i>Action against trafficking and sexual exploitation of children: Going where the children are</i> (Geneva, ILO, 2001)
Resource 4.2	IPEC: <i>Micro-finance interventions to combat the worst forms of child labour including trafficking (TIA-3)</i> , (TICW), (Bangkok, ILO, 2002)
Resource 4.3	IPEC: <i>Summary of Micro-finance interventions to combat the worst forms of child labour, including trafficking</i> , TIA-3 (Bangkok, ILO, 2002)
Resource 4.4	IPEC: <i>Guidelines on the use of microfinance in IPEC support for the elimination of child labour</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2006)
Resource 4.5	IPEC: <i>Business enterprise can be any size: Micro-finance services and business development to combat trafficking (SELL-10)</i> , (TICW), (Bangkok, ILO, 2002)
Resource 4.6	IPEC, <i>Summary note of Non-formal education and rural skills training: Tools to combat the worst forms of child labour, including trafficking</i> , (Bangkok, ILO, 2002)
Resource 4.7	IPEC: <i>Start with what you have and where you are: Skills training for self-employment (SELL-9)</i> , (TICW) (Bangkok, ILO, 2002)
Resource 4.8	ILO: <i>Global employment trends for youth</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2006)
Resource 4.9	IPEC: <i>Careers Guidance: A Manual for IPEC Partners Working with Children aged 14-17 years</i> (Geneva, ILO, 2007)
Resource 4.10	IPEC: <i>Combating child labour through education</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2007)
Resource 4.11	IPEC: <i>Reaching the Unreached – Our Common Challenge – the Global Task Force on Child Labour and Education for All</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2007)
Resource 4.12	IPEC: <i>Formal and Non-Formal Education to Combat Child Labour</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2008)
Resource 4.13	Haan, H C: <i>Non-formal education and rural skills training: Tools to combat the worst forms of child labour including trafficking</i> , TICW project (Bangkok, ILO, 2002)
Resource 4.14	IPEC: <i>Education as an intervention strategy to eliminate and prevent child labour: Consolidated good practices</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2007)
Resource 4.15	IPEC: <i>The medium is the message in awareness raising (SELL-11)</i> , (TICW), (Bangkok, ILO, 2002)
Resource 4.16	IPEC: <i>Aware and prepared (10-15)</i> (Beijing, ILO, 2006)
Resource 4.17	IPEC: <i>Aware and prepared (16-24)</i> (Beijing, ILO, 2006)
Resource 4.18	<i>Europe against violence: Messages and materials from Daphne</i> , European Commission, Brussels 2002: www.europa.eu/justice_home/funding/2004-2007/daphne/project_daphne_en.htm

Resource 4.19	IPEC: <i>Building change through communication</i> , (Synthesis of a TICW paper by Adam Burke, for CP-TING) (Beijing, ILO, 2006)
Resource 4.20	Link to SCREAM: www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipecc/scream/on_the_web
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Resource 4.54	IOM, <i>The IOM handbook on direct assistance for victims of trafficking</i> , Geneva, 2007 Downloadable from: www.iom.int



International
Labour
Office



Combating trafficking in children for labour exploitation

A resource kit for policy-makers and practitioners

Book 5

Matters of process

International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour

Combating trafficking in children for labour exploitation

A resource kit for policy-makers and practitioners

Book 5: Matters of process

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

COMMIT	Coordinated Mekong Ministerial Initiative against Trafficking
CP-TING	Project to Prevent Trafficking in Girls and Young Women for Labour Exploitation Within China
EC	European Commission
ECPAT	Organization to End Child Prostitution, Child Pornography And the Trafficking of children for sexual purposes
ILO	International Labour Organization
IPEC	International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (ILO)
NAP	National Action Plan
NGO	Non-governmental organization
RWG-CL	Regional Working Group on Child Labour (in Asia)
SELL	Sharing Experiences and Lessons Learned (publication series from ILO-IPEC's TICW project)
TIA	Technical Intervention Area (publication series from TICW)
TICW	ILO-IPEC Mekong Subregional Project to Combat Trafficking in Children and Women
UN	United Nations
UNSGSVAC	United Nations Secretary-General's Study on Violence against Children
US	United States of America

Contents of Book 5

Book 5 is designed as an overview of the processes and support actions that are important components of successful programming to combat child trafficking. It places particular emphasis on child participation, training, monitoring and evaluation, and of drawing lessons that can be used to improve policy and outreach assistance.

This book includes lessons and resources from a range of ILO-IPEC programmes that have tested various processes and documented the outcomes. Many of these pilot processes have subsequently been transferred to other IPEC country or subregional programmes and have been tested in new contexts and conditions.

Target Audience

This book is aimed at those implementing anti-trafficking actions (trade unions and other workers' organizations, employers' organizations, government authorities, agency field staff, NGOs, youth and other groups). It may also be of interest to those dealing with monitoring, including policy makers and strategists, and monitoring and evaluation personnel.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

One of the most important lessons we have learned since the early 1990s is that it is not only what you do that is important to achieving positive results for children, but also how you do it. Engagement of communities, children at risk and former victims of child trafficking in actions to fight trafficking is crucial in the development of effective responses. Empowerment of these communities and children makes them better prepared to face future challenges.

In addition to actions that have a direct impact on children, there are also processes and actions that influence the context in which initiatives take place, as well as the likelihood that they will succeed. These processes and supplementary actions do not focus on targeting the children with offers of assistance but focus on different groups and entities that are part – or should be part – of efforts to eliminate child trafficking. These groups include government at all levels, implementing agencies such as trade unions and NGOs, children and young people and communities in which child trafficking occurs or could occur.

Another category of processes focuses on getting more value out of the experiences we acquire in work to combat child trafficking. These relate to making sure that the initiatives are properly managed and evaluated so we understand how they have worked, drawing lessons from that experience, sharing the results and using them to contribute to more success in the future.

5.2 ENSURING OWNERSHIP AND CONTINUED MOBILIZATION

Unless governments and societies take ownership of the problem of child trafficking, it will be very hard to eradicate it. If families, communities, governments and children and young people themselves are to buy into policies and programmes to combat child trafficking, then they have to be involved whenever that is realistically possible – not just as interested observers but as important contributors to the

To be effective in fighting child trafficking it is not only what is done that matters, but also how it is done.

Children, families, communities, and governments have to take ownership of the problem of child trafficking and policies to address it, if the problem is to be eradicated effectively.

action. This should begin in the planning stages and continue to the final stages when policies and programmes are being evaluated, lessons are being learned and future plans are put in place.

As initiatives are being designed, government representatives, community members, and trade union, employer, NGO and youth representatives are brought together in a number of different ways.

They are often involved in the baseline research on which some important decisions will be based. They might be consulted on the range of options available for the problem that is to be addressed and on the priorities that should be addressed first, whether these relate to policy, legislation, other frameworks, projects to be undertaken or preparatory/supporting steps such as training.

As the direction to be taken becomes clear and the specific initiatives are drawn up, partners can be involved in setting objectives and indicators of measurement that will be used to check progress and evaluate results.



Resource 5.1 (on CD-ROM)

IPEC: *Participatory project design to combat trafficking in children and women*, ILO, 2002

This note explains a participatory planning technique, in which all parties involved identify and analyse the problems to be addressed and prepare a concrete and realistic project plan together. The methodology brings together representatives of all project stakeholders and can be particularly effective in a community setting.

One of the limitations to participatory planning may be that the partners leave the process believing that plans will go ahead as they have discussed but that, in fact, there is another important stage to be gone through before any initiative takes its final shape: getting the buy-in of the government authorities and resource decision makers concerned.

This may require specific efforts after the preliminary planning has started. Increasingly, the work of ILO-IPEC centres on working with governments to build their ownership of work against child trafficking and assist them in developing national policies and initiatives anchored in

international agreements and processes. Indeed, international agencies such as the ILO are uniquely placed to foster effective links between international frameworks, national interpretations of those frameworks and national priorities, and grassroots actions and lessons learned.

5.3 PARTICIPATION OF CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE

For a long time, child participation was an unmet challenge. It was too often the case that inviting children to a meeting, recording their voices and then posting their comments on a website or publishing them in a book was somehow considered equivalent to actually involving them in processes.

While these actions did, at least, raise awareness of the fact that children should be looked upon as subjects of anti-trafficking actions as well as objects of them, they did not tap the full potential of children as key players and indeed leaders in these actions. To some extent this may be because the international definition of a “child” includes anyone under the age of 18 and for a long time “children” were looked upon as a single group whereas the role that a 17 year-old can play in anti-trafficking actions is very different to that of a 10 year-old.

An important lesson learned in relation to child participation – as well as other areas of work – in recent years is that it is important to make clear distinctions among the needs, problems, responses and capacities of children in different age groups. As understanding of this was developed, it also became clear that the cut-off age of 18 is in some ways artificial when we are talking about input to anti-trafficking activities. In some instances, young people above the age of 18 may be involved as “proxies” for those under 18 who are difficult to reach – for example a 20 year-old who was trafficked as a child can provide valuable insights into trafficking and its impacts. Young people (i.e. those aged 18-25) offer tremendous resources of energy, understanding and information to fight child trafficking.

In recent years, therefore, there have been more and more examples of children and young people becoming involved



in planning and running projects in child protection, undertaking research, being involved in peer counselling and data collection programmes and producing materials aimed at others in their age groups. One area, for example, where children and young people have increasingly become involved as principal players is in a range of peer mentoring and consulting processes. There is no doubt that communication between/among peers is often more constructive than adult/child communication, especially where the child may have sensitive issues to deal with.



Resource 5.2

IPEC: “Peer mentoring in Bulgaria”, *extract from Steps to the elimination of child labour in Central and Eastern Europe: Emerging good practices*, ILO, 2007

This excerpt outlines the experience of a pilot peer mentoring project in Bulgaria. It includes a description of the initiative and a note on why it was selected as an example of good practice.

Participation of children in actions to fight trafficking is an important protection mechanism: It offers learning opportunities to children and reinforces their understanding and self-awareness.

Additionally, it is important to remember that supporting the participation of children and young people in anti-trafficking initiatives at many levels is also in itself an empowering action. For everyone involved, participation provides a learning opportunity and therefore a reinforcement of understanding and self-awareness. This is an important protection factor for children in particular.

An initiative by an ILO-IPEC partner in Funan County in Central China, for example, involved adolescent girls working as volunteers in researching the situation of out-of-school girls in the 10-15 age group. The research covered why girls drop out of school, what they do after leaving school, and their perceptions of migration to the city. With the All China Women's Federation, the adolescent researchers then analysed the results of the research and suggested possible solutions to the problem.



Resource 5.3

IPEC: *Putting children first: Child participation guidelines for projects to prevent trafficking in China*, ILO, 2006

This guide by the CP-TING project offers a theoretical framework on child participation, along with a set of principles and a practical translation of these principles into guidelines under the three project objectives of mobilization, outreach/direct assistance, and policy. It includes four chapters covering the context in which child participation should be considered; a framework for child participation and working in the best interests of children; a set of principles for child participation, including ethical issues; and application of the principles of child participation into practical guidelines. The Annexes include examples of “ice-breaker” activities that can be used to build rapport with children before engaging them in activities.

In Sri Lanka, World Vision has also worked on integrating children into project development and implementation. The organization has developed specific protection guidelines to safeguard children while they are involved, for example by maintaining privacy of information provided. World Vision has also worked with other NGOs to support children in making their views heard at government level. They have done this by using the opportunity of key international and regional events – such as the UN Special Session on Children in 2002 – and supporting children's meetings, links with the media and development of

advocacy documents to present to government ministers. World Vision has also worked with children to develop their unique potential to influence their own families and communities by establishing or strengthening children's associations and working through schools.

In February 2004, ILO-IPEC's TICW subregional trafficking project joined forces with Save the Children UK in the Mekong region to support children's efforts to make their voices heard. The occasion was the crucial discussions that eventually led to the Coordinated Mekong Ministerial Initiative against Trafficking (or COMMIT), an important commitment by governments to work to end cross-border trafficking in the Mekong subregion. While key adult players were debating and negotiating this crucial agreement, children across the region were represented via a parallel process that mobilized hundreds of children and culminated in their views being put forward at the final meeting.



Resource 5.4

IPEC, TICW: *First-hand knowledge: Voices across the Mekong - A good practices publication*, ILO, 2005

This TICW publication outlines the processes followed in engaging children in the COMMIT-related process. The tools developed for supporting children around the COMMIT process, through the Mekong Children's Forum, can be downloaded from: www.childtrafficking.net

The process for children began in early 2004 with a series of national and provincial children's forums across the region at which children and young people debated trafficking and shared their knowledge and views. Participants were able to discuss their recommendations with government officials and media coverage broadened their audience. From each of these meetings, five delegates were chosen to attend a subregional children's forum in Bangkok. Along with a number of children who had been trafficked, they developed recommendations that were officially handed to the ministers and UN officials working on the COMMIT. For this process to run smoothly, ILO-IPEC, Save the Children and other organizations involved, developed a series of tools to use to ensure that the children's rights – including to protection, to privacy,

and to express their views on matters concerning them – were respected at all times. The tools include sections on creating an enabling environment, seeking informed consent, selecting participants, providing information to children, duty of care, and external communications. It includes sample forms for parental consent for younger children, a model letter for chaperones and a suggested code of conduct for chaperones/interpreters.

Other tools have been developed to help those who wish to include children as full participants in efforts to combat child trafficking.



Resource 5.5

RWG-CL: *Learning to work together: A handbook for managers on facilitating children's participation in action to address child labour*, 2003

The handbook targets programme managers and comprises four chapters. The first provides answers to some basic questions about children's participation, including human and children's rights in international law. The following two chapters examine how children's participation can fit into a programme or project cycle, as well as some specific issues in participatory child labour programming. In the last chapter, the handbook discusses the question of how to create environments that will help participation of children, from adult-initiated activities and programmes to programmes initiated by children. Each chapter is summed up in a list of "Learning Points" followed by questions to aid reflection.



Resource 5.6

UNSGSVAC: *Children's participation: Working document for the East Asia/Pacific regional consultation*, 2005

This document was developed during preparations for the East Asia/Pacific regional consultation for the UN Secretary-General's Study on Violence against Children. The *Minimum Standards for Children's Participation* consists of 27 statements describing the minimum expectations of how adults should behave and operate in consultations with children. Based on analysis from previous experiences, it was felt that the time was right to produce standards rather than guidelines. These standards therefore became a statement on the level of practice acceptable to the Regional Steering Committee that would ensure meaningful children's participation.



5.4 TRAINING AND EMPOWERMENT

Whether they are children, young people or adults working with a government agency, trade union or NGO, all those working to combat child trafficking can benefit from the opportunity to upgrade their skills from time to time, develop new skills and be put in a learning environment where they can test their knowledge and understanding. The network End Child Prostitution, Child Pornography And the Trafficking of children for sexual purposes (ECPAT International), has prepared a training manual on child trafficking for sexual exploitation that its staff and affiliates can use with their various stakeholders to build a common platform of understanding and skills.



Resource 5.7

Combating trafficking in children for sexual purposes,
ECPAT Law Enforcement Group in cooperation with ECPAT
International, 2006

This manual was devised by the ECPAT Europe Law Enforcement Group. The resources in the manual are for the use of trainers who are seeking to train multi-stakeholder groups who want to learn about the issue of child trafficking, how to protect children from being trafficked for sexual purposes, and give appropriate protection and assistance to those children who come within their sphere of professional responsibility. The target audience is mainly policemen and women, social workers, and state agency employees concerned with child protection. Although the manual does not always distinguish between child victims who have been trafficked for sexual purposes, and those who have been trafficked for other purposes, its main focus is on the trafficking of children for sexual purposes. The manual provides information, techniques and tools to make training effective.

ILO-IPEC's child trafficking project in China (CP-TING) chose to focus on participatory training, in which the learners are also active contributors to the training, and produced a trainers' manual for this purpose.



Resource 5.8

IPEC: *Training of trainers: Guide to preparing a participatory training programme*, (CP-TING) ILO, 2006

Though designed with trafficking prevention in mind, these participatory training guidelines can be applied to training in almost any context. It covers the role of the trainer/facilitator in participatory training; what makes a successful trainer; training objectives and content; checking the participant's profile; understanding group dynamics; time management and preparation of training materials. The guide also includes ideas on training session content and organization.

It is important to keep in mind, too, that people move – from job to job within an organization or from one organization to another or to a different place. This is particularly the case for national and local authority staff, who may move between divisions or through localities as a matter of career development. Staff turnover can seriously undermine anti-child trafficking actions if this is not taken into account. The best way to make sure a change in staff does not hold back success is to give new staff (or volunteers) the chance to go through a capacity building exercise. Also, trainees should share acquired knowledge and skills with their colleagues after training.

There are different approaches to capacity building/training but there are some important principles to keep in mind. ILO-IPEC has put together a checklist of things to consider when planning capacity building actions as follows:



Resource 5.9

IPEC: *Building the know-how (Capacity building)*, ILO, 2002

This document outlines some examples of capacity-building initiatives in the first phase of the TICW project and includes case studies and lessons learned.

Training some staff and volunteers to be trainers is a good way of mainstreaming training and ensuring that the learning is passed on to others and is repeated. Training of

Considerations for capacity building:

- Make training available to the right people – those who will be able to “make change happen” after the training in and through their organization or arm of government
- Analyse particular training needs of the groups concerned. This is a prerequisite for training to be well targeted
- Understand the level of knowledge, experience and understanding of the potential trainees in order to “pitch” training at the right level
- Use existing tools and resources rather than trying to start from scratch
- Make sure that there is an opportunity for field visits before the training so that those attending have a good idea of the situation “on the ground”
- Make sure language is not an obstacle – for example by excluding those who do not speak English, when an interpreter could be used to help them

trainers is an important element in moving towards sustainability and mainstreaming of activities, because it moves the responsibility for training out of one’s organization into the groups that are going to keep the action going once a particular project has ended. This might be a group of women in the community, for example, or a government department or a group of young people who train other young people, or a children’s club.

If one is going to mainstream training, then it is advisable also to look at ways to check up on the trained trainers from time to time, to see if they are facing any problems or have questions, and to pass on any new ideas or information to them. IPEC has a checklist of essential elements to consider when organizing training of trainers.

These include the following:

- Make training available to the right people – those who will be able to “make change happen” after the training in and through their organization or arm of government;
- Analyse particular training needs of the groups concerned. This is a prerequisite for training to be well targeted;
- Understand the level of knowledge, experience and understanding of the potential trainees in order to “pitch” training at the right level;
- Use existing tools and resources rather than trying to start from scratch;
- Make sure that there is an opportunity for field visits before the training so that those attending have a good idea of the situation “on the ground”;
- Make sure language is not an obstacle – for example by excluding those who do not speak English, when an interpreter could be used to help them.



Resource 5.10

IPEC: *Guidelines for training of trainers*, ILO, 2002

This document includes a planning/preparation checklist for facilitators and an overview of good techniques/practices. It includes suggestions on the attitude/behaviour of the facilitator.

5.5 MONITORING AND EVALUATION PROCESSES AND SYSTEMS

Monitoring and evaluation (M & E) are essential elements of all actions to address child trafficking at all levels. They are crucial to ensuring that actions stay on track and achieve the desired results. They are also important in the longer-term development of anti-child trafficking initiatives, since they allow examples of good practice to be identified and be replicated by others.

Monitoring should take place during project implementation and can take several different forms. It can involve independent monitoring by institutions mandated to do so, monitoring by those implementing the project or activity, monitoring by the participants in the project or by those the project is intended to help, or a combination of any of these. The principal aim of monitoring is to measure whether the action is progressing according to expectations, but it also provides an opportunity to stand back and review whether there need to be changes in the planned action, or whether any lessons are beginning to emerge. At the very beginning of the action, all those involved should sit down and decide when the “monitoring points” will be, what they will check (i.e. which indicators) and how the results of monitoring will be documented and fed back into the planned action. Government departments and funding agencies supporting anti-child trafficking action often have their own monitoring criteria but, where they do not, it is important for donors to keep in touch with progress of initiatives through regular reporting.

Evaluation is undertaken at specific points in time, including when an intervention has been completed. It can be carried out by the organization itself as an internal evaluation or by independent evaluators. While it is easy to evaluate or measure whether the action has gone according to plan (i.e. were deadlines met? did actions proceed according to the budget? were all the expected results delivered?), it is very difficult to measure impact or broader outcomes – that is, whether the action and the results produced actually led to other outcomes and eventually made a difference to the problem of child trafficking and the children who are at risk of it (impact assessment and evaluation).

Monitoring is a crucial part of any initiative to fight child trafficking. Monitoring plans need to be agreed upon before interventions start. They need to include indicators that measure the level of success in fighting child trafficking.

Monitoring and evaluation should be undertaken to assess progress and results of both targeted interventions (outreach initiatives/direct assistance) and those of an enabling nature such as the development of new policy and legislation to fight child trafficking.

Monitoring and evaluation can take place at local, regional and national levels as well as across different ministries and departments.

Indicators are a key element in assessing progress and measuring impact of anti child trafficking initiatives. In the following sections a range of possible indicators are listed for initiatives at an outreach level and those at the level of policy.

5.5.1 Assessment of impact of outreach initiatives/direct assistance

IPEC has piloted the use of tracer studies to measure the impact of anti-trafficking interventions on children and their families and has produced a manual for field partners. Tracer studies aim to learn about the changes experienced by children and families who have been exposed to an anti-trafficking intervention. By concentrating on what the former beneficiaries are doing in the present, as well as retroactively in two other distinct moments in the past, a tracer study attempts to obtain an overview of the main changes (impacts) for this group over time. It also allows an estimation of the impact that the event (in this case involvement with an anti-trafficking intervention) has had on the present life of the individuals and, in an aggregate way, on the group exposed to the anti-trafficking action.



Resource 5.11

IPEC: *Tracer study methodology manual*, ILO, 2008

This manual is intended for organizations that have implemented anti-trafficking interventions and are interested in tracing former child beneficiaries and their families in order to learn and document the changes that have taken place in their lives. The information generated by a tracer study can help assess the effectiveness of anti-trafficking interventions and improve the design of future interventions. The manual is intended to be largely self-instructional. It offers guidance, and outlines the steps for carrying out a tracer study. As no two interventions or study sites are the same, it also offers alternatives so that study teams can adapt it to their circumstances.

Another method that is often used to attempt to measure impact is to use “proxy indicators” to evaluate whether an action has been successful. These allow us to see that some progress has been made but do not permit us to conclude that we have had an impact on the problem overall. In general, having a range of indicators and a selection of different evaluation methods (quantitative and qualitative) allows us to build up a picture of the effectiveness of actions.

IPEC has wide experience in involving communities and children in monitoring and evaluation. This is a way of empowering them because they are directly involved in seeing what works and what does not and in expressing views about the actions that affect them.

A number of IPEC's anti-child trafficking projects have produced resources on participatory monitoring and evaluation. These include suggestions for indicators, notes on ethical issues and a range of participatory tools to communicate and gather data. These can be customized to individual projects.



Resource 5.12

IPEC: *Monitoring plan - safe migration, 2007*

This is a guide to monitoring used in ILO-IPEC's CP-TING project. It offers three sets of monitoring tools (i.e. a zero and end measurement tool to measure capacity over time, a beneficiary card to monitor individual children, and participatory monitoring tools that seek opinions of affected children on what works and what can be improved). In addition to being a management tool, the monitoring process also offers an opportunity to engage and empower stakeholders.



Resource 5.13

IPEC: *Tools for prevention - Participatory monitoring: Guidelines for practitioners in the fight against human trafficking, ILO 2002*

These guidelines were designed to monitor the progress of the TICW project toward its objectives and capture the dynamics of trafficking in the targeted sites while allowing for the development of a continuous learning cycle and identification of emerging good practices. The guidelines consist of three parts including a theoretical framework for participatory monitoring, a kit with eight different tools to be used to collect data as well as annexes with tips on how to run training workshops and analyze baseline data.

Some common indicators used to monitor progress in outreach/direct assistance initiatives relate to:

- number of children at risk of trafficking/victims who are (back) in school;
- number of children at risk of trafficking/victims (of minimum working age) who have decent jobs;
- number of children at risk of trafficking/victims who have been empowered with self protection skills and are aware of risks of trafficking;
- number of children at risk of trafficking/victims who registered and have access to basic government services;
- number of parents (whose children are at risk of trafficking/victims) who obtained skills training and livelihood assistance and who send their children to school.

5.5.2 Assessment of impact of policy initiatives

Assessing the impact of broad based actions such as the development of new policy and legislation and the mainstreaming of child trafficking into broader government policies on child protection, education, labour, employment and migration is crucial but not easy. Policy initiatives can take place at various levels (i.e. local, regional and national levels) and may have a longer term impact that only becomes clear over time. In addition to measuring the extent to which children benefit from policy initiatives (i.e. are less at risk of trafficking as a result of policy initiatives), one may monitor and evaluate progress in policy initiatives in the intermediate term by reviewing the following indicators:

- allocation to anti-child trafficking interventions in local, regional or national budgets;
- frequency of inter-ministerial meetings on the issue and the level of participation from different departments;
- staff resources allocated to anti-child trafficking work, particularly in the form of dedicated personnel such as focal points;

- number of policy areas such as education, labour, employment and migration that refer to child trafficking;
- number of job descriptions of government officials that mention child trafficking;
- number of government staff trainings that include child trafficking;
- number of convicted child traffickers who were punished;
- number of ministerial speeches or written outputs that mention child trafficking;
- number of children in need that are budgeted for and/or assisted.

Some of these same indicators are also relevant to the assessment of anti-trafficking frameworks such as National Action Plans (NAPs) (See Book 3 for more on this). For the longer term success of NAPs it is crucial that they are reviewed regularly – with a view to determining progress – by intergovernmental committees that have a clear role and time-table.

5.6 LEARNING AND SHARING LESSONS

In addition to protecting children from trafficking it is crucial to draw learning from such actions for better future actions.

In addition to protecting children from trafficking it is important to draw learning from such actions for better future actions. While the aim of all actions is to protect children from trafficking, help child victims and move towards elimination of this worst form of child labour, every action should also be designed to lead to better actions in the future. That means not only putting monitoring and evaluation in place so that progress can be checked and improved but also putting in place a means of drawing together the lessons from the project and using these in a variety of ways.

There are a number of steps to take to ensure that the experience of the action/project is useful beyond those involved. These are:

- identifying successful actions or elements of actions (often called “good practice”) and those elements of interventions that were not so successful and need to be dropped, modified or further reviewed;

Learning from documented weaknesses helps others to save time, money and effort in potentially embarking on weak actions.

- documenting the lessons;
- sharing these lessons with others (dissemination);
- repeating good practices on a larger scale (scaling up).

5.6.1 Identifying lessons learned and good practices

Documented good practices and lessons learned is knowledge that can be used to improve future interventions. Identifying good practices involves looking critically at the interventions carried out at the outreach and/or policy level and presenting the good elements of interventions that could be used elsewhere based on tried-and-tested experience and with a clear description of the conditions under which it may be replicated. One important thing to remember is to not only report about successes but also weaknesses: What may seem like a mistake or a failure in an action is in fact a useful lesson for the future and, if documented, could lead to better interventions. Learning from “bad” lessons is a useful way to ensure that less-than-successful interventions are not repeated elsewhere.

A United Nations interagency research project on child labour – Understanding Children’s Work (ILO, UNICEF, World Bank) – has issued a guide designed to help build a body of good practice in anti-child trafficking/child labour interventions. These are based on more detailed ILO-IPEC guidelines.



Resource 5.14

UCW: *Combating child labour: Sample good practice guidelines*, 2003

This looks at how good practice can be described and identified and how good practices can be collected for further use. It can be used as a basic reference for all those engaged in good practice collection.



Resource 5.15

IPEC: *TBP-MAP Guidelines on Good Practices: Identification, review, structuring, dissemination and application* (Paper 4-14), ILO, 2003

This document is more detailed than the previous resource and is aimed at ILO-IPEC staff and partners.

5.6.2 Documenting the lessons

Documenting lessons means not only writing down what was done but analysing how it was done and what was learned. It is important when one prepares lessons-learned materials to keep in mind who might be using them. Will it be used internally only or will it go to an external audience? What information do they need and how will they use it? Documenting lessons is crucial if we are to continuously improve actions to fight child trafficking, and offers a chance to ensure that experiences are made useful to others.



Resource 5.16

IPEC: *Documentation of learning: Guidelines for project staff and partners of CP-TING project*, ILO 2006

These Guidelines for project staff and partners of the CP-TING project cover: selecting practices to document; drawing learning points; the content and format of documented learning points; who should be responsible for the documentation and, importantly, how *not* to document learning.

Documentation of learning is crucial if we are to continuously improve actions to fight child trafficking.

When documenting the experience, the views of children, families and communities, as well as partners and ideally some independent observers should be included where possible. Their views do not have to be in agreement: often, different views of the same action can help readers to see the anti-trafficking initiative more clearly and come to their own conclusions.

A good practice publication worth reviewing is one by ILO-IPEC's TICW subregional trafficking project. The project's eight year span (2000-2008) provided ample opportunity to document learning in a range of areas related to prevention.



Resource 5.17

IPEC: *Meeting the challenge: Proven practices for human trafficking prevention in the Greater Mekong Subregion*, ILO, 2008

This report highlights how the discourse on human trafficking has broadened and what can be done to prevent trafficking at source and destination both in policy and community-level programming.



5.6.3 Designing a dissemination strategy

In order to make sure that the results of interventions reach those who can use them, a dissemination strategy should be designed when one begins planning the intervention. Questions to ask are: who might be able to use the experience; how will they use it; what form do they need it in, and, how will they get it?

Answers to these questions may help to put in place the processes and tools one will need to collect the information. For example, if the target audience for a dissemination strategy is a trade union in the adjacent province B, they will need to know all the elements of project design, implementation and the lessons learned by the trade union in province A. The learning points could be sent to them as the project progresses (rather than waiting until the end) and possibly in an electronic newsletter. If, on the other hand, the target audience is the government ministry

Dissemination does not necessarily mean to write a long report, print it and send it out. It could be web based sharing of learning points, or sharing during one-on-one meetings or at conferences.

dealing with cross-border issues, then one may wish to wait until the end of the project to identify the specific issues that will be of interest to the ministry and send these to the ministry in a detailed letter.

If the intervention relates to a ministry-initiated policy or programme, the main target may be civil servants in government departments at other levels or in other countries in the region. In this case, one may choose to consider the regular forums for information exchange in which the government participates and consider whether an information-sharing session at such a forum would be possible.

Remember that dissemination does not always mean writing a long report, printing it in a glossy cover and sending it out by mail at high cost. Dissemination can take many forms including one-on-one meetings, information-sharing sessions, multimedia products, publications, or word-of-mouth.



Resource 5.18

Developing a dissemination strategy, Extract from the report of the 2nd Daphne Conference, Brussels 2006

This comprehensive guide to developing a dissemination strategy includes a list of questions that need to be answered in drawing up a strategy and some common “do’s and don’ts”. It also includes a section on working with media to disseminate information.

Inter-governmental exchange of good and bad practice is carried out in several regions. One good example is the REACT exercise undertaken by the Council of Europe, which is a reporting tool for member States that also seeks to identify good practices and outstanding challenges. Although the REACT tool is primarily designed to bring together lessons from governments in the area of policy and practice to combat the sexual abuse and exploitation of children, it does also include some sections on child trafficking and, as a model of regional exchange at governmental level, is a practical model.



Resource 5.19

Council of Europe web site

www.coe.int. This website includes the REACT tool.

5.6.4 Repeating good practices on a larger scale

Repeating good practices in other areas is often called “replication” and if done on a larger scale is often called “scaling up”. It involves taking the experience one has gained in one place – for example in one community or one school or one province – and spreading it to other communities, schools or provinces or even nationally. Scaling up has to be done very carefully. First of all, one will need to think through whether the scope of the initiative was a factor in its success. If one tries to work on a larger scale, will one lose the very thing that made it work? This requires careful analysis of the initiative and also consideration of the new context one is considering. Scaling up also presumes a heavier burden of coordination. One does not have to undertake the expanded action him/herself, but one will probably need, at least at the beginning, to provide support and advice to partners who carry the project forward.

One way of scaling up is to work towards “mainstreaming” actions in larger policy initiatives. For example, if one has developed an effective training module for teachers in the schools in a district, then one can work with the education ministry or directly with the national teacher training college to mainstream the training module into the college curriculum.

Documentation of good practices and lessons learned is crucial to replicate and mainstream (good) experiences beyond the original scope of interventions (for maximum impact).



Resource 5.20

IPEC: *Imitation is the sincerest form of flattery (Replication and mainstreaming)*, ILO, 2002

This document outlines the experience of Phase 1 of the TICW project in drawing lessons relating to replication and mainstreaming of the initiatives undertaken. It gives practical examples as well as a series of lessons learned during the project and conditions for replicability, including the vital engagement of governments and the need to take context into consideration when planning to replicate actions.

The most important thing to remember is that the end of one initiative is really the beginning of the next. Perhaps the most important outcome of the documentation of good practices is transferring these practices – whether they relate to policy or to outreach initiatives – to other actors so that they can replicate the experience beyond the original scope of interventions (for maximum impact).

RESOURCES REFERRED TO IN BOOK 5

Ensuring ownership and participation	
Resource 5.1	IPEC: <i>Participatory project design to combat trafficking in children and women</i> , (TICW), (Bangkok 2002)
Resource 5.2	IPEC: <i>Peer mentoring in Bulgaria</i> , extract from: <i>Steps to the elimination of child labour in Central and Eastern Europe: Emerging good practices</i> , (Bucharest, ILO, 2007)
Resource 5.3	IPEC: <i>Putting children first: Child participation guidelines for projects to prevent trafficking in China</i> , (Beijing, ILO, 2006)
Resource 5.4	IPEC: <i>First-hand knowledge: Voices across the Mekong</i> , a “good practice” publication, (TICW), (Bangkok, ILO, 2005) The tools developed for supporting children around the COMMIT process, through the Mekong Children’s Forum, can be downloaded from: www.childtrafficking.net
Resource 5.5	RWG-CL: <i>Learning to work together: A handbook for managers on facilitating children’s participation in action to address child labour</i> , Regional Working Group on Child Labour, (Bangkok, 2003).
Resource 5.6	UNSGSVAC: <i>Children’s participation: Working document for the East Asia/Pacific Regional Consultation</i> , (Bangkok, 2005)
Training and empowerment	
Resource 5.7	ECPAT: <i>Combating trafficking in children for sexual purposes</i> (Bangkok, 2006)
Resource 5.8	IPEC: <i>Training of trainers: Guide to preparing a participatory training programme</i> , (Beijing, ILO, 2006)
Resource 5.9	IPEC: <i>Building the know-how (Capacity building)</i> , (SELL-6), (TICW) (Bangkok, ILO, 2002)
Resource 5.10	IPEC: <i>Guidelines for training of trainers</i> , (TICW), (Bangkok, ILO, 2002)
Monitoring and Evaluation processes/systems	
Resource 5.11	IPEC: <i>Tracer study methodology manual</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2005)
Resource 5.12	IPEC, <i>Monitoring plan - safe migration</i> , (ILO, 2007)
Resource 5.13	IPEC: <i>Tools for prevention – Participatory monitoring: Guidelines for practitioners in the fight against human trafficking</i> , (TICW) (Bangkok, ILO, 2002)
Documentation of learning and sharing	
Resource 5.14	UCW: <i>Sample Good Practice Guidelines</i> , (Geneva, ILO, 2003)
Resource 5.15	IPEC: <i>TBP-MAP Guidelines on Good Practices: Identification, review, structuring, dissemination and application</i> (Paper 4-14), (Geneva, ILO, 2003)
Resource 5.16	IPEC: <i>Documentation of learning: Guidelines for project staff and partners of CP-TING project</i> , (Beijing, ILO, 2006)

Resource 5.17	IPEC: <i>Meeting the challenge: Proven practices for human trafficking prevention in the Greater Mekong Subregion</i> (Bangkok, ILO, 2008)
Resource 5.18	Kane, J: "Developing a dissemination strategy", Extract from the report of the 2 nd Daphne Conference, Brussels, April 2006
Resource 5.19	Council of Europe website: www.coe.int
Resource 5.20	IPEC: <i>Imitation is the sincerest form of flattery (Replication and mainstreaming) (SELL-7)</i> , (TICW) (Bangkok, ILO, 2002)

