What can YOU do to protect children on the move.

A handbook to enable organisations to review how they prevent child trafficking and exploitation, and whether they ensure that the best interests of the child guide their activities.

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WHAT CAN YOU DO TO PROTECT CHILDREN ON THE MOVE.
prepared by Mike Dottridge, November 2012

IMPRESSION

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The mission of Terre des Hommes organisations is to provide active support to children, their families and their communities without racial, religious, political, cultural or gender-based discrimination, in the framework of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child.

Terre des Hommes organisations mobilise political will, call on governments to adopt appropriate policies and run 1,043 development and humanitarian aid projects in 72 countries in close partnership with local and national NGOs. They also carry out research and evaluations to document the impact of interventions and uphold project quality. Projects are run in close partnership with the population concerned, including children.

The handbook has been produced with the financial support of the Oak Foundation. The views expressed are those of the author. Mike Duttridge is an independent consultant on human rights issues, based in the United Kingdom. Much of his work has focused on the experience of unaccompanied and separated children who work or are exploited. In 2008 he prepared a report for Terre des Hommes entitled Kids abroad: Ignore them, abuse them or protect them? Lessons on how to protect children on the move from being exploited.

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**Abbreviations / Definitions / Glossary**

- **BID**: best interests determination
- **CRC**: UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989)
- **IDP**: internally displaced person
- **IPEC**: ILO's International Programme for the Elimination of Child Labour
- **IL0**: International Labour Organization and International Labour Office
- **NGO**: non-governmental organisation
- **SCEP**: Separated Children in Europe Programme
- **UN**: United Nations
- **UNHCR**: United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
- **UNICEF**: United Nations Children’s Fund

These are definitions of terms used in this handbook, citing definitions used in international law or other standard sources. These technical terms are underlined when they first appear in the text of the handbook, so simply look up their meaning here.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Abuse (of a child)</strong></th>
<th>Any act or omission, which may be deliberate or accidental, which results in or is likely to result in significant harm to the child's well-being and development. There are four main categories of abuse: physical, sexual, emotional (sometimes called psychological) and neglect.</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Adolescent</strong></td>
<td>A person between the ages of 10 and 19.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Assessment</strong></td>
<td>The process of collecting information and making sense of it, in order to develop a plan to ensure that a child’s needs are met.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Best Interests of the child</strong></td>
<td>Article 3.1 of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) stipulates that, “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”. This means that many NGOs, as well as government agencies, should develop formal procedures for determining what is in a child’s best interests when they make decisions affecting an individual child’s future or on other actions affecting children. It does not mean that other considerations cannot be taken into account, but rather that other primary considerations (such as the Government’s policies on immigration) may not be given more importance that a child’s best interests in decisions and actions affecting that child. The Committee on the Rights of the Child has stated that, “in the case of a displaced child, the principle [that the child’s best interests should be determined] must be respected during all stages of the displacement cycle. At any of these stages, a best interests determination must be documented in preparation of any decision fundamentally impacting on the unaccompanied or separated child’s life” (Committee on the Rights of the Child, General Comment No. 6 [2005], “Treatment of unaccompanied and separated children outside their country of origin”, paragraph 19). The General Comment can be accessed at <a href="http://www.unhchr.ch/tbs/doc.nat/">http://www.unhchr.ch/tbs/doc.nat/</a> (symbol://CRC.GC.2005.6.En?OpenDocument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Best Interests determination</strong></td>
<td>Defined by the UNHCR as “the formal process with strict procedural safeguards designed to determine the child’s best interests for particularly important decisions affecting the child. It should facilitate adequate child participation without discrimination, involve decision-makers with relevant areas of expertise, and balance all relevant factors in order to assess the best option”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Best Interests assessment</strong></td>
<td>Defined by the UNHCR as “an assessment made by staff taking action with regard to individual children, except when a BID [best interests determination] procedure is required, designed to ensure that such action gives a primary consideration to the child’s best interests. The assessment can be done alone or in consultation with others by staff with the required expertise and requires the participation of the child”. (UNHCR and International Rescue Committee, Field Handbook for the Implementation of UNHCR BID Guidelines, 2011, page 112),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bonded labour</strong></td>
<td>See “debts bondage”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Boy</strong></td>
<td>Refers to children under age of 18 only, not young adult men.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Child</strong></td>
<td>The protection of children either suffering or at risk of suffering from any forms of abuse. The CRC requires States (governments) to take action to protect children from “all forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation, including sexual abuse, while in the care of parent(s), legal guardian(s) or any other person who has the care of the child” (article 19).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Child protection</strong></td>
<td>The definitions in Chapter 2 says that children on the move are “Children who move for more than a few days at a time, within or between countries, for a variety of reasons, voluntarily or involuntarily, with or without their parents or other primary caregivers.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Children on the move</strong></td>
<td>The sexual exploitation of a child for remuneration in cash or in kind, usually but not always organised by an intermediary (parent, family member, procurer, pimp etc.), mainly for the purposes of prostitution and production of pornography. Sometimes referred to simply as “sexual exploitation of children”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Commercial sexual exploitation (of children)</strong></td>
<td>This is the practice of requiring someone to work to pay off a loan, when the value of their work greatly exceeds the value of the original loan. Sometimes it is not the person who takes the loan, but someone else (such as a child in the same family) who works off the loan on their behalf. Debt bondage is generally known in South Asia as “bonded labour” and is prohibited by law in India (Bonded Labour System (Abolition) Act, 1976) and Pakistan (Bonded Labour System (Abolition) Act, 1992). Certain forms of bonded labour have been prohibited in Nepal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Debt bondage</strong></td>
<td>Long-term arrangements made for a child who has left home (including children who are refugees or who have been trafficked).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Durable solution</strong></td>
<td>Long-term arrangements made for a child who has left home (including children who are refugees or who have been trafficked).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Human rights approach</td>
<td>Girls</td>
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| Guardian (Temporary / Permanent) | Before to children under age of 18 to the young adult woman. | In the German, Canadian, and Canadian, the right to a guardian to a child in the event of a divorce or separation of the parents. | Article 21 of the ILO Convention on Forced Labour (Convention No. 29, 1930) defines the term forced labour as "any form of labour or service which is exacted from any person by another person or by public authority in violation of the will of the person concerned and involves the deprivation of liberty, the use of violence or penalties, or the threat thereof, or the exercise of any form of intimidation."

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Separated child</th>
<th>Refugee</th>
<th>Replacement</th>
<th>Protection</th>
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<tr>
<td>Separated children are those separated from both parents, or from their previous legal or customary primary caregivers, but not necessarily from their relatives. These may include children who have been separated as a result of conflict or other violence, or who have been abandoned or left behind.</td>
<td>Refugees are defined in Article 1 of the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees as persons &quot;who, owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a national minority, political opinion, or other particular social or political group, are unable to enjoy within their own country all the rightsaccorded to them as a member of mankind&quot;.</td>
<td>In the context of children's rights, the right to be replaced is the right to be restored to the care of a family or caregiver in circumstances where such care is temporarily interrupted or disrupted.</td>
<td>The principle of non-refoulement, which is enshrined in international law, prohibits states from returning or expelling a person to a country where they would be at risk of torture or other serious harm.</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
<th>Internal displaced person (IDP)</th>
<th>See &quot;Right to Education&quot; for more information.</th>
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The "right of children to belong" requires that "children be able to make up for or another form of protection from exploitation. The ILO Convention on Forced Labour (Convention No. 29, 1930) defines forced labour as "any form of labour or service which is exacted from any person by another person or by public authority in violation of the will of the person concerned and involves the deprivation of liberty, the use of violence or penalties, or the threat thereof, or the exercise of any form of intimidation." In the context of children's rights, the right to be replaced is the right to be restored to the care of a family or caregiver in circumstances where such care is temporarily interrupted or disrupted. The principle of non-refoulement, which is enshrined in international law, prohibits states from returning or expelling a person to a country where they would be at risk of torture or other serious harm. In the context of children's rights, the right to be replaced is the right to be restored to the care of a family or caregiver in circumstances where such care is temporarily interrupted or disrupted. The principle of non-refoulement, which is enshrined in international law, prohibits states from returning or expelling a person to a country where they would be at risk of torture or other serious harm.
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tr>
<td>Servitude</td>
<td>The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) prohibits servitude, as well as slavery. The phrases “slavery or practices similar to slavery” and “servitude” refer to similar situations involving coercion. The UN’s Supplementary Convention on the Abolition of Slavery, the Slave Trade and Institutions and Practices Similar to Slavery (1956) prohibits various forms of “servile status” (rather than using the term “servitude”). Notably, debt bondage (see “debt bondage” above) in recent years the term “servitude” has often been used to describe the situation of domestic workers who are subjected to some form of forced labour, trafficking or extreme exploitation, i.e., whether adults or children, they are said to be in “domestic servitude”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual exploitation</td>
<td>See “commercial sexual exploitation” above. May also be interpreted to refer, for example, to forced marriage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trafficker</td>
<td>A person who engages in trafficking in persons (as defined by the UN Trafficking Protocol). Sometimes also the same person who directly makes money by exploiting a child and sometimes an intermediary involved earlier in the child’s recruitment, in the knowledge that the child is likely to end up being exploited.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trafficking in persons (or trafficking in human beings, also known as “human trafficking”)</td>
<td>The recruitment, transport, transfer, accommodation or receipt of persons (adults or children or both); - in the case of adults, by means of 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; - in the case of children, it refers to the recruitment, transport, transfer, accommodation or receipt of children, whether or not these abusive means are used. In both cases (of adult and children), it is for the purpose of exploitation, which includes the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trafficking Protocol</td>
<td>UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, linked to the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (2000). This Protocol is sometimes referred to as the “Palermo Protocol”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unaccompanied child</td>
<td>Unaccompanied children (also called unaccompanied minors) are children who have been separated from both parents and other relatives and are not being cared for by an adult who, by law or custom, is responsible for doing so.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worst forms of child labour</td>
<td>Defined by article 3 of the ILO Convention No. 182 concerning the Prohibition and Immediate Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour (1999) to comprise: “(a) all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom and forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict; (b) the use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances; (c) the use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties; (d) work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children.”</td>
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1 INTRODUCTION: WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THIS HANDBOOK?

This handbook is aimed at organisations which try to stop children from experiencing harm as a result of exploitation or other abuse - particularly young people who move from one place to another (with or without other family members) or migrate within their own country or to another country. It is designed to help such organisations to review any activities they organise concerning children who leave home and to enable them to question the ways they (or you) have worked in the past, opening up the possibility of using new methods to benefit “children on the move”.

The handbook offers some examples of what such methods could be but does not set out a specific agenda for action. However, it emphasises the importance of listening to the experiences and hopes of children who have left home, in order to provide them with the most appropriate forms of support.

The handbook should be helpful to anyone who wants to get a better understanding of which children are referred to as “children on the move” and in what way organisations dedicated to protecting children and upholding children’s human rights can make a useful contribution to ensuring that such children have a good outcome when they move.

While the handbook can be used by any child protection organisation which encounters children on the move, it has been designed principally for use by non-governmental organisations (NGOs). Assessing the methods you currently use to support children on the move means:

- reviewing the methods you use to prevent children being exploited or abused; and
- finding out whether a more detailed understanding of the experience of a particular category of children on the move helps you identify additional ways to protect such children and to enable them to turn their hopes and ambitions into reality.

1.1. Background information

Over the past two decades much time and money has been invested in developing methods to prevent children from being exploited, as well as to find appropriate ways of enabling children who have already been exploited to recover and get on with their lives. Different methods have been used to try and prevent children from being subjected to a range of types of exploitation, including both sexual exploitation and economic exploitation.

Nevertheless, cases of exploitation continue to occur on a massive scale in most regions of the world.

Some professionals involved in trying to prevent children from being exploited have concluded that a notable weakness in the methods used is that we have approached each different sort of exploitation as if it required its own specific prevention methods, when, in practice, the measures that are appropriate to keep children safe (and out of the hands of those who want to exploit them) are often quite similar, whatever specific form of exploitation they are at risk of experiencing. Their conclusion is that more effort should be made to build child protection systems which are designed to protect all children from harm, abuse and exploitation.

Also over the past two decades, there has been an increasing understanding of the factors that make some children more likely to be exploited than others. Some are very general (poverty or gender) and others much more specific (such as belonging to a particular minority group or coming from a particularly dysfunctional family). By focusing on the particular factors that make some children more likely to be exploited than others (sometimes called “vulnerability factors”) we have learnt that suitable preventive actions can address these factors and reduce the likelihood that particular children end up being exploited.

A characteristic of a significant proportion of the children who are exploited is that they have moved away from a place where relatives or others know them and are in a position to hear that they are being exploited or abused and to intervene to stop it. Indeed, children who move away from home leave an environment with which they are familiar and know where to turn for help. They move to other places with which they are not familiar, exposing themselves to various risks while in transit. Once they reach a new destination, many of them are more exposed to abuse or exploitation than before, while others thrive in their new environment and enjoy opportunities which they did not have before.

Of course, some children experience sexual or economic exploitation without moving and while continuing to live with their parents. However, children who move with their parents or other relatives away from their usual home, in search of work for the adults in the family, routinely arrive in a place where the whole family may be relatively more vulnerable to being exploited than if they had remained at home. At the same time, their move offers new opportunities.

In this handbook both children who leave home by themselves and those who move away with one or more relatives are referred to as “children on the move”.
1.2. The lay-out of the handbook and the way to use it

Anyone can use this handbook. However, as it is designed especially to enable organisations (rather than just individuals) to review and adapt what they do to prevent children being exploited, each chapter ends with a practical exercise which is intended to help readers review their own organisation’s activities or procedures and identify possible improvements.

The initial chapters of the handbook contain background information and definitions about children on the move, prevention, trafficking and exploitation. The chapters end either with a list of questions to discuss or an exercise to carry out that is intended to help you explore the ideas presented in the chapter. In addition, the Glossary at the beginning of the Handbook explains most technical terms.

An organisation that wants to use the handbook could organise a workshop around the topics presented in each chapter, or a longer workshop reviewing all the topics that are covered in the handbook. As it is frequently impossible to spend as much as one or two whole days in a workshop, you could spend 1 hour or ½ hours considering the topics examined in each individual chapter. In this case, one member of the organisation needs to read the chapter in detail and be ready to summarise its contents to others in a language that they understand.

Though the handbook has already been through several stages of refinement, the author and organisation responsible for it, the Terre des Hommes International Federation, recognise that it is important to get feedback and to make the information and exercises more useful to readers. Consequently we would be pleased to receive any comments by e-mail at childrenonthe@terredeshommes.org.

1.3. Preparation at 3 workshops in Kolkata and Bangkok

Two workshops in 2010 helped with the preparation of this handbook, the first in Kolkata (India), hosted by the Terre des Hommes Foundation office there, and the second in Bangkok (Thailand), organised by Asia ACTs (Asia Against Child Trafficking) with the support of Terre des Hommes Netherlands. The exercises at the end of each chapter are based on some that were tried out at these two workshops. In both cases, NGOs were invited to the workshops to find out more about “children on the move” and the interventions which such children appreciated, and to explore the implications for their own work.

The workshop in Kolkata was attended by NGOs based in Bangladesh, Nepal and several parts of India (mainly West Bengal and Bihar) and also by representatives of several Terre des Hommes organisations. Many of the NGOs attending this workshop focus in their routine work on assisting children who have been removed from situations of exploitation. The workshop in Bangkok was attended by representatives of the Asia ACTs network from Burma/Myanmar, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Thailand, Philippines and Vietnam. In addition, there were participants from a variety of national and regional organisations: an NGO from Malaysia; regional programmes from ECPAT International (End Child Prostitution, Child Pornography and Trafficking of Children for Sexual Purposes, an NGO and international network), Save the Children UK and Terre des Hommes Netherlands; and, in his personal capacity, a member of the ASEAN (Association of South East Asian Nations) Commission on the Promotion and Protection of the Rights of Women and Children (ACWC).

The handbook was prepared by a consultant, Mike Dottidge, who attended these workshops as well as an international conference on the topic of “children on the move” that was held in Barcelona (Spain) in October 2010. The Bangkok workshop was held shortly after the Barcelona conference. Consequently, the working definition specifying who children on the move are, which was used in Barcelona, was brought to the attention of participants, whereas at the earlier workshop in Kolkata the concept was left vague, causing some confusion to those present (particularly as the media in Kolkata had just focused attention on a child who had been kidnapped on the way home from school, raising the question of whether children moving from their homes to school and back each day should be regarded as “children on the move”–this handbook does not).

The Bangkok workshop, unlike the Kolkata one, was preceded by a set of consultations with children who had the experience of moving from one place to another (Terre des Hommes Netherlands made an extra grant to Asia ACTs to make this possible). As a result, the workshop in Bangkok reviewed several videos and presentations in which children had commented on their experiences. The workshops themselves were attended mainly by adults and, in Bangkok, by one young man who had the experience of moving from his own country to a neighbouring one. As this was shortly after he had attended the Barcelona conference with other young people who had spoken of their experiences while “on the move”, he was able to draw attention to rather more than his personal experience.

Participants at both workshops prepared sets of diagrams to illustrate the experience of children on the move, some of which are illustrations in this handbook. They also commented on the various exercises in which they took part, some of which were broadly similar to those in this handbook.

A draft of this handbook was made public on a Terre des Hommes website in May 2011 and during the following year organisations that downloaded it were invited to make comments and give feedback. Although relatively few did so, some useful comments were received and led to quite substantial modifications in the information contained in this version, prepared in mid-2012. A final workshop was held in Bangkok in November 2012, attended by representatives of organisations based in both South Asia and South East Asia, when further comments were made that helped shape the contents of the handbook.

The exercises at the end of this chapter are intended to enable any organisation to assess what its staff (or others, such as managers, volunteers or board members) think on a variety of issues that are relevant to the organisation’s activities affecting children on the move, before they are influenced by the contents of the handbook. It represents what is sometimes called a “baseline” survey.
1.4. EXERCISE: what do you think?

It is sometimes helpful to check what members of your organisation think on a topic before any new ideas are developed as a result of reading a handbook such as this one. A simple exercise is to ask everyone in an organisation or using this handbook to fill in the following table indicating whether they agree, disagree or are not sure whether they agree with the statements listed in the left-hand column. This exercise was designed to be used in places where children start leaving home in significant numbers around the age of puberty and the questions focus on children aged from 12 years upwards (and below 16, hence the reference to “children aged 12 to 17”), so you can modify the ages that are cited. When using the table in an actual exercise the right-hand column needs to be much wider than in this diagram, to allow respondents want to explain or comment on their views (they may want to mention factors which are not mentioned, such as “moving away is OK if a child is able to attend school”).

The questions in Table 1 envisage a wide range of situations in which children move away from home. You can modify the questions to suit situations experienced by children you have encountered.

### TABLE 1: COLLECTING YOUR VIEWS BEFORE THEY ARE MODIFIED IN ANY WAY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATEMENTS</th>
<th>AGREE</th>
<th>DISAGREE</th>
<th>DON’T KNOW</th>
<th>COMMENTS MADE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. In a country where there is substantial migration from villages to cities, it is OK for children aged 15 to 17 to migrate or move away from their village on their own</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. In poor countries it is OK for children aged 12 to 17 to leave home on a temporary basis to take seasonal jobs (e.g., seasonal agricultural work), providing they travel and work with other children</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. In a country where there is substantial migration from villages to cities, it is OK for children aged 12 to 17 to migrate or move away from their village on their own</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. In a country where there is substantial migration from villages to cities, it is OK for children from 9 to 17 to migrate or move away from their village on their own</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. In a country where there is substantial migration from villages to cities, it is best for children aged 15 to 17 to stay in their village with their family</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. In a country where there is substantial migration from villages to cities, it is best for children under 15 to stay in their village with their family</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. In a country where there is substantial migration from villages to cities, it is best for children under 12 to stay in their village with their family</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. In a region where there is both migration from villages to cities and migration from one country to another, it is OK for children of any age to migrate or move away from their village if they accompany their parents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. In a region where there is both migration from villages to cities and migration from one country to another, it is OK for children aged 15 to 17 to move to another country if they are accompanied by an adult while travelling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. In a region where there is both migration from villages to cities and migration from one country to another, it is OK for children aged 12 to 17 to move to another country if they are accompanied by an adult while travelling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. So, in an area where children routinely leave home when younger, for example to work as domestic help at seven or eight years old, the table should be modified, for example asking the same questions about several different age groupings, such as “7 to 11” and “12 to 14” and “15 to 17”.
### Table 2: Identifying Values that Underpin Your Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. A belief that people from better-off backgrounds (or countries) should assist poor and needy children?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. A religious belief that children should be protected from harm?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. A commitment (for whatever reason) to universally-recognized human rights?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. An obligation to carry out work that you are contracted to by government or by a donor?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. A determination that a particular form of abuse or exploitation should be brought to an end (e.g., the recruitment of children into the sex industry or as soldiers or into hazardous jobs)?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Your motives might be quite different. Whatever they are, do they have particular implications for the methods you use (as in the case of “d” in the list above)?

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Once everyone has filled in the chart (independently of one another), you can count up the answers (how many “agree”, “disagree”, etc.). The result should tell you whether all or most of you have similar views about what is appropriate for children. It will also tell you what most people in the organisation think, so that you can compare the same people’s view at a later date. You could potentially organise a group discussion about the results. If you do so, remember to point out that the exercise sought to find out what you think ought to happen, not what actually happens in reality.
B. Your hopes (and priorities) for children

It is sometimes helpful to check what members of your organisation think on a topic before any new ideas are developed as a look through the following list and allocate a score to each point, from 0 to 10, with "0" signifying that you pay no attention at all to the point, and "10" signifying that it is extremely important for your organisation. Once you have scored each point (by circling the number in the right-hand column which appears appropriate), the group should discuss whether these priorities have an effect on the methods you currently use.

TABLE 3: SCORING YOUR WISHES AND PRIORITIES FOR CHILDREN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wish to keep children safe</th>
<th>0 ≤ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 &gt;10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A wish to enable children to exercise their rights and to realise their dreams</td>
<td>0 ≤ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 &gt;10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A wish to stop children being exploited</td>
<td>0 ≤ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 &gt;10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A wish to enable children to express their views and participate in decisions that affect them (decisions by their family, community and also government policy and wider public opinion)</td>
<td>0 ≤ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 &gt;10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A wish that all children should complete a basic education</td>
<td>0 ≤ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 &gt;10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A wish that children should continue to live at home with their family, until they reach a minimum age (such as 14, 16 or 18)</td>
<td>0 ≤ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 &gt;10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After you have scored the list, discuss the results in your group (15-20 minutes). What wishes were ranked as highest priority? Were they compatible with the methods used by your organisation? Or did some or all of the "wishes" imply that it would be appropriate to consider changing some of the methods used?

2. WHO ARE "CHILDREN ON THE MOVE"?

2.1. Examples of children on the move

The term "children on the move" refers to a wide range of children who move, at some time in their childhood, from one place to another, frequently from the place where they lived initially with their parents to somewhere different. It refers to categories of children whom organisations concerned about children used not to refer to together, on the grounds that particular children have distinctive legal statuses or rights. Table 4 contains examples.

TABLE 4: CHILDREN ON THE MOVE WHO ARE ROUTINELY REGARDED AS BELONGING TO SEPARATE CATEGORIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Children who move within their own country</th>
<th>VERSUS</th>
<th>Children who move from one country to another country (or to another continent)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Children who move with their parents or other close members of their family</td>
<td>VERSUS</td>
<td>Children who move by themselves (&quot;unaccompanied&quot; or &quot;separated&quot; children)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children who move to another country to escape political violence or persecution (&quot;refugees&quot;) or natural disasters</td>
<td>VERSUS</td>
<td>Children who migrate deliberately to seek a living elsewhere, or are sent by their parents to live and work elsewhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children who move within their own country to escape political violence (&quot;internally displaced persons&quot;) or IDPs or natural disasters</td>
<td>VERSUS</td>
<td>Children who live with their families until they move away with their parents’ agreement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Terms such as "unaccompanied" and "separated" are explained in the Glossary which can be found at the beginning of this handbook.
3. A refugee is a person outside the country of origin who cannot return to this country because there is a well-founded fear of persecution or a serious risk of suffering or being harmed in the event of return. The definition of a refugee in international law can be found in Article 1, Section A (2) of the 1951 UN Refugee Convention. It is important to note that this category of children on the move is the subject of a well-developed part of international law and of many publications issued by the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). For example, there is an absolute ban on the resettlement (see Glossary) of refugees and asylum-seeking children.
4. IDPs have been defined as “persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflicts, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border”. Source: Paragraph 2 of the UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, UN document D/CH.6/1998/55/Add.2, 1998.
While there were good reasons for making a distinction between each of these categories of children, doing so has also encouraged the belief that each distinct category of children requires a different response (in terms of support or protection) from government agencies, NGOs and others responsible for protecting children. A major reason for referring to them together, by using the term “children on the move”, is to identify the similarities between the different groups and the responses which could be the same. Further, in reality, children do not live in “categories”, but shift easily from one to another, so forms of support and protection which benefit all or most children on the move may be more effective than those which target only one category of children.

2.2. Working definitions of the term “children on the move”

The term “children on the move” began to be used in the middle of the last decade (2000-2010) to refer generically to children who had left their habitual place of residence to move either within their own country or to another country. As the purpose was to refer to a wide range of children whose specific experiences and needs were different, the term was not initially accompanied by any precise list of whom it included and whom it did not. Not surprisingly, however, people hearing the term soon began to ask for a definition and a more precise listing of whom the term referred to.

As a result, different organisations have adopted different definitions of what they mean.

At an international conference about children on the move in Spain in October 2010, one of the NGOs behind the conference, Save the Children, explained the term as follows:

“Those children moving for a variety of reasons, voluntarily or involuntarily, within or between countries, with or without their parents or other primary caregivers, and whose movement might place them at risk (or at an increased risk) of economic or sexual exploitation, abuse, neglect and violence.”
In a specific area where many children leave home to seek a living either elsewhere in their own country or across a border in a neighbouring country, West Africa, a shorter explanation has been developed about young people on the move, who are referred to in French as “mobile children”. The explanation says:

“A mobile child is a child who, having left the place where he or she used to live, lives away for a significant period in terms of the change that occurs in his or her living conditions and identity”. In this case, the authors chose the term “mobile” deliberately, as it also invokes the idea of social mobility as children who migrate are sometimes able to change important aspects of their identity after reaching a new destination, adopting different customs or even a new language and redefining themselves as “city people” instead of “villagers”.

Finally, a United Nations (UN) specialist on migrants’ rights has described who children on the move are in the context of international migration (not including children who move within their own country), saying:

“Children on the move are migrant children taking an active part in the migration process, particularly at the passage and arrival stages in countries of transit and destination. They may be found, inter alia, migrating with their family members or independently, to seek opportunities at both educational and employment levels. They may also be found entering host countries to join migrant members of the family; being relocated or sent by families to stay with relatives or friends in third countries or, as the Special Rapporteur has documented it in the past, being sent by family members to find work abroad and send part of their earnings home...”.

So, the phrase “children on the move” is used to refer to a wide range of children who move, either within their own country or across an international border, or even between continents. It covers children who move alone (also known as “separated” or “unaccompanied children”) or with others. In each case they move away from an environment with which they were familiar to one with which they are less familiar, at least initially, and where they are consequently at greater risk of being exploited. At the same time, they may also have more opportunities than before they left home. Consequently, when referring to “children on the move”, this handbook means:

“Children who move for more than a few days at a time, within or between countries, for a variety of reasons, voluntarily or involuntarily, with or without their parents or other primary caregivers.”

The purpose of identifying children on the move is for organisations that want to support children (or protect them against harm) to understand when children’s movements create new opportunities for them, which can potentially be maximised, or place them at an increased risk of economic or sexual exploitation or other forms of abuse, which can potentially be reduced.

2.3. Ten more examples

Both Save the Children and Terre des Hommes explained in their definitions that there were just four separate groupings of children involved, though the groupings they mention vary: Save the Children mentions street children, while Terre des Hommes does not, and Terre des Hommes distinguishes between children who are internally displaced and those who seek asylum in another country.

WHAT DO YOU THINK?
Can you recognise children in your own country who could be described as “children on the move”?

The examples above make it clear that rather more than four categories of children can be described as “on the move”. These ten examples are described in more detail.

1. Children who migrate for economic reasons, either temporarily or for a longer time, travelling a short or a long distance, within their own country or across borders (or even between continents).

This includes, for example:
- children employed as live-in domestic servants (but not those who live with their own family and go out to work each day in someone else’s home), some of whom are said to be regarded as “family members” and “placed” or “fostered” in a family to learn as well as to work;
- children who take on an apprenticeship away from home, whether with their employer or elsewhere away from home;
- children who travel away from home on a temporary basis, for a month or two for seasonal agricultural work or to work with pastoralists (livestock farmers), looking after their animals, and who later return home;
- children who leave home and resort to crime as their main source of income, whether on their own initiative or influenced by others.

2. Children who accompany other family members migrating for economic reasons. This includes families that migrate to other countries (i.e., international migration) and others that move between different work sites in their own country, whether agricultural or industrial ones (such as brick kilns and quarries) or service industries (such as tourism). The reason they move may include push factors, such as environmental change, as well as pull factors, such as the prospect of a job.

3. Children who move away from home and either live or work on the street (in other words, some categories of street children, but not including those who work on the street but who usually return to sleep in a family home).

4. Children who are enrolled into armed units and who leave home, whether forcibly conscripted or voluntarily enrolled.

5. Children who leave home to escape some form of domestic violence, whether at the hands of a parent or another relative or someone else, such as a boyfriend; this includes children who leave in order to avoid an early or forced marriage.

6. Children who leave home in order to obtain an education (including religious education) or vocational training (or to continue one of these), whether they work at the same time or not.

7. Children who are internally displaced (i.e., IDPs), whether by political violence or natural disasters and whether they move alone or with other family members.

8. Children who are internally displaced or relocated for other reasons, such as the destruction of their homes due to dam construction, whether alone or with other family members.

9. Children who are refugees (including those whose asylum requests have not yet been agreed by the authorities in the country to which they have moved, generally referred to as “asylum seekers”), once again including unaccompanied or separated children and also children accompanying their parents.

10. Children who are abducted or lured away from home for other purposes.
2.4. The experiences of children on the move

Children on the move have many different experiences. It is hard to summarise all these in a single chart, diagram or exercise. At various points in this handbook we refer to children on the move travelling through a series of different “stages” or “phases”, which may be geographical (from one place to another), but also social (as they redefine their identity in a new location, sometimes changing from being a villager to a city-dweller). This implies that children on the move have different needs at different stages of their journey and that the most appropriate action to assist or protect them will vary.

**FIGURE 1 BASIC FLOW DIAGRAM TO INDICATE THE STAGES OF A CHILD’S MOVEMENT**

- Children currently on the move
  - The moment a child leaves or moves (being transported, in transit, passes at intermediate stops, etc.)
  - At a permanent or temporary destination, sometimes involving employment that the child finds acceptable, sometimes involving abuse and exploitation
  - The phase when a child returns home or concludes that he or she will remain semi-permanently in the place of destination.

- Children who return home or are no longer mobile

- Children still at home or in a similar environment
  - Child is living with birth parent or parents or others in family or family-like situation.

- Other children who are affected by the migration or movement of their parents or close relatives: “children who are left behind” such as those living with grandparents or others

One way of illustrating this is with a flow diagram (see Figure 1), which you can also use later in this handbook to identify a variety of opportunities to protect children. Figure 1 is a general example of such a flow diagram, showing the various phases of a child’s movement.

2.5. The particular circumstances of “children who are left behind”

The children of parents who migrate and leave their children behind cannot be categorised as “children on the move”. However, they are in a somewhat analogous situation, as they are deprived of the presence of one or both parents and sometimes exposed as a consequence to greater risks than children living with their parents. When both parents have migrated, alternative care arrangements are needed by younger children, who may live safely with grandparents, but may be placed in a less safe environment, for example in child-headed households of the sort which also occur when both parents have died.

Like children on the move, “children who are left behind” or “home alone children” do not automatically experience abuse or need to be the subject of active child protection measures. However, in the same way that this handbook urges you to review whether you are engaged in suitable activities to protect children on the move, similar questions arise concerning children who are left behind. On the one hand, children left behind are believed to benefit from the remittances sent by a parent who has migrated: there is evidence for this in several parts of the world. On the other hand, numerous cases have been reported where particular children suffered as a result of the absence of one or both parents, precisely because they were required to fill the gap left by their absent parent in the household economy.

Rather than basing any initiative to protect children left behind on general assumptions, in this case, as in the case of children on the move, it is essential to collect evidence about children’s experiences in any area where an intervention is envisaged, so that this can have maximum benefits for the children most in need.
2.6. Possible disadvantages to staying at home

Over the past decade, millions of dollars have been invested in projects designed to encourage children to remain at home, in the expectation that children living at home will attend school and are more likely to complete their basic education than those who migrate away.

Many children are indeed better off remaining at home, but it is important to take into account the data available about children who are put at a disadvantage by living at home.

Examples include the following:

- Many children do not have access to primary school while living at home (yet alone to a full basic education);
- Some girls are pressed by their parents to get married from as early as 12 onwards, not only truncating their childhood, but also exposing them to the health risks associated with childbirth at an early age;
- Many children have to start work for their parents at an early age. Apart from stopping them attending school, this means they do not accumulate any cash or saving for themselves;
- Many start work for others at an early age (and in some cases any wages go straight to one of their parents);
- Many live in cultures which are dominated by older people, particularly older men, in which children control no material resources and have not to say in decisions affecting their lives and their future.

All these negative factors could be resolved in the long-term, but in the short-term they mean that some children feel they would be better off moving away from home, rather than being persuaded to remain at home. So, whether we like it or not, millions of children continue to leave home and to seek a living elsewhere before reaching the age of 16, many of them when they are much younger. Such children are entitled to protection after they leave home.

2.7. EXERCISE

The exercise in this chapter is intended to allow you time to reflect on the implications of the term “children on the move” and to consider which children that you encounter (or know of in your country) come into this category.

The exercise involves working in a group of four or five people. Try to ensure that the members of the group have something in common (i.e., come from the same country or belong to the same organisation, as otherwise the disagreements between group members may take too long to complete the exercise).

Spend up to one hour considering some of the eight questions below. Choose the questions that seem relevant in your country, identify problems or issues that might be relevant for your own work and remember that there are no “correct” or “wrong” answers. Ask one member of the group to take notes and be ready to share your conclusions with others.

- Does this term (children on the move) make any sense to you?
- Do you come across children on the move?
- Do you come across children who might be “children on the move”, but you are not sure if the term is appropriate to apply to them? In this case, list the characteristics of the children concerned or their movement in order to assess later on whether the comments in this Handbook apply to them or not.
- Does this term make sense for children who do not live with their families, such as children attending boarding school or orphans living in a residential institution (orphanages)?
- Should the term apply to children who travel in groups to work away from home for period of several weeks or months and who then return home?
- Do you reckon that most children who have “moved” (or been moved) have been trafficked?
- How long should a child who has moved away from home and settled down elsewhere be regarded as a “child on the move”?
- Do you come across “children who have been left behind”?

Towards the end of this exercise, please discuss whether it might be helpful to consider children who move within their own country in the same category as children who move from one country to another, or whether the situation of children arriving in a new country (alone or with other family members) is so different that it is better to consider them separately.

If it is relatively frequent in your country for adolescents to get married and move away from home while under 18, for example to live with their spouse and in-laws, also discuss whether it could be helpful to consider such young people (in most parts of the world they are girls) as “children on the move”.

FURTHER READING (AVAILABLE ON INTERNET)


3 WHAT GOOD AND BAD EXPERIENCES DO CHILDREN ON THE MOVE HAVE?

Organisations concerned with the welfare or protection of children generally focus their attention on the abuse or harm that children experience, trying to prevent it or to assist and protect children who have already suffered harm. However, some children who migrate or move to live somewhere new are better off as a result, while others experience greater abuse and some are neither better nor worse off. There is some potential for NGOs and others concerned with children to take action that will increase the likelihood that a child will benefit from moving, as well as action to reduce the risks. Consequently, this chapter suggests that you should take stock of the possible positive consequences of migration and movement, as well as focusing on the risks.

3.1. What are the positive opportunities for children on the move?

Children who move with their parents are likely to benefit from any improvements acquired by the family as a whole (in terms of material improvements, for example due to an increase in household income or access to better facilities). So too, children who move on their own may get a variety of benefits. What do you think these benefits might be? Might they include the following?

- Educational or training opportunities (some children only have a chance to attend education classes once they migrate to a town, whether formal school or non-formal education);
- Economic opportunities (getting a job that leads to another; earning an income and giving a child some spending power or enabling the child to make savings; acquiring skills which can be used outside a working environment);
- Social mobility (by joining new networks and forming new relationships, including ones that eventually result in marriage);
- Greater opportunity to get access to other services, such as health services;
- Improved security (after leaving a place affected by violence or a natural disaster);
- Personal development in other ways.

Further, the constraints on children who continue living in a traditional, family environment should not be underestimated. Apart from the domestic violence and risk of early marriage for girls that were mentioned earlier, other traditions and cultural practices potentially have negative effects on both boys and girls.

Organisations which are in routine contact with groups of young people who have experience of being “on the move” but who have not necessarily been subjected to serious abuse, such as organisations providing services to street children or child domestic workers (or children working in other specific sectors), are more likely to be in a position to collect neutral information about both the positive and negative experiences that the children concerned have had.

For example, an NGO operating in Lima, the capital of Peru, published the results of a consultation with children employed as domestic workers in three cities in Peru. While most of the focus was on their experiences after starting work (including both positive and negative experiences), the consultation asked children about how they had been recruited. Virtually all those consulted were adolescent girls and many had managed to get time off work to attend education classes (in particular after arriving in the capital to work there) and spoke positively about the opportunities this had opened up. The NGO in question criticises the way households employ children as live-in domestic workers, but was nevertheless able to identify some advantages for the children concerned.

In summary, children who have moved have new opportunities, some of which enable them to exercise more of the rights listed in the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) than before.
3.2. Identifying risks: what do we mean by “exploitation”?  

The word “exploitation” implies that someone else is able to make money or a profit out of a child or adult. In the context of initiatives to protect humans and children’s rights, it refers more specifically to cases in which someone has taken advantage of another in a way which is unfair or results in the exploited person suffering harm. Exploitation is just one of the many forms of abuse experienced by children. This handbook uses the term “abuse” to refer to the broader set of “forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation” to which the CRC entitles children to protection (in article 19).

3.2.1. A child’s right to be protected against exploitation

The CRC says that children have a “right of the child to be protected from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child’s education, or to be harmful to the child’s health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development” (article 32).

The CRC requires States (i.e., governments) to take various measures to protect children from economic exploitation, such as fixing a minimum age for children to enter full-time employment. It commits States to protecting children “from all forms of sexual exploitation and sexual abuse” (article 34) and “against all other forms of exploitation prejudicial to any aspects of the child’s welfare” (article 36). It also commits States to taking a range of “measures to prevent the abduction of, the sale of or traffic in children for any purpose or in any form” (article 35).

This means that children have a clear right not to be exploited, although the precise parameters of what is meant by “exploitation” are not spelled out.

Nevertheless, millions of children routinely experience some form of exploitation, some very harmful and others less harmful. Six notorious examples involve:

   a) commercial sexual exploitation (prostitution or making pornography);
   b) slavery or the use of coercion to keep a child working (known as servitude or forced labour) in a range of activities. In 2012 the International Labour Office (ILO) estimated that 5.5 million children around the world were being forced to work. Children are forced to work in many different occupations, such as begging, domestic work and various forms of agricultural or sweatshop work. It is not the fact that a child is working in a particular type of work which signifies that she or he is the victim of human rights abuse, but rather the fact that the child is subjected to some form of force or constraint and is not entitled to leave. Sometimes it is the nature of the child’s working conditions (such as particularly long working hours) that indicates that a child is not merely working, but is being subjected to slavery or coercion. Sometimes it is the use of cruel, inhuman or degrading punishment or treatment;
   c) forced or voluntary recruitment as soldiers or auxiliaries for use in armed conflict (whether a branch of the government’s security forces or an opposition fighting force);
   d) recruitment into illicit or illegal activities (such as drug smuggling or stealing);
   e) work which is hazardous or likely to harm children’s health;
   f) recruitment into full-time work at a very young age, meaning that the child concerned may be prevented from receiving a basic education, whether the work involved is easy or difficult. The CRC and other international law require governments to specify a minimum age for young people to start full-time work, but unfortunately in some countries a minimum age has been stipulated that is in line with international standards but which disregards what generally happens in the country concerned. So, while international standards suggest that no children should work full-time before they are 14 years old, in practice it is necessary to know what local standards are observed in practice in order to assess which children should be regarded as “recruited into full-time work at a very young age”.

Apart from the last case mentioned (“f”), these forms of exploitation are known collectively as the “worst forms of child labour” (for a definition, see the Glossary). At the beginning of the last decade the ILO estimated that the number of children engaged in hazardous work (category “e” in the list above) was 170.5 million around the world (of whom 111 million were aged under 15). The numbers engaged in the other “worst forms” listed above were significantly fewer: estimated to be a total of 6.4 million.

With such huge numbers of children involved, many organisations wanting to protect children against exploitation decide to give priority to children experiencing just one of these sorts of exploitation. For much the same reason, some donor agencies, which were willing to support programmes aimed at stopping children from being exploited, decided they wanted to focus on those children who were exploited in the worst ways and allocated their money specifically to initiatives to stop children from being trafficked. Children who have been trafficked include some who have been recruited in their places of origin and taken elsewhere (by traffickers) to be exploited. However, they also include children who opt to leave home themselves and to migrate in order to earn a living and who only come under the control of traffickers later on.

In recent years the term “sexual exploitation” has also been used to refer to cases in which children accept money or favours in return for a sexual act, even if they keep the money themselves rather than passing it on to anyone else: i.e., instead of using the word “exploitation” to refer to someone else making money out of the child, it refers to the act of sex with a child when the child is remunerated with cash or in some other way.

9. ILO Global Estimate of Forced Labour: Results and Methodology, International Labour Office, Special Action Programme to Combat Forced Labour, Geneva, June 2012. Out of the total of 5.5 million children, the ILO’s estimates suggested that 70 per cent of the total (3.8 million) are being exploited to work, 17 per cent (941,000) experience sexual exploitation, and 13 per cent (728,000) are recruited into armed groups or obliged to work by their government.

10. This category covers situations in which children are abducted or enslaved. It also includes situations in which children are in debt bondage (a situation where a child is required to work in order to pay a loan which either the child herself or someone else has borrowed, though more often than not the loan is borrowed by the child’s parent or another relative). E.G.: A boy without a job, 2012, page 18. The 8.4 million were reckoned to include 5.7 million children in bonded or bonded labour, 1.8 million in prostitution or pornography, 300,000 who had been forcibly recruited into armed conflict, and 600,000 in other illicit activities. The ILO relied on estimates made in 2000 based on various secondary sources.
3.2.2 Children who are trafficked

The word “trafficking” is used to refer to a range of practices in which individuals are recruited by means of force or other forms of coercion or deception for some specific forms of exploitation. The standard definition is set out in the UN Trafficking Protocol adopted in 2000. The UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, referred to here as the “UN Trafficking Protocol”, which supplements the UN Convention on Transnational Organized Crime of 2000, explains what both “trafficking in persons” and the “exploitation” associated with trafficking mean (in its article 3a):

“Trafficking in persons” shall mean
“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.”
“Exploitation shall include, at a minimum:
“the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs” (emphasis/underlining added)."

What distinguishes cases of trafficking in children from other situations in which employment agents or other intermediaries help children to leave their homes or their countries by offering them jobs elsewhere, is that trafficking is characterised by a phase of exploitation and traffickers are aware that the people they recruit will end up in one of the forms of exploitation listed at the end of the definition cited above. Traffickers who recruit and move children are aware that the young people concerned will subsequently be subjected to one of these forms of exploitation. It is important to note, however, that not all agents or intermediaries who recruit children are traffickers (although there has been a tendency in some regions to assume that they all are).

There is continuing debate about how and when terms such as “exploited” and “trafficked” should be applied to adolescents who are obliged to get married without giving their full, informed consent. Forced marriage is a violation of human rights, whether the person who is forced to marry is a child or an adult. In some parts of the world, intermediaries are involved in abducting or tricking adolescents into leaving home and then delivering them into a forced marriage. This is certainly a form of human trafficking and it seems correct to regard the young person involved as “exploited”.

3.3. EXERCISES to develop a chart about the experience of children on the move

The exercises in this chapter are more substantial than in the other chapters and will take longer to carry out. Now that the term “children on the move” has been explained and you have given some thought to the positive opportunities for such children, as well as the negative risks, it is your turn to develop a chart along the lines of Figure 1 in Chapter 2: a chart which, on the basis of your existing knowledge about such children, identifies the specific phases or stages connected with the way children move and the potential benefits and risks for children.

Please work in a small group (up to five people) for one and a half to two hours on this exercise. The aim is to produce one or more flow diagrams, formed out of separate pieces of card or paper. You will have an opportunity at the end of the exercise to explain your flow diagram to others, rather than reporting to the plenary.

PART 1 of this exercise is to identify one or more common patterns in the way children move (e.g., when recruited from a village and taken to a city to work, or when migrating from one country to another, either to escape persecution or to earn a living).

PART 2 involves scrutinising the particular risks to which children are exposed in the different phases and also identify benefits they may obtain. You should aim to spend up to 45 minutes on each part of the exercise.

PART 1 - Identifying the usual phases in a child’s migration or movement

Develop a flow diagram of the stages (or “phases”) that a child passes through when moving away from home or when migrating. If members of the group are familiar with the same set of children, the group should produce a single flow diagram. If each person in the group knows children with quite different experiences, each member of the group may design a separate flow diagram, but this is likely to take longer.

Use separate pieces of card or paper to illustrate each phase, writing on it what the phase represents. Place them on the wall (vertically or horizontally; it does not matter), leaving some space on either side to add further details in Part 2 of this exercise (which concerns the risks and opportunities to protect children or promote their chances of success). In some regions of the world, the word “trajectory” is used to refer to the path that children follow, implying both that they move between places and also that they develop and change along the way. Are there common patterns in the way children move in the examples with which you are familiar?

Are they the same for boys and girls, or for children of different ages and maturity? Look at the eight “phases” in Figure 2 below. Is this diagram helpful or does it represent an “idealised” world which is irrelevant to the children you encounter and the way they move and develop?

You may not think of children’s experience in the way suggested in Figure 2, particularly if you are aware of recruiters or traffickers who lure children away from home, to take them elsewhere to be put to work or exploited. However, most such children still live through these phases. Consider whether the trajectories of different categories of children differ in a fundamental way, e.g., according to gender or age.

The fact that some children have better or worse experiences does not necessarily mean that the overall trajectory is different: however, a trafficked child may get stuck in Phase 5 (for example, when subjected to commercial sexual exploitation or bonded labour) for longer than others.

If your organisation is involved in intercepting or rescuing children, you may not be aware what happens to other children who are not intercepted. While some may be exploited and remain in this situation for a long time, others may experience abuse or exploitation for a relatively short time and then continue their journey through life in a more normal way.

12. It is important to note that children and adults are not treated the same in this definition. The means listed in the definition are not required for a case involving a child to be regarded as trafficking.
PHASES IN MOVEMENT OR MIGRATION

PHASE 1 HOME OR HOME-LIKE ENVIRONMENT
Child is living with birth parent or parents or others in family or family-like situation (or possibly in an institution).

PHASE 2 PREPARATION TO LEAVE
Child prepares to depart (or has left home but is still living near parents or relatives).

PHASE 3 TRAVEL AND TRANSIT
Sometimes a single journey, but often with overnight stops and transiting through bus or train stations, ports or border points. Often with longer-term stops, while the child explores a new place and finds out if s/he has reached Phase 4 (arrival) or not.

PHASE 4 ARRIVAL
Immediately after arrival, child has to seek lodging or somewhere to sleep; later on, child may seek employment and social contacts to ensure survival. This initial period is distinct from a later “plateau” when some sort of routine has been established.

PHASE 5 LIVING AWAY FROM HOME AND EARNING A LIVING
A (relatively) more settled “plateau” at their destination, e.g., sometimes involving employment or a relatively standard livelihood; sometimes getting access to education; sometimes involving abuse and exploitation; sometimes joining street children or criminals in an effort to survive. Some children decide to stay at this destination indefinitely; after a certain amount of time (but it is often unclear how long) it ceases to be appropriate to regard them as still “on the move”.

PHASE 6
Possibly further travel/moves, each followed by similar efforts to find accommodation and a livelihood.

PHASE 7
Sometimes – Return home, either to visit or for longer.

PHASE 8
...Often followed by a new departure.

PART 2 Identifying risks and opportunities
Once you have made a chart that represents a child’s journey or trajectory and shown this to others, it is time to revisit the flow diagram to identify the risks and benefits that might be associated with each of the phases you have identified.

Note on a separate card (a different colour, if available, such as red) the potential risks that a young person might encounter and place this next to the card describing each phase. Also, on a separate (if available, green/another colour) card, note the possible benefits that a young person might encounter at this phase. See Figure 4 (below) as an example.

You should have 45 minutes or more to list risks and benefits. Please complete red and green cards (potential risks and benefits) for as many of the phases as possible. If 45 minutes is not enough time to list the risks and benefits associated with all phases, you could divide up the task among group members, with different people concentrating on phases that they know about. Try not to focus exclusively on the risk of abuse that children might experience.

Consider the following as well:
Examples of good outcomes for children who move; Examples of satisfactory outcomes for children who move; Examples of almost satisfactory outcomes for children who move; Examples of abuse and bad outcomes for children who move, which involve being trafficked; Examples of abuse and bad outcomes for children who move, which DO NOT involve being trafficked or exploited.
### Figure 4: Examples of Risks and Benefits Associated with the Phase 1 in the Trajectory of a Child on the Move

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Risks (examples)</th>
<th>Phase in Movement or Migration</th>
<th>Benefits (examples)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Domestic violence or abuse</td>
<td>Phase 1: At Home</td>
<td>1. Socialization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forced or early marriage (mainly for girls)</td>
<td>Child is living with birth parent or others</td>
<td>2. Parental care and support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not able or allowed to attend school</td>
<td>or parents in family</td>
<td>3. Learning values from family and community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bullied at school (or sexually harassed)</td>
<td>or family-like situation.</td>
<td>4. Possibly attending school and getting school education, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drop out of school to start work prematurely</td>
<td></td>
<td>5. Learning a vocation from a parent or relative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Few or no work/entertainment opportunities near home (children are bored)</td>
<td></td>
<td>6. Contributing to the household economy in a variety of ways</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child is obliged to work with and for parents, but receives no direct remuneration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child has no option but to work for local landlord or a single employer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family cannot afford to look after child and puts pressures on child to move away and start earning a wage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abduction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Once you have completed Part 2 of this exercise, look at the flow diagrams prepared by others and note questions or explanations that you would like to ask them. You can also think about the opportunities which each phase offers to your organisation or others to protect children on the move or to improve their chances of success.

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### 4 Taking Stock of the Rights of Children on the Move

Children on the move have the same rights as every other child under the terms of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) adopted in 1989. A traditional approach has been to focus on their welfare and to emphasise their rights to protection (from economic or sexual exploitation and also protection from other forms of abuse). However, there are particular rights which children on the move have greater difficulty in exercising than other children.

#### 4.1. The 4 Foundation Stones for Child Rights

As children who are unaccompanied or seeking asylum in other countries are routinely the subject of decisions about their future taken by either government agencies or NGOs, it is also important for such NGOs (and government agencies) to take note of the four key rights established by the CRC, which are particularly important for anyone making decisions that affect a child to take into account. These are:

- The right to non-discrimination (i.e., not to suffer discrimination of any kind; see CRC article 2.1);
- The right to have the best interests of the child taken into account as a primary consideration in any decision or action affecting the child (CRC article 3.1);
- The right to life, survival and development (CRC article 6); and the right to be heard (CRC article 12).

While all four are considered key, two are given special attention in this Handbook ("best interests" and the right to be heard), as both are particularly relevant to organisations which try to influence children on the move or to provide assistance to them. The next chapter (Chapter 5) focuses on how organisations which are in direct contact with children and which make decisions affecting a child's future can ensure that a child's best interests are a primary consideration in their decisions. This has major implications for any organisation seeking to influence children who are travelling by themselves or who reach a new country where they have no legal entitlement to remain. A subsequent chapter (Chapter 7) pays particular attention to a child right to be heard and how organisations which are in direct contact with children can find out what the views and aspirations of children on the move are and enable them to exercise this right.

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13. The CRC refers to the requirement that States shall avoid discrimination based on "the child's or his or her parent's or legal guardian's race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, disability, birth, or other status". Some governments interpret this to mean that "it is thematically better or inappropriate to reserve to the CRC, they may discriminate against a child on the basis of his or her [national] origin and the fact that he or she has no entitlement to be in the country concerned."
4.2. Other key rights for children on the move

Apart from having less access to adequate protection than children who remain at home, children on the move who settle in a new country or destination (with or without other members of their family) generally experience more difficulty in exercising a range of other key rights, including the following rights:

- privacy (CRC article 16)
- information (CRC article 17)
- health care (CRC article 24)
- housing (CRC article 27)
- education (CRC article 28) rest
- leisure and participation in cultural activities (CRC article 31)
- and protection against a range of forms of abuse (CRC articles 19 and 32 to 39)

Considering the situation of children in emergency situations, the Inter-Agency Guiding Principles on Unaccompanied and Separated Children focus on the rights of separated children which require particular attention, mentioning:

- the right to a name, legal identity and birth registration
- the right to physical and legal protection
- the right not to be separated from their parents
- the right to provisions for their basic subsistence
- the right to care and assistance appropriate to their age and developmental needs
- the right to participate in decisions about their future

In some places they are subjected to harassment or persecution (either by officials or by members of the general public) because they are perceived to be “foreigners” (i.e., on the basis of discrimination) or are deprived of their freedom of movement by being detained, simply because they are not entitled to be in the country to which they have moved. Article 37 (b) of the CRC specifies the child’s right not to “be deprived of his or her liberty unlawfully or arbitrarily” and the Committee on the Rights of the Child has commented that.

Detention cannot be justified solely on the basis of the child being unaccompanied or separated, or on their migratory or residence status, or lack thereof. Where detention is exceptionally justified for other reasons, it shall be conducted in accordance with article 37 (b) of the Convention [the CRC] that requires detention to conform to the law of the relevant country and only to be used as a measure of last resort and for the shortest appropriate period of time”.

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5. International standards which concern children on the move

5.1. Children who move in their own country

International standards on internal movement focus principally on situations which arise in emergencies, such as natural disasters or armed conflicts. These standards are intended to influence the activities of organisations which provide assistance to children in such circumstances. Despite the massive numbers of children who migrate from rural areas to cities in many developing countries, their situation is not the subject of a special set of standards. Instead, a variety of provisions in international standards (concerning child rights, but also crime and social policy) apply to them.

The UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement (1998) present 30 principles concerning everyone who is forcibly displaced, in particular on account of armed conflict. Principle 4 calls for various categories of people with special needs, including “children, especially unaccompanied minors” to be given protection and assistance. Principle 17 calls for family reunification to be a priority when children have been separated from other family members.

At a more operational level, the Inter-Agency Guiding Principles on Unaccompanied and Separated Children are intended primarily for organisations (national, international and non-governmental, i.e., NGOs) concerned with separated children. Once again, their focus is on emergency situations, referring to children who become separated from their families or from other adults normally responsible for them in the course of armed conflicts, mass population displacements, natural disasters and other crises. These principles also give particular attention to family reunification. They give consideration to the special requirements of refugee children.

A series of international standards apply to all children but may be particularly relevant for unaccompanied or separated children who earn a living for themselves away from home. These include several ILO conventions, such as ILO Convention No. 138 concerning Minimum Age for Admission to Employment (1973) and ILO Convention No. 182 concerning the Prohibition and Immediate Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour (1999).

Some provisions of other international standards are also particularly relevant to children on the move. For example, the UN Guidelines on the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency ( Riyadh Guidelines), adopted in 1990 and addressed to governments, suggest that:

Special attention should be given to children of families affected by problems brought about by rapid and uneven economic, social and cultural change, in particular the children of indigenous, migrant and refugee families. As such changes may disrupt the social capacity of the family to secure the traditional rearing and nurturing of children, often as a result of role and culture conflict, innovative and socially constructive modalities for the socialization of children have to be designed” (article 15, emphasis added).

Article 34 of the same Guidelines suggests that “special facilities should be set up to provide adequate shelter for young persons who are no longer able to live at home or who do not have homes to live in”. However, these Guidelines have no mechanism to bring about their implementation.

5.1.2. Child refugees and asylum-seekers

There are specific international standards concerning child refugees (whether they are accompanied by their parents or other relatives or unaccompanied) and the protection to which they are entitled, notably protection by the authorities in the country where they seek asylum.

The guidelines and handbooks devoted to children who are refugees or who apply for asylum are based on rights set out in the Convention relating to the Status of Refugees (1951) and emphasise the principle of non-refoulement, i.e., that no Contracting State shall expel or return (“refouler”) a refugee against his or her will, in any manner whatsoever, to a territory “where his life or freedom would be threatened on account of his race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion” (article 33).

Particular guidance is available for organisations working with or for child refugees in certain regions. For example, in Europe the Separated Children in Europe Programme (SCEP) has published a series of “Statements of good practice” which summarise the policies and practices required to implement and protect the rights of separated children in Europe.

Much of the guidance available outlines the process by which organisations which have formal responsibility for unaccompanied or separated children (as well as those for providing care or assistance to the children) should proceed in assessing their cases, notably in cases where the child concerned might be a refugee. For example, the UNHCR (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees) illustrates the process to be followed when an organisation receives an unaccompanied or separated child in the following flow diagram (making several references to “BID” or “best interests determination”, which is explained later in this chapter and also in the Glossary.

68. Both ILO conventions were accessed at http://www.ilo.org/englis/whs/whs/potp.htm.
70. SCEP is a joint initiative of the Save the Children Alliance, UNHCR and UNICEF. Its website is http://www.separatedchildren-europe-programme.org/index.html. SCEP has issued publications on numerous aspects of the way separated children should be treated, such as a Position Paper on Age Assessment in the Context of Separated Children in Europe in 2012. The most recent (2011) SCEP “Statement of Good Practice” was accessed in 2012 at http://www.savethechildren.net/separated_children/potp_practice_notes.html.
5.2. Assessing the best interests of the child

The CRC stipulates (article 3.1) that:

"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" (emphasis added).

Note that some commentators who refer to this best interests principle paraphrase it to say that "a child's best interests must always be paramount." This is not what the CRC article says. It implies that decision-makers are likely to have to take into account several considerations, in which case some may be accorded higher priority than others (i.e., some are a "primary consideration", while others are a secondary consideration). In such circumstances, the CRC requires that a child's best interests should be a primary consideration, but not necessarily the only consideration taken into account.

5.2.1. Obligations for NGOs and other organisations in contact with children

The words "public or private social welfare institutions" are highlighted in the CRC article above because this is the status of government-run child protection agencies and most NGOs that provide accommodation for children or arrange protection or assistance for children. This provision confirms that such NGOs (as well as government-run agencies) have a legal obligation to make the best interests of the child a primary consideration in all actions that concern either an individual child or a group of children. In principle this applies both to decisions made that concern an individual child who is being looked after in residential accommodation and also to preventive actions that are intended to influence a wider group of children (such as actions to prevent adolescents being exploited).

The CRC also requires governments to take children’s views into account in all matters affecting the child, in accordance with their age and maturity (article 12). This requirement also applies to decisions made by private social welfare institutions (i.e., NGOs), as well as administrative authorities (which makes decisions about, for example, the asylum request of a separated or unaccompanied child), public services, courts of law or legislative bodies. This in turn means that these institutions (including NGOs) should have procedures in place for deciding what action is most likely to be in a child’s best interests and for taking the child’s views into account for example, when deciding on whether a child should remain in a particular shelter or residential institution.
5.2.2. Determining the best interests of children who have moved to a different country

The procedures that government agencies are supposed to follow when a child is identified in a country other than his or her country of origin have been the subject of comment by the Committee on the Rights of the Child and (in the case of children who apply for refugee status) the UNHCR. In General Comment No. 6 on the “treatment of unaccompanied and separated children outside their country of origin”, the Committee on the Rights of the Child noted that, “in the case of a displaced child, the principle must be respected during all stages of the displacement cycle. At any of these stages, a best interests determination must be documented in preparation of any decision fundamentally impacting on the unaccompanied or separated child’s life” (paragraph 19).

The Committee has also stressed that, when children seek refugee status (i.e., in a country other than their own), States must ensure that, “whether unaccompanied or accompanied by his or her parents or by any other person”, they receive appropriate protection and humanitarian assistance. There is also an obligation on States to cooperate in efforts “to protect and assist such a child and to trace the parents or other members of the family of any refugee child in order to obtain information necessary for reunification with his or her family”.

The UNHCR has developed a series of procedures to enable the authorities in countries where children seek asylum to work out what is in the best interests of an individual child, prior to making a decision about their future. This is known as a “best interests determination” (BID). In most industrialised countries there are relatively well established systems for responding when unaccompanied children from other countries arrive, particularly if the children concerned choose to seek asylum (which is often the only way for a child from a developing country to reside legally in an industrialised country). However, the systems and procedures that are used are not necessarily consistent with the UNHCR’s procedures; in particular, they do not necessarily make the best interests of an individual child applying for asylum a “primary consideration” when a decision is made.

Alongside a “best interests determination”, the UNHCR has recognized that there are other circumstances in which decisions have to be made, which have less drastic impact than decisions on whether to grant a child asylum or not and whether a child should be returned (to his or her country of origin). It calls these a “best interests assessment”. It illustrates the differences in the following diagram.

5.2.3. Ensuring a child’s best interests are a primary consideration when NGOs make decisions about children moving within their own country or into neighbouring countries

Similar principles to those developed by the UNHCR need to be applied in quite different circumstances when key decisions are made that affect the long term future of a child, in particular decisions about whether a child who has travelled away from home should be reunited with his or her parents, placed in alternative care or supported in independent living. In principle, it is government child protection services or courts which have legal responsibility for making such major decisions, but, in areas where government is weak, other organisations sometimes play a leading role. Further, it is often NGOs which provide front-line services to unaccompanied and separated children and which end up, whether they like it or not, making decisions that will have a major impact on a child.

Once an NGO either takes control of a child or makes decisions which substantially affect a child (for example, to help the child return home, or to refer the child to a residential centre), article 3 of the CRC means that the NGO has a legal obligation to make the best interests of that child a primary consideration in their actions and decisions. It also implies that the NGO should “document” (i.e., keep a record) of what the decision was and what factors were taken into account in reaching the decision. One NGO, Save the Children, has published a toolkit on this topic: Best Interests Determination for children on the move: a

5.2.4. The challenge of balancing a child’s right to protection with other rights

Assessing what is in the best interests of an individual child is not easy. In all cases, it means exploring the implications of the options that are available for the child (such as the six identified above for children arriving in South Africa), in effect predicting what the results of the various options are likely to be (and identifying significant risks associated with any of them). For example, if there is a possibility of family reunification, it means that information about the potential situation at home has to be obtained and taken into account.

In most parts of the world, it is still reported to be rare for NGOs to have developed a formal procedure for making a “best interests assessment” for individual children (such as street children or others referred to it for care) or to help the NGO decide which of the various options open for a child is the most appropriate. This implies that the NGOs concerned are not yet ready to comply with the requirements of the CRC.

Balancing the best interests of the child with the rights of others

The UNHCR has observed that the interests of a child sometimes conflict with those of other people. For example, it has observed that, “the placement in a foster family of a child suffering from tuberculosis may well be in his or her best interests in the short term, but may lead to infection within the family, if placement takes place prior to treatment”26. In exceptional cases such as this, a decision may be made to override best interests considerations, in which case it ought to be carefully analysed and documented.

Balancing some of a child’s rights against other rights

Taking a human rights approach to any decisions, including best interests assessments, means recognising that not all of a person’s rights can be given equal priority (or, in the case of a child, all the rights mentioned in the CRC). Some, such as a child’s right to life, survival and development, evidently require more priority than others.

Balancing a child’s aspirations (to a better future, for example by migrating and earning a living) against the risks that might be involved is a challenge. Giving priority to protecting children from harm has sometimes meant that children have been prevented from leaving their villages (in order to migrate) despite their wish to do so (or even despite the harm they experience while living at home). It has also meant that they have been intercepted while in transit on the way to a place where they intended to find a job, or been obliged to travel more clandestinely than in the past in order to avoid the attention of police or others who want to “protect” them by intercepting them. Some NGOs take part in programmes which require them to react in such ways. Others find it easier to adopt a “one-size-fits-all” solution (such as a policy that child labour is unacceptable and children should be prevented from leaving home and starting work before reaching a certain minimum age), rather than carrying any sort of individual assessment about what course of action is in the child’s best interests.

More general information about the “best interests of the child” and what actions are necessary to ensure that organisations protecting or assisting children respect this principle is available in a number of publications and on a number of web-sites26.

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26. Save the Children UK South Africa Programme, September 2000. This was accessed in 2011 at http://www.southafrica.savethechildren.org.za/Designdocuments/Best_interests_children/more-tasks/Decision-making. Organisations consulting this toolkit are invited to forward their comments on to Save the Children e-mail: info@southafrica.savethechildren.org.za
5.3. Other assessments that organisations in direct contact with children must make, including risk assessments

The “best interests” principle should permeate all the decisions made by an organisation that affect children, both in terms of its advocacy work (e.g., calling for changes in government policies affecting children) and its operational decisions about individual children. However, decisions about an individual child usually have to take into account the full range of a child’s needs, and these vary from child to child. For organisations which are in direct contact with children, it is particularly important to have procedures and protocols in place (usually in the form of a case management system) to carry out appropriate assessments of a child’s needs, as well as to keep the child safe throughout the time that an organisation is looking after the child (whether this is for a matter of hours or for many months)37.

There are several different types of assessment. One overall comprehensive assessment is necessary, but within that assessment there may be a number of more specialist assessments that are also carried out38. For example, one handbook on the operation of care facilities describes seven separate categories of assessment (protection assessment, medical assessment, psychological assessment, legal assessment, social assessment, literacy/skills assessment and family and community assessment)39. In the case of children who reside in the care of an organisation, the comprehensive assessment should result in a care plan, developed in consultation with the child concerned.

While most assessments focus on a child’s current needs, a best interests assessment (like a best interests determination) reviews the child’s future options. It consequently requires information to be collected from a variety of sources, notably about the child’s prospects at home, if family reunification is one of the options under consideration. For unaccompanied or separated children, risk assessments are particularly vital. In the short term these should identify possible immediate threats to a child’s security (for example, from a trafficker). When assessing what course of action will be in a child’s best interests in the longer term, all the risks associated with each of the options open to a child need to be taken into account40.

32. The CRC does not make any reference to “risk assessment” or to a child’s right to be the subject of a formal risk assessment in particular circumstances. However, when commenting on the procedures that the authorities should take when they are contemplating returning a child to a country other than its own, the Committee as the rights of the child has emphasized that the safety of unaccompanied or separated children must be the subject of individual assessment, involving a risk assessment that focuses on “safety, security and conditions” and of the “availability of care arrangements” (General Comment No. 1, paragraph 85).
5.3.1. What risks need assessing?

In practice organisations making decisions that affect children (particularly individual children) must assess the risks associated with different options virtually every time they choose a course of action that affects the child. In principle, this is essential so that no action taken by an organisation puts a child into harm’s way or causes more harm than good. In order to determine what course of action is in a child’s best interests, it is frequently necessary to assess what risks the child is exposed to, in order to see which course of action offers the minimum risk. However, it is important to note that this may not be the approach preferred by an individual child, who may favour a more risky option over a less risky one. The period of time which a risk assessment should review (concerning what is likely to happen to a child in the future) is undefined, but it certainly covers the period that immediately follows the implementation of any new course of action affecting a child.

5.3.2. Considering the risks associated with the options open to a child

If one option under consideration for a child is to move the child to live elsewhere, it is important to find out in advance what arrangements would be available to care for the child and whether these are adequate. In the context of making decisions about children who have been trafficked, a UNICEF Reference Guide explained that,

“Risk assessment explores the circumstances of the home and community to which the child is likely to return, in order to assess whether it is in the child’s best interests to return there. Initiated by the same social service or child welfare authority wherever the child is located, it requires information from an agency in the child’s country of origin, which is familiar with the child’s family or the home of the person who is going to take responsibility of the child (or the institution which is going to do so) and the surrounding community”.

Likewise, it is important to assess the risks of not moving the child elsewhere, but of placing the child in alternative care on a long-term basis, for example in residential accommodation run by an NGO. Every organisation which runs an institution proving short- or long-term accommodation for children is proud of its service and assumes that living in this accommodation is going to be in a child’s best interests. For this reason, it is particularly important in such circumstances that the child should be advised by someone independent who is able to make a genuinely objective assessment of the options available. In the case of unaccompanied and separated children in a country other than their own, the Committee on the Rights of the Child has stressed the importance of appointing a guardian for each child.

5.3.3. Assessing possible risks to the security of a child on the move

Finding out about the security situation in any place where a child on the move might travel to or be relocated to and identifying any particular threats that an individual child might face is important for all children. In the context of making decisions about children who have been trafficked, the same UNICEF Reference Guide emphasises the importance of a “security assessment” (which in many circumstances may be part of a general risk assessment). It says:

“The security assessment focuses primarily on possible threats to the child or her/his relatives from traffickers and their associates. As such it considers security threats that are specific to a child who has been trafficked and those affecting any children returning to the child’s country of origin. For this purpose, the relevant social service or child welfare authority in the country in which a trafficked child is located should collect information from law enforcement officials or an intelligence agency involved in law enforcement in the child’s country of origin, or from an international police organization”.

5.3.4. Keeping records of best interests assessments and risk assessments

Does your organisation carry out risk assessments? If so, do you keep records of every assessment?

It is important to keep records of all decisions concerning an individual child. Case management systems usually indicate the way in which information and records are to be kept, as well as making reference to standards of practice. The results of all best interest assessments, risk assessments and other needs assessments should be kept in the same way, i.e., in a secure place. This in turn implies that your organisation should have a policy on privacy and confidentiality and guidelines for staff and volunteers on procedures to ensure confidentiality and privacy.

33. For example, choices such as, “should the child be reunited with her/his family” or “should a child who has been subjected to abuse be encouraged to stay with the employer who was responsible for this abuse, if the employer guarantees not to repeat the abuse, or should the child be moved elsewhere”.
5.4. EXERCISE to see how your organisation makes decisions affecting children on the move

Once again, carry out this exercise in pairs – if possible with another person who works for the same organisation. Spend up to 45 minutes discussing the following four questions and note your answers on a flip chart or paper so that you can share them with colleagues.

1. Does your organisation have any procedure for assessing a child’s best interests (or deciding what course of action is likely to be in the best interests of a child with whom you are in contact or whom you want to assist)?
2. Does your organisation have any procedure for assessing the risks to which a child is exposed (or would be exposed if you adopted a particular course of action affecting the child), such as travelling alone to a large city (to look for work), being moved to another country or being reunited with her/his family?
3. Does your organisation have any procedure for assessing the other needs of individual children? If so, how do you take the results of such assessments into account and decide on a course of action for the child?
4. How does your organisation decide on the course of action when there are disagreements or an apparent contradiction between what a child says she or he wants and what staff in the organisation think would be appropriate?

If your organisation does not come into direct contact with children, please consider what answers you think might be appropriate for organisations that do have direct contact with children.

6. HOW ORGANIZATIONS HAVE CONVENTIONALLY TRIED TO STOP CHILDREN ON THE MOVE BEING ABUSED OR EXPLOITED

The range of methods used around the world to try to protect and assist children on the move is very varied. Some methods are essentially preventive and are intended to prevent children coming into harm in the first place. For example, some aim to discourage children from leaving home or migrating over long distances by themselves. Some offer advice to young people on how to migrate in relative safety, indicating what major risks they might face and suggesting how to reduce them. Some target employers and aim to reduce levels of exploitation, so that children earn a living in relatively acceptable conditions (and the word “relatively” is important here, for what you reckon is acceptable varies from country to country and region to region around the world).

Some methods have both a preventive and protective component, for they involve offering services to young people who are on the move, which provide them with assistance but are also intended to prevent them coming to harm. For example, temporary accommodation is offered to young people arriving in a city or country for the first time or an NGO runs an information centre at a transit point that many young migrants pass through (such as a port, or railway or bus station), offering advice and sometimes more practical support. When young people arrive in industrialised countries to seek a new life there, usually by applying for asylum so they can acquire a right to remain as refugees, they are routinely placed in some form of sheltered accommodation, although in some countries they may be placed in administrative detention.

Other methods are reactive and protective and involve identifying children who are experiencing exploitation or abuse and reacting to their situation in various ways in order to protect them. These include identifying unaccompanied children who arrive in a new place or extracting child workers from the control of employers who are mistreating or exploiting them. Government agencies which react in such cases are in a position to offer children certain forms of legal protection (for example, when a child has no legal right to be in a country, they can issue a temporary residence permit) and sometimes also assistance. NGOs are usually involved in providing such children with assistance in the form of various kinds of services: accommodation, meals, clothing, formal or non-formal education and vocational training (and sometimes assistance in returning to their place of origin).

Some NGOs are also involved in intercepting children on the move, using their own authority (rather than the power of the police or a government child protection service) to persuade young people to abandon their intended journey and to accompany NGO staff to a residential centre that they run. In this case it is particularly important that their interventions should be assessed periodically to check that they are acting in the best interests of the children concerned and also to ensure that they are not acting illegally.
6.1. What do we mean by “prevention”? 

At its most simple “prevention” means taking action to stop something from happening, when it is otherwise likely to happen. Some prevention methods address the causes of a particular form of abuse, trying to tackle difficult situations that are known to frequently precede a more major form of abuse. Others try to tackle underlying root causes. However, the numerous forms of exploitation experienced by children have a wide range of causes, making it difficult to address all at the same time.

Decisions on the priority to give to measures to prevent a particular form of abuse, such as the exploitation of a child, should generally take into account how likely the abuse is to occur, by assessing the evidence available about the frequency of its occurrence, rather than being motivated by a fear of a threat which turns out to be relatively rare.

In addition to action to directly prevent abuse from occurring, a series of indirect actions with a preventive effect sometimes prove successful. For example, guaranteeing the adults in a family a decent job that pays them enough to look after the rest of their family reduces the pressure on children to start working and contributing to the family’s income. Social protection systems provide adults who earn less than a specified minimum amount with subsidies (in cash or kind) to bring about the same result. Similarly, when evidence emerged in the Republic of Moldova that young people who had spent their childhood in residential institutions were represented among traffickers’ victims much more frequently than other young people (even though the precise causes of this were not understood), child protection agencies organised classes in boarding schools to train young people in life skills and to give them information about trafficking.

6.1.1. Prevention by identifying gaps in the “protection net” which is intended to protect children

Action to prevent child abuse also includes identifying gaps in existing systems that are supposed to protect children against abuse (some of which focus specifically on children while others are intended to protect adults as well). Such systems are run by government agencies (such as police, immigration service or local government child welfare or protection committees), while others are community-based systems, or even protection systems put in place by a temporary network of organisations, such as government agencies, NGOs and intergovernmental organisations.

6.1.2. Prevention by taking a positive action - not just shouting “stop”

Prevention initiatives usually propose a positive course of action that is intended to have a preventive effect. So, when attempts were first made to prevent trafficking-of adults or children in many parts of the world, the main preventive action was to disseminate information about cases of trafficking that were known to have occurred already. The aim was to warn the public of the potential dangers and (often) to discourage women or children from migrating. The positive action that was taken in these cases was to provide people with information in the expectation that this would have a preventive effect (although in some cases it turned out not to have this effect at all).

In a few cases where a disproportionately high number of children from a particular geographical area or social group were found among trafficking victims, special efforts were made to identify the children who were at particularly high risk (i.e., “vulnerable”) of being trafficked and to intervene on their behalf. Again, this involved taking a positive action (such as offering the child’s parents a subsidy, that was conditional on the child not dropping out of school or not leaving home).

In each of these cases, it was necessary for those taking a preventive action to be clear about what they wanted to prevent. However, just as cases of exploitation have multiple different causes, so the analyses that different organisations make of what the principal problem is (and what needs “to be prevented”) vary a great deal.

In the case of child trafficking, many organisations that want to prevent children from being trafficked identified the fact that children moved away from home as a key cause of the abuse occurring and adopted strategies which aimed to dissuade children from travelling alone or without their parents. Their analysis was usually based on the evidence they obtained from trafficked children who had indeed been moved from one place to another and subjected to abuse—rather than from a wider range of children who included young people that had moved away but who had not ended up in the control of traffickers or others who exploited them.

6.2. What needs preventing in the case of children on the move?

Many organisations that specialise in protecting children consider that children should be encouraged to stay living with their birth parents or in their community of origin for as long as possible, or at least until sometime in their adolescence when they are reckoned to be mature enough to cope with life alone (which some think might be 18 years of age, while others would suggest 16 or 14 years of age, or even older, 21 years of age). The possible disadvantages of this to the children concerned were mentioned in 2.5 above.

6.2.1. What risks attached to moving should be a priority to tackle?

The project in West Africa which was mentioned earlier (which developed the concept of “mobile children”) came to a specific conclusion which may also apply to children in other parts of the world:

"...Analysis shows that the heart of the problem is not mobility per se, but the extreme vulnerability of children who are on the move. On the one hand, the circumstances and contexts in which children live and move outside the framework of the family are a source of many dangers; and secondly, the protection they receive from institutional actors (both governmental and non-governmental ones) and communities (whether it involves formal or informal protection) is insufficient, ill-adapted to their needs or inadequate.”

"The mobility of children does not only raise worries about risks and vulnerability, but also creates opportunities and allows their personal development... The use of the concept of mobility and a better understanding of young people’s realities makes it possible to consider how to protect such children without systematically opposing children moving or reincorporating everyone who plays a role along the way [providing them with some service or assistance]. The concept of supporting children by working alongside them," emerged in theory and also practice, adapted both to the prevention of early criminal or dangerous mobility, and also to helping children on the move or children who return home after a period away”.

35. The term “skils” refers to a set of skills that are considered important for making one’s way in life. They include learning to negotiate, decision making, problem solving, critical thinking, communicating effectively, managing interpersonal relationships, resolving conflicts, being self aware and empathetic towards others, and coping with emotions and stress.
37. The French term used here is “accompagnement protecteur des enfants”, which literally translated is “protection accompanied of children”, but which has been translated here by “supporting children by working alongside them”.
38. Olivier Frenoy, Droit protection pour les enfants concernés par la mobilité en Afrique de l’ouest et du Centre: Nos positions et nos recommandations, Rapport régional conjoint sur les mobilités des enfants et des jeunes en Afrique de l’Ouest et du Centre, 2011. What protection is appropriate for children who are mobile in West and Central Africa, our positions and recommendations. Common Regional Project on the mobility of children and young people in West and Central Africa. The organisations involved in the project were PLAN International (West Africa Regional Office), ISOS Intervention Action (Youth Action), the African Movement of Child and Youth Workers (MANJY), the International Labour Office (ILO), The Terre des Héritiers Foundation, the International Organization for Migration (IOM), Save the Children Sweden and UNICEF (West and Central Africa Regional Office).
This analysis implies that organisations which want to protect children from harm need to identify the numerous risks that children face after leaving their parental home, so they can take action to reduce these risks. This would include finding out about the shortcomings of existing protection systems, to improve these. In both cases, organisations should consult children who already have some experience of moving to find out about their experience, including what benefits they acquired from moving, to see whether there might be ways of maximising these benefits. The particular method proposed, of “supporting children by working alongside them” is described in greater detail in Chapter 8 below.

This analysis does not challenge the need to prevent children from being abused but suggests that:

- It is not necessarily appropriate to try and stop children from leaving home and migrating even if they do so alone (and, even if it is appropriate when children are young, it certainly is not for older children aged 16 and 17); and
- Rather than designing prevention activities in a narrow way, specifically to stop children being exploited in a “worst form of child labour” or specifically to prevent them from resorting to prostitution for a livelihood, prevention programmes could aim to protect children in other ways, before, during or immediately after their journeys and thereby reduce the likelihood that they will end up being exploited.

6.3. Protecting child on the move: other options

Communities and some NGOs have tried out novel ways to protect children on the move, some of which are summarised in Appendix III at the end of this handbook. They include methods for increasing children’s resilience before they leave home, creating safe (or safer) corridors for young people to migrate along (usually involving a reception centre of some sort at the arrival point, and a variety of ways of keeping an eye on unaccompanied children after their arrival, for example by setting up drop-in centres or regular meeting places for children workers).

Government agencies which are responsible for child protection tend to have a different approach, particularly when children have crossed international borders. In the name of protecting children, some resort to practices which are clearly abusive—such as locking child migrants up on the grounds that they are illegal (i.e., irregular) immigrants. In other cases, their duty to protect unaccompanied and separated children is interpreted in ways in which the children themselves feel is not in their best interests.

6.3.1. When “being protected” conflicts with the aspirations of children on the move

In European Union (EU) countries, child protection officials are required to undertake a formal identification process, recording the name and origins of each child and often taking their fingerprints (and sometimes their photograph). While finding out who they are and where they come from is appropriate and reasonable, in order to establish if the young migrants are entitled to legal protection in the country concerned, for those who intend (for various reasons) to travel on to other countries in the EU it is an obstacle. In the EU, as elsewhere in the world, asylum requests are supposed to be processed in the first country reached by an asylum seeker. So, when a young migrant is formally identified in one country but subsequently travels on to a different country where they apply for asylum, their application is likely to be refused as soon as evidence emerges that the young migrant has been formally identified in another EU country at an earlier stage. The so-called “Dublin II rules” oblige the authorities in which an asylum applicant is identified for a second time (i.e., when evidence is available that they have previously been identified in another EU Member State) to return the asylum applicant to the first country they reached, whether an adult or a child. This procedure is reported to have resulted in abuse, particularly as many migrants arriving from Asia transit via Greece, where child migrants arriving from outside the EU have routinely been placed in detention. In 2010 such transfers were halted on the grounds that the children experienced abuse while in detention in Greece (following a ruling by the European Court of Human Rights).

38. Resilience means the child has the capacity to survive and develop, even when faced with situations of great adversity. The idea of resilience, and the understanding of what contributes towards helping a child develop resilience, is a relatively new field, although there has been some significant research into the issue (see Stephanie Delaney, (Re)Building the Future. 2011, referring to the Resilience Foresight Centre at http://resilienceproject.org).

6.4. An example of one organisation assessing its methods and deciding to change them

The Terre des Hommes Foundation had projects focusing on child migrants in four countries in West Africa: Benin, Burkina Faso, Nigeria and Togo. In the Republic of Benin, in particular, it acquired relevant experience during two high profile cases in which children who were reported to have been trafficked were returned to Benin: in 2001 they were returned off a ship, the Etrenne, which had taken them across the sea to another country (Gabon), but was then turned back; and in 2003 children from Benin who had been working at gravel pits near the town of Abeokuta, across the land border in neighbouring Nigeria, were put in lorries and taken back to Benin.

The experience was part of a learning process, influenced by listening to the children concerned and finding out what they wanted and feared, which led the Terre des Hommes Foundation to rethink the strategies it was using. With respect to one of the three countries, Togo, the organisation noted in 2007:

“Gradually we were led to rethink our intervention logic. Migration, like trafficking, is a process experienced by the child. In order to understand this experience, it seemed to us essential to stop focusing uniquely on one phase of what was occurring (the detection of abuse) and to intervene at various other points in the migratory process. We felt it was vital to understand why a child ends up so far from home, what sorts of different migrations occur, which children are most likely to migrate and, among them, who is at highest risk of being trafficked, exploited or ill-treated”.

In several countries, Terre des Hommes embarked on a process of identifying practices associated with child migration and employment which have a protective element—one that it might be possible to develop to become more effective and to protect children better. These practices have been referred to as “indigenous” or “community-based practices” or even “cultural practices”. Some are deeply rooted cultural practices, while others are modern adaptations to economic circumstances.

For example, in West African countries it was observed that, when child migrants from rural areas arrived in a city, children seeking jobs routinely went to stay with someone from their own ethnic group or community (known in the region as a “landlord” in English and a “liegeur” in French) who would help them find a job (and potentially also help them keep in contact with their relatives at home). While some organisations began denouncing such individuals as traffickers who contributed to the exploitation of children, there was also evidence that in certain cases these intermediaries contributed in no small way to keeping the children concerned safe and providing them with ongoing assistance. There was therefore potential to improve the protective role of these individuals, rather than to regard them as criminals.

At the same time, observing how the top-down approach, intrinsic to many programmes against child labour and child trafficking in the region, had met with remarkably little success, the Terre des Hommes Foundation started exploring whether there was potential for community-based systems to help protect children; that is, systems which build on and develop local cultural strengths, and are perceived by a local community to have a high level of legitimacy, rather than ones that are imposed on a community by the government (such as the various Village Vigilance Committees set up by government agencies, which intercepted child migrants and were largely regarded as a form of harassment by both adults and migrating children alike).

6.5. EXERCISES to identify what you do already and what else might be positive for children

Before you look at the rest of this handbook, it would be appropriate for you to take stock of what you and your organisation do that affects children on the move. Here are two exercises to help you do this.

EXERCISE A: WHAT DO YOU DO THAT AFFECTS CHILDREN ON THE MOVE?

What do you and your organisation do that affects children on the move? Working with colleagues from the same organisation, either write a list of the methods you use or draw a diagram to illustrate what you do. A list can use the headings mentioned above, distinguishing between methods that involve prevention (in which case be clear about what it is you intend to prevent), protection or assistance, though you may also use other methods, such as advocacy and lobbying. Example of the activities that an NGO from Nepal attending the Kolkata workshop identified three sets of activities (prevention, support and advocacy).

FIGURE 8 NGO POSTER LISTING PREVENTION, SUPPORT AND ADVOCACY ACTIVITIES

![Image of NGO poster listing prevention, support and advocacy activities]
EXERCISE B - IDENTIFYING FURTHER OPPORTUNITIES TO SUPPORT, PROTECT OR ASSIST CHILDREN ON THE MOVE

This is an opportunity to revisit the charts that were prepared in the exercise at the end of Chapter 3 (the chart which identified the specific phases or stages connected with the way children move and the potential risks and benefits for children).

For this exercise, you will add some more information alongside each phase of a child’s movement on the chart. For this you will require one more piece of paper or card, preferably a different colour to the ones you used before. The exercise will take about half an hour.

This time your task is to list any interventions which you reckon would have a beneficial effect for children in each specific phase identified in your chart.

Figure 3 in Chapter 3 listed these on orange paper at the bottom of the chart.

To give just one example, next to Phase 4 on the chart shown in Figure 2 (“Examples of the stages or phases of a young person’s movement/migration”), which is about a child’s arrival at a new destination, you could identify the following methods to protect or assist a child who has just arrived in a new country or new destination:

1. Booths in bus or train stations or ports or other places of arrival, to make contact with a new arrival before individuals with criminal intent do so;
2. Contact with individuals or networks known to be safe (such as an association from same area or ethnic group), requiring the child to know how to contact them in advance; or for someone from the association to be aware in advance of the child’s arrival and to meet the child upon arrival;
3. Provision of safe accommodation for the short or medium-term;
4. Advice on legal status, employment opportunities, availability of school places, threats to avoid, etc.;
5. Assistance in finding employment;
6. Establishing communication with parents/home community.

In some countries, unaccompanied and separated children who are identified by the authorities have to be referred promptly to the government’s child protection agency or to a legal authority to decide who should act as the child’s guardian. In such cases, an NGO that encounters such a child may have a legal obligation to refer the child to a particular government-run agency, so you must check what these obligations are.

7. HOW TO FIND OUT WHAT CHILDREN ON THE MOVE WANT OR NEED

7.1. The child’s right to be heard

Article 12.1 of the CRC says:

“States Parties shall assure to the child who is capable of forming his or her own views the right to express those views freely in all matters affecting the child, the views of the child being given due weight in accordance with the age and maturity of the child”.

Since 1989 NGOs have developed a variety of methods to enable children to express their views, but government agencies have generally been significantly less active in doing so. However, even in the case of NGOs which encourage children to express their views on issues affecting them, it often seems that there was little link between the views expressed and the decisions the NGO made that affected the child.

Possibly in response to the inadequate ways in which children were able to exercise this right, in 2009 the Committee on the Rights of the Child, the body established by the Convention to monitor how governments implement it, issued General Comment No. 12 on “The right of the child to be heard”. In considering the right of the child to be protected from violence and the responsibility of States parties to ensure this right without discrimination, the Committee encouraged States “to consult with children in the development and implementation of legislative, policy, educational and other measures to address all forms of violence”. It called on them to pay “particular attention...to ensuring that marginalized and disadvantaged children, such as exploited children, street children or refugee children, are not excluded from consultative processes designed to elicit views on relevant legislation and policy processes”.

7.2. Why listening to children on the move is important

Children generally find it difficult to get their voices heard (and their views taken into account) by adults who are policy-makers or decision-makers, either in organisations or in government.

Many children on the move are among the “marginalized and disadvantaged children” whom the Committee on the Rights of the Child felt were even less likely to have their views heard and taken into account than other children. There have been a few efforts to enable children from particular groups, such as working children or refugee children, to express their views at international conferences. However, on the whole it remains true that they are either given no opportunity to express their views or, if they are, their views are ignored. In contrast, a human rights approach to children on the move makes it a high priority to find out what these views are and to take them into account when considering what measures to implement that affect such children.

42. Committee on the Rights of the Child, General Comment No. 12 (2009), The right of the child to be heard, UN Doc. CRC/C/31/12, 1 July 2009, paragraph 116, accessed in 2010 at http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/crc/docs/GC12-02E/GC-12.pdf
7.3. Ways of consulting young people who have experience of “being on the move”

Over the past two decades (since the CRC was adopted in 1989) organisations working with children have tried out a wide range of methods to encourage children of different ages and levels of maturity to formulate their views and to express them. This has been part of a broader effort to enable children “to participate” in activities that affect them, rather than to wait passively for decisions to be made and activities organised by adults.

There is no single method that is appropriate for all children and in all countries, but many challenges in moving up the ladder, as illustrated by Figure 9.

In the case of children on the move, there are rather more practical challenges to contacting children and fining out their views, whether it is to obtain basic data about where they come from and where they are going to (in the case of children in transit) or to consult them about what sorts of measures they think would be helpful for them. Between 2009 and 2011 the Columbia Group for Children in Adversity worked with Save the Children and others to develop a Mobile Assessment Tool (MAT), a research method specifically designed to collect data from children on the move about their experiences. Research was conducted with Save the Children in South Africa (on the border with Zimbabwe) and Thailand (on the border with Laos) and with the Center on Child Protection at the University of Indonesia in part of Jakarta, the capital of Indonesia. The first two focused on children who had moved from one country to another, while the third focused on children who had moved from other parts of Indonesia to the capital (i.e. within their own country).

Detailed information about the Mobile Assessment Tool and the research method that has been developed is scheduled to become available soon in a Field User’s Guide prepared by Save the Children. Information on the assessment in Jakarta has already been made public and describes the tool and the method involved in the following terms: Although children on the move are a diverse sub-set of all children, examining their assets and needs collectively can highlight common challenges and risks, as well as identifying particularly vulnerable groups that may warrant special attention. The Mobile Assessment Tool (MAT) can assist in the documentation of these risks and vulnerabilities by exploring the needs and coping strategies of children along their routes of travel. In particular, collecting information about the journey itself will contribute to a knowledge base about the responses and programs that are appropriate for protecting children during and after transit...The key elements of the MAT methodology included ethnographic mapping to determine sub-types of children living there, and collecting data about children’s experiences of migration from home to East Jakarta through individual interviews.

The study in East Jakarta interviewed 206 respondents (or whom 61 were female, 142 were male and three were transgendered, known in Indonesia as waria). The study collected information on a range of subjects: relationships with parents, marriage (at the young people interviewed), education, the logistics of their journeys to Jakarta, negative aspects of the journey, coping mechanisms on the journey, needs during the journey, children’s experiences in East Jakarta and self-identified needs, income generation, illegal activities and their needs after their arrival in East Jakarta. While there was some focus on the young people’s situation in Jakarta, the main focus was on their background and journey there. The authors concluded that the study helped them identify some specific needs of the young people surveyed: for housing, healthcare, education and employment, and for formal identification papers. They identified specific child protection concerns which, they felt, could be the subject of action by government-run agencies. They also concluded that there was need for a specific focus on the commercial sexual exploitation of children and related trafficking, both for research and outreach and awareness-raising by an NGO such as ECPAT.

This short summary highlights some key points:

- Special research methods are required for collecting information from a “hard to reach” group of young people, particularly information that can be regarded as representative of the group as a whole, rather than anecdotal.
- The ethical side of the research needs careful consideration (ensuring that children’s names are not recorded and that their identity, as sources of information, is kept confidential), especially if respondents are asked about illegal activities (such as illicit border crossings, illegal income-generating activities or drug use).

Advice on a range of research methods for use among specific categories of children who have already moved is already available (such as street children, child domestic workers, child beggars, etc.). While some involve overcoming challenges to reach “invisible” children, there is a particular challenge in interviewing unaccompanied and separated children who have applied for asylum. In this case young respondents are likely to view any interviewer with the same suspicion that they regard officials who ask penetrating questions about their asylum claim. They may therefore hide facts which might contradict some aspect of their asylum claim (see 6.3 above).

A research methodology used to investigate the trafficking and other experiences of a group of unaccompanied children seeking asylum in an industrialised country is described in a report issued in 2009, along with the research ethics involved, which identified a series of opportunities for child protection professionals to intervene on behalf of unaccompanied children, but which had been missed. Once again, this report put a lot of emphasis on the ethics of the research (ensuring anonymity for the young people who were interviewed, avoiding emotional manipulation and following up on various needs or concerns raised by the respondents).

Ways of resolving some other challenges are summarised in the next section.

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**FIGURE 9 ROGER HART’S LADDER OF PARTICIPATION**

1. Child-initiated, shared decisions with adults
2. Child-initiated and directed
3. Adult-initiated, shared decisions with children
4. Consulted and informed
5. Assigned but informed
6. Thiessen
7. Decoration
8. Manipulation

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44. Kathryn Roberts, Insearch and Lindsey Stuck, Children on the Move in East Jakarta, Indonesia, The Center on Child Protection at the University of Indonesia the Columbia Group for Children in Adversity, The National Coalition Against CSEC (ECPO), and the Body Shop, 2011, accessed at http://www.cpecentrework.org/osem/node/1469

45. Methods developed by organisations such as the ILO’s International Programme for the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC), http://www.ilo.org/ipec/index.htm, and by Arts Airways International, http://www.airways.org

7.4. How to resolve the challenges involved

7.4.1. Challenge Number 1: Avoiding tokenism

A distinct challenge when consulting children or encouraging their participation is to find a method which allows them to express their real views (rather than saying what they believe is expected, to please others). When encouraging children to participate, it is clear that some initiatives actually manipulate children. Figure 8, prepared in the early 1990s, illustrates eight rungs on the “ladder of participation”, ranging from manipulation and tokenism at the bottom, to fully child-initiated decisions and actions at the top.

Organizations that encourage children's participation can score their performance on this scale from 1 to 8. Some research conducted by NGOs with children on the move appears to represent one of the rungs labelled “non-participation” in Hart’s ladder (rungs 1 to 3). More participatory NGOs programmes reach rungs 4 to 6 (i.e., they are not child-initiated or child-led). However, some NGOs also cooperate closely with child-led organisations, such as working children's organisations.

At a minimum, a participatory approach should enable children “to speak out and, if necessary raise problems and issues”. The author of several Save the Children reports about children in Myanmar (Burma) and South East Asia included this as the first of four key ways of enabling children to participate:

- Expressing their views - being able to speak out and, if necessary raise problems and issues;
- Being consulted - adults going to find out children's views, ideas and opinions;
- Being involved in decision making - children making decisions individually and in groups, and sharing decision-making with adults. They make decisions on issues in their personal lives, in the lives of their families and communities, and in organisations (such as school);
- Taking action to respond to particular issues and problems, based on their own views and decisions, and sometimes with support of adults.”

7.4.2. Challenge Number 2: Being careful about how you interpret the views of an unrepresentative sample of children on the move

It is logical that organisations that work closely with children who have been exploited or subjected to other abuse should encourage these children to express their views and to participate in planning or evaluating the organisation’s activities. However, if all of the children who are consulted have experienced some form of exploitation, it would be incorrect (or even dangerous) to assume that their experiences are representative of all children who have experience of moving. It would be appropriate to find out about the experience of children who did not experience exploitation (notably to find out if anything they did or did not do contributed to their not being exploited).

7.4.3. Methods that enable “children who have moved” to express their views

A variety of methods are available to enable children who have the experience of moving to describe their experiences and to comment on what was (or was not) done to assist them at various times.

At the workshop organised in Bangkok in November 2010 by Asia ACTs, NGOs from seven countries in Southeast Asia set out to share the experiences of children on the move whom they had encountered (and who, in most cases, had been assisted by their organisations). Only one of these children was present at the workshop (he was resident in Thailand), so the other presentations were all indirect: various methods had been used in the run-up to the workshop to enable children to record their experiences and views in ways that could be shared (confidentially) with the workshop participants.

These included:
- Video-recorded interviews with the children, mostly with sub-titles (in English) translating what they had said and some using “storyboards” in English to summarise children's comments; and
- Posters and other pictorial representations of the children’s experiences (see Figure 10).

Not surprisingly, many of the children who had been trafficked expressed the view that they would have been better off remaining at home, rather than setting off to earn a living or find a better life.

To find out in greater detail whether particular agencies which are supposed to help protect children (such as police or immigration officials/border guards) had played a positive or negative role from the point of view of children on the move, this sort of general consultation may not be sufficient. It may be necessary to involve a professional interviewer (maybe an adult) who can talk to children individually and who can prompt them in a sensitive way to talk about periods of their journey which they are not happy to talk about in front of other children or in public. This is particularly relevant for children who have experienced sexual abuse or sexual exploitation, but may also apply to children who resorted to theft or other illegal activities.

48 Andrew West and others, Children know so many things even we didn't know: Consultations and Children’s Participation in Myanmar, 2009, pages 7 and 8.
7.4.4. Finding out about positive experiences as well as abuse

A variety of methods can be used to consult children who are not in routine contact with any organisation (both while they are travelling and those who have arrived at a destination). In each case, it is essential to take into account whether the children represent a broad cross section of all children on the move in a particular place, or whether the way they are selected may introduce an automatic bias into their opinions. It is also important to take into account that some children view as acceptable or “normal” patterns of behaviour which child protection professionals are trained to consider highly abusive, such as adolescent girls resorting to transactional sex (from which the adolescent gets some direct benefit) or earning a living from commercial sex. In such situations, a participatory approach involves talking to children (and other members of their community) about their experiences, rather than making moral judgements or trying to impose standards from outside. This seems to be a challenge which is not handled properly by some NGOs or other organisations.

Organisations which are in direct contact with an unrepresentative sample of children on the move (such as only children who have been trafficked), may want to find out what the experiences of other children have been, in order to assess how typical the experiences were of the children they know. For example, you could contact other organisations which are also in contact with children who have migrated or moved (particularly organisations which deliver services, such as non-formal education or vocational training, or which run clubs or drop-in centers for such children) to ask if they already collected information about the experiences of the children they encounter or would like to do so. While it would be inappropriate to share testimonies or other accounts which divulge personal details about the children concerned (such as their names, addresses or other details that make it possible to identify these children), it would be reasonable to share information that has been made anonymous (i.e., testimonies with the personal details removed, so they are anonymous). In addition to talking to children, much useful information can also be obtained from young adults who have moved or migrated when they were younger and are still children.

7.4.5. Child-led organisations

In some places children have formed organisations of their own or received advice and assistance from adults to form organisations which have later become child-led. A working children’s organisation played a key role in the regional project in West Africa that developed the concept of “mobile children”. This is the Mouvement Africain des Enfants et Jeunes Travailleurs (MAETJ), African Movement of Working Children and Youth (AMWCV), an organisation of working children and adolescents established in 1984, which has its headquarters in Dakar (Senegal). At the beginning of the last decade the MAETJ started scrutinising the experience of children who migrated to find work and in 2004 it published a report on the topic of “leaving home too early” (which in French was called “prématurité migration”). When international organisations operating in West Africa started a new initiative in 2007, with the intention of challenging the tendency to label most cases of child migration in the region as “child trafficking”, aiming to understand better what the experiences of children who migrated within West Africa were, the MAETJ got involved. Two researchers worked with children belonging to the MAETJ in various countries to collect children’s views about their experiences of migration and of working away from home. These were published in 2008, providing one of the key sources of information about the experience of child migrants for other organisations in the region (not child-led ones) and challenging some of the assumptions on which donors and child protection organisations had previously based their initiatives.

In other parts of the world, similar organisations have also put an emphasis on children being empowered and taking a lead. In India, an organisation called Butterflies described its strategy of empowering street and working children in the following terms: As opposed to a welfare (or charity) perspective which views street children primarily as victims or delinquents in need of basic services and rehabilitation, an empowerment approach views children as citizens of our society, with rights to survival, protection, and development, in addition to information, respect, and opportunities for participation in decisions that affect them. Through varied strategies children are given information and knowledge about their rights”.

7.5. How else to find out about the experiences of children on the move

A variety of reports and articles describe the experience of children on the move, mostly focusing on independent child migrants who move within their own countries or to other countries. Appendix II lists some of these publications. In the past, such reports tended to focus on the increased risk of abuse or exploitation experienced by the children concerned, assuming that the risks outweighed the potential advantages. Academic authors were the first to modify this approach (on the basis of empirical evidence collected about children’s experiences).

In some countries, organisations or individual researchers have already written extensively about the experiences of children on the move. For example, in Europe the organisations that belong to the Separated Children in Europe Programme (SCEP) have documented the experience of asylum-seeking unaccompanied or separated children and SCEP has been an important lobby pressing for improvements in procedures in European countries for responding to asylum-seeking children. In South Asia and Southeast Asia, the experiences of children who have been trafficked have been the subject of numerous publications. In both these cases, however, it is important to note that published information tends to focus on particular categories of children (refugees, asylum-seekers, trafficked children, etc.), rather than children on the move more broadly. In Central America, the experience of child and adult migrants is relatively well documented, with a focus on the predatory activities not only of traffickers but also of other criminals who extort money out of irregular migrants (with mass graves discovered of those who refused to obey the criminals’ orders). In West Africa, the initial focus in the 1980s was on child workers who thought they were trafficked, while the recent focus (see section 7.3.5 above) has been on their mobility (both geographical movement and social mobility).

7.6. EXERCISE - assessing your organisation’s current methods for enabling children to express their views and to participate this exercise involves a group of up to five people from the same organisation

This exercise involves a group of up to five people from the same organisation assessing the ways their organisation does (or does not) enable children to participate by using Roger Hart’s “Ladder of Participation” (see Figure 8). The time required will depend on the number of participants and different activities which are described and discussed: allow ten minutes for each separate activity (i.e., up to 50 minutes for five participants who each has a different activity to describe, allowing 10 minutes each). One person in the group should note the key conclusions of the group about which rung of the ladder of participation a particular activity with children represents.

Rather than starting by making a general assessment of which rung of the ladder your organisation is on, start by asking each member of the group to comment on activities that involve or affect children with which site or he is familiar. These could be children receiving care, child asylum seekers, children attending non-formal education classes or a youth club, or children that your organisation is trying to influence in some other way. Each member of the group should:
1. explain to others what the activities are,
2. how children participate in the design, running or evaluation of the activity or are able to express their views on it, and
3. comment on whether the activity has been changed or adapted in the light of comments from the children concerned.

Others in the same group should then (a) comment on what rung of the “Ladder of Participation” they think the activity is on (asking further questions as they think necessary), while subsequently they should (b) comment on whether this is where the organisation intended to be or whether it should be trying to achieve a higher level of child participation.

An optional extra activity is to hold a brainstorming session to see what other methods the group thinks might be feasible (and affordable) to use to consult the children with whom your organisation comes into contact.

52. See Alice ACTS, Explorations and Explorations. Good Practices of the Campaign against Child Trafficking in Southeast Asia, Philippines, 2009.
53. See, for example, Karta Independiente para Niñas Migrantes: Libera Fácil Para La Discriminación (Migrating Children: an Easy Target for Discrimination), paper presented at an international seminar on the human rights of migrants in Baja el Maíz, Venezuela (Mexico) in June 2006, which starts with the assertion that “child migration is nothing exceptional” (in Mexico). The paper was accessed in 2012 at http://portal.ong.gob.mx/jobch/forjas/lifeil/kartaindependiente.pdf.
Sample exercise to help you measure how children themselves feel about their level of participation in your organisation’s activities

This is not an exercise for the staff or adults in an organisation, but rather an example of an exercise to enable young people to comment on the degree to which they feel they have been involved in planning and carrying out activities. This method was designed for child-led groups and organisations (Clare Feinstein and Claire O’Kane, The Spider Tool. A self-assessment and planning tool for child led initiatives, and organisations, Save the Children Sweden Regional Programme for South & Central Asia, 2005, available on internet in 2012 at http://www.ungc.org/resources/files/SCS_Spider_Tool_Final_2.pdf).

It suggests that young participants (probably adolescents rather than younger children) review the following 15 issues separately and rank where they feel they are each on a scale of 1 to 4 (with “1” referring to the lowest level of participation, and “4” to the highest).

1. Dynamic membership and regular meetings
2. Common vision, identity and ownership
3. Agenda setting: child led (rather than adult driven)
4. Building friendships
5. Fostering life skills
6. Democratic decision-making and inclusive representation
7. Access to information and open communication
8. Children aware and active in promoting their rights and responsibilities
9. Analysis, action and change oriented
10. Choice and inclusive methodologies
11. Supportive adults
12. Partnerships and influence
13. Networks with other child-led organisations (CLOs)
14. Resources and sustainability
15. Reflection, monitoring and evaluation

The Spider Tool suggests how to score these 15 issues, outlining the criteria for marking each as 1, 2, 3 or 4. For example on issue number 6 ("democratic decision-making and inclusion"), this tool asks participants to assess which of the following four columns describes where they feel they are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Decisions are mostly made by a small group (3-5) of children, adults, or graduated members with minimum involvement of the wider group of girls and boys; No fair system of election for representation is developed; The few “same” boys or girls tend to represent the others in meetings, workshops and training; A leadership model is encouraged (by the adults);</td>
<td>Decisions are made by some children and some adults; Conflicting ideas about adult and child role in decision-making; In most situations the same few girls or boys represent the organisation in meetings, workshops and training; A leadership model rather than a facilitator model is encouraged, so fewer girls and boys have a chance.</td>
<td>Most members actively participate in decision-making; Many different girls and boys have a chance to represent their organisation in meetings, workshops and training; All girls and boys are encouraged to have representation and facilitation skills; There is a fair election system.</td>
<td>All girls and boys proactively share their views and play an active role in decision-making; All members have an equal voice irrespective of gender, age, disability, ethnicity, background; Children learn to listen to different points of view, to accept difference and to make decisions based on consensus; All girls and boys have a fair chance to represent their organisation in meetings, workshops and policy events; Processes for fair election and representation are established; Facilitation, communication and representation skills of all members are encouraged (by children and adults), rather than focusing on the leadership of a few.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The long list of 15 points was designed for use by children who are assessing their own organisation (e.g., a child-led youth club or an association of children from the same village or province), rather than to assess how young people feel about their involvement in other activities.

If you consult young people about how they feel about their involvement in your organisation’s activities, you could choose a few of these 15 points; for example, 6, 9, 10, 11 and 15 might be relevant, in which case the list you would explore:

1. Democratic decision-making and inclusive representation
2. Analysis, action and change oriented
3. Choice and inclusive methodologies
4. Supportive adults
5. Reflection, monitoring and evaluation
WHAT IS AN APPROPRIATE WAY TO DECIDE ON ACTIONS THAT AFFECT CHILDREN ON THE MOVE AND WHICH ARE IN THEIR BEST INTERESTS?

8.1. The idea of protecting children while they move

The concept of the supporting children on the move by working alongside them (an alternative way of describing this would be “providing a protective presence for children on the move”) was introduced in section 6.2. The basic concept that the most effective way of protecting children is to be physically present wherever they are- is not new. Organisations providing support to street children (and trying to protect them from harm or to limit the harm to which they are subjected) have used this method for a long time. Similarly, a review by the ILO’s International Programme to Eliminate Child Labour (IPEC) in 2001 of efforts in five countries to stop children being trafficked or subjected to sexual exploitation concluded that it was essential to go “where the children are” in order to take effective action. Likewise, the Terre des Hommes programme to stop children being trafficked between several countries in southeast Europe concluded in the early part of the last decade that it was necessary “to work in parallel” to traffickers and to be as omnipresent as possible.

However, in the context of efforts to protect children who have left home and are on the move (whether still travelling or during their initial period of living at a new location), the concept takes on a particular meaning. In the case of children who decide to move voluntarily or who move away to get an education, the concept has been described as “supporting children by working alongside them, being able to trace them or track their movements and enabling them to survive, keep themselves safe, develop and be empowered”.

Summarising the experience of organisations using this approach in West Africa, Olivier Fenevoy reckoned this means pursuing four distinct lines of action:

1. Assist children who move (or are likely to do so) in their decision making (including possibly deciding not to depart) and their efforts to survive and get access to their rights;
2. Make it safe (or safer) for children to travel and then to settle somewhere safe; this includes ensuring they are not too isolated, that they do not have to live in any sort of clandestinity (i.e., hiding from the authorities, for example because they are irregular migrants and lack a legal right to be in the country or place where they want to stay), that they are not held in servitude, and that they are not trafficked or exploited;
3. Ensure a rapid, effective, adequate and fair response for children on the move who need special protection measures;
4. Maximise the opportunities that children have as a result of moving, notably to access education, local integration and personal development, making their best interests a primary consideration and also by offering them viable alternatives to moving.

These four lines of action each consist of a series of actions that organisations wanting to protect children can initiate or participate in together with young people. The idea, suggests Olivier Fenevoy, is to act in a careful and thoughtful way, in agreement with the children concerned and their families to:

- Identify and avoid forced departures and trafficking in children;
- Offer alternatives to those children who do not wish to move away or become mobile;
- Improve children’s preparedness (to move) and provide support when they make their own decision to move;
- Reduce the number of cases in which children leave home too early and too young, and embark on journeys which are dangerous or clandestine;
- Prevent children on the move from falling into the hands of traffickers or being employed in any of the worst forms of child labour;
- Support children on the move so that they benefit from having moved;
- Support children, again by working alongside them, after their period away comes to an end.

Most organisations that already play a role in protecting children on the move or in trying to prevent children from being exploited are already familiar with some of these strategies. However, developing a programme which combines all of these points is more challenging.

55. The French term used here is “accompagnement protecteur des enfants”, which literally translated is “protective accompaniment of children”, but which has been translated here by “supporting children by working alongside them”.
8.2. Examples of what other organisations said they wanted to try doing differently in their organisation

At the end of a workshop about children on the move in Kolkata in May 2010, participants listed various new methods which they thought it might be worth trying out. These included:
- Working with children’s families to build on traditional skills / develop new skills to enhance their quality of life so that they will not send their children away to work and find a livelihood away from home;
- Increase information available in the communities that children leave about violence in the home (as this is another reason for children leaving home);
- Vocational training;
- Provide direct educational support at community level for children who have been “rescued” from exploitation;
- Offer children the opportunity to become independent and productive adult members of the community;
- Provide wider options / alternatives for children when they return home and are being reintegrated (for example, after being trafficked), ensuring their safety;
- Provide children with more options and information about their rights;
- Provide easily accessible information about where to go for help, with identifiable signs and logos, especially for children moving across borders;
- Provide a short-term shelter for children withdrawn from abusive working situations.

8.3. EXERCISE: to enable you to identify additional opportunities to protect children on the move and to help them ensure a good outcome to their movement

This exercise builds on what you found out during the exercise at the end of Chapter 6 about opportunities to protect children on the move and ways of maximising the benefits to them of moving (so it will be difficult for you to do this exercise without having done the ones at the end of Chapters 3 and 6).

The aim of this exercise is to encourage you to be imaginative and to come up with possible actions that go beyond the activities which your organisation or other agencies currently organise—including looking at the possibility of actions which you or your organisation may have not considered feasible until now.

Work in small groups for up to one and a half hours to revisit your flow diagram and to consider the lists of risks and benefits that you have previously identified in connection with each different phase of a child’s movement. The aim this time is to suggest whether your organisation, or another, or a group of organisations working together, could or should organise any activity to reduce the risks and/or enhance the benefits.

One hour may not be sufficient to consider all the phases of movement in your diagram. You could start by considering the phases with which you are most familiar and then move on to others. If your organisation focuses particularly on children who are in a specific phase of movement (e.g., in transit through a port or bus station), focus initially on the opportunities linked to this phase. However, consider whether there would be any benefits in linking up with an organisation based in a different place: if you are based in a city, could you provide more complete protection by coordinating closely with organisations based in the places of origin of children arriving in your city?

Use a new piece of card to list the extra opportunities and methods for protecting children. If they relate to a specific phase in your flow diagram, place the card next to the relevant phase. However, don’t worry if new ideas relate to several phases at once.

Remember that, while child protection measures conventionally address risks of abuse, your aim is also to review the potential benefits for a child who moves and the possible action that you could organise to make such benefits available or to enhance them. At the end of an hour, one member of the group should be ready to tell others about any new ideas that the group has developed.

Only consult the following checklist if you need to stimulate your ideas!
Are there some opportunities and methods that you would like to occur, but which seem impossible or unlikely at the moment (for example, because of the high cost or because the technology required is not available)? If so, list them, even if initiating them would mean you and others would have to campaign to make them possible.

- Have you reviewed opportunities which involve building on existing cultural practices or community-based institutions, rather than regarding these as part of the problem?54
- Have you explored opportunities for protection which make use of new technology, such as mobile telephones, computers, Internet (including social networking sites) and GPS (global positioning systems)?
- Have you explored opportunities which involve getting children access to facilities to meet their basic needs, such as food and accommodation, or facilities which will make it possible for them to earn a living, such as access to jobs or income-generating opportunities, vocational training, etc.?
- Have you considered options which would involve your organisation working more closely with other organisations?
- Have you taken into account that some actions intended to protect children have proved counter-productive (or downright harmful) for some children? (Have you identified any counter-productive actions in your own organisation’s work?)
- Have you considered actions which might increase a child’s opportunity of having a satisfactory or happy outcome of their migration (rather than actions intended primarily to stop abuse or exploitation)?

After completing the exercise, please spend between five and ten minutes in your group considering how you could check whether the new actions you have identified would be suitable - or whether they might have counter-productive side-effects that you have not yet thought of. For example, how could you consult children who have the experience of being on the move about whether the action you envisage would have helped them or not?

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**9. CONCLUSION**

**TAKESTOCK**

Are you already organising the best possible activities for children on the move or is there room for your organisation to do anything new?

A handbook should not require a conclusion, but it does require those who have used it to reflect on whether they want to make changes to their work on the basis of anything they have done or learned. This short chapter offers you this opportunity.

**9.1. Next steps**

After using this handbook, consider individually and collectively (among people working in the same organisation) whether there is more that you would like to do to protect and support children on the move and what the obstacles are to initiating new kinds of action. Are they political or financial or to do with attitudes or an unwillingness to change (which might be due to your organisation’s ways of working or due to the views of a few individuals)? Is there anything you can do to overcome these obstacles?

The two exercises described below (in 9.3) are intended to help you assess whether your views have changed or you have learned anything new.

**9.2. Obstacles to change**

One obstacle encountered by some organisations is that they have made a substantial investment in looking after children in a residential setting (such as managing a shelter providing care to children who have suffered abuse). It would therefore be difficult for them to reorient and organise prevention measures or activities outside the residential setting. For example, the expertise of staff who look after abused children are likely to be different to those who are asked to visit the communities from which children emigrate, the places they travel through or the communities where they settle subsequently.
9.3. EXERCISES: has this handbook made a difference? do you face major obstacles to changing your approach to children on the move?

Two ways of assessing whether this handbook has influenced you are:

1. Revisit Table 1 and find out if your views on any points have changed;
2. Review the results of the exercise (8.3) at the end of Chapter 8 and find out whether you or any colleagues have identified novel ways of protecting or supporting children on the move that you would like to explore further or to implement.

If you have identified novel ways of protecting or supporting children on the move, you have reached the starting line for changing your working methods. However, you will still need to consider how your organisation had succeeded in modifying its work on previous occasions and whether there are internal or external obstacles to change that you will need to overcome.

APPENDIXES

1. References


REQUEST FOR FEEDBACK

Please also consider whether you have found using this handbook useful and whether you think some of the exercises could be improved or whether additional (or different) information is required on any points. If so, the author would be grateful if you would spend a few moments sending your comments by e-mail to the following address: childrenonthe-move@terredeshommes.org.
II. Examples of activities which contribute to the protection of children on the move (and the prevention of their abuse)

EXAMPLES OF INDIRECT ACTIVITIES TO SUPPORT CHILDREN ON THE MOVE OR TO PREVENT THEM BEING EXPLOITED

This section focuses on relatively few options, identifying activities which have an indirect effect rather than those which try to prevent children being exploited in a direct way (such as conventional activities referred to as “awareness raising”), which involve providing children or adults with information about the realities of being trafficked and hoping this will enable them to avoid it. These examples are a variation on a set of options for preventing children from being trafficked and exploited, presented in a handbook published in 2007.

A. PREVENTION FOCUSED ON CHILDREN AT OR NEAR THEIR PLACE OF ORIGIN

1. Education and life skills
2. In addition to urging children not to drop-out of school, provide them with (accurate, i.e., based on evidence) information about the pros and cons of doing so.
3. Arrange or encourage income-generating activities near home for adolescents, notably those based on micro-credit or micro-grants, and those intended to enhance the value of girls (in the eyes of their parents) who might otherwise be married off, e.g., making small amounts of capital available to them or setting up savings groups.
4. Identify children who are at a disproportionately high risk of a particular form of exploitation or abuse (for example, of being trafficked) in order to target protection measures specifically on these children (and their households). For example, providing night shelters or evening drop-in centres for street children or girls living in slums without parental care during the evening or at night.
5. Establish clubs/groups for children, particularly adolescent girls, to promote self-esteem and confidence among girls (or other groups of children known to be at disproportionate risk of being trafficked) and to enable them to take collective action on behalf of their peers, for example when one girl is believed to be at imminent risk of early marriage or being sent away to work when too young.
6. Enable children to distinguish between adults whom they can trust and those they cannot (i.e., among relatives, friends and authority figures).

B. FOCUS AT THE COMMUNITY LEVEL

Arrange for someone in the community to record details of departing children, whether or not the child has parental permission, either before or after departure, including departures for marriage. In particular, record details about the broker/recruitment agent (or husband) accompanying them (taking their photo, if possible), the planned destination or direction taken and any possible ways of contacting either the child or broker subsequently. The advantage is that a record of a child’s departure, coupled with information about whoever accompanied them, may help trace the child latter on.

Such personal details could be recorded by someone wielding formal authority in the community (e.g., mayors, village administrative heads or police), but there is a risk that they may use such a system for other purposes which do not benefit the child who has left, in particular when the local or national authorities have made it an offence to leave without permission. So, in the hands of a village official, registering departures may become coercive and be used to inhibit young people from fleeing domestic abuse; or it could become abusive (e.g., imposing fines on children who leave without permission). In such cases, this method would be counter-productive, actually imposing the authority of older people on children who may want to escape their domination. An alternative is for a register of departures to be kept by young people themselves, either by a youth club or another organisation to which young people belong.

C. CREATE SAFE ALTERNATIVES FOR CHILDREN INTENDING TO LEAVE HOME

Create semi-independent living projects for adolescents who are determined to leave home, either near to the home they want to leave and in cities further away. Ensure these are available to children escaping from undiagnosed domestic violence.

D. PROVIDE INFORMATION ABOUT CONDITIONS LATER ON AND WAYS OF COMMUNICATING WITH RELATIVES OR FRIENDS AT HOME

1. Help (older) adolescents to check offers of jobs which require them to migrate (e.g., in foreign countries or a long way from home) to find out if they are genuine or likely to be.
2. Give adolescents accurate information about the situation in places to which people from their community are migrating (i.e., counteracting inaccurate propaganda).
3. When birth registration is uncommon or young people do not have any formal identity card issued by a government authority, provide each child with an informal identity document indicating, among other details, their place of origin. It is important to ensure that the information provided is accurate (as in some countries brokers falsify identity documents in order to entitle children aged under 18 to get jobs as adult migrants in another country where they are required to be aged at least 18).
4. In the case of young people planning to travel to another country with an identity card or passport, point out the advantages of having a photocopy and explain how to get one made.
5. Provide children with mobile telephones or advice on using telephones to keep in touch with relatives at home. If the family or community has no access to a telephone, explore the possibility of setting up a telephone “hub” elsewhere where someone can receive calls or messages and forward them to the family by either a messenger or other method.
6. Give adolescents advice prior to the age of possible departure on how to remain safe, including places to stay, people to contact, techniques for remaining in contact with home (or alerting home that they are in trouble) including use of telephone help lines (such as CHILDLINE in India) from undiagnosed domestic violence.

E. REDUCING THE LIKELIHOOD OF EXPLOITATION AT DESTINATIONS

1. Identify the various agencies, intermediaries or brokers who find jobs for children, to see if they can be influenced to reduce the likelihood that a child will end up being exploited or working in harsh conditions. For example, is there a potential to introduce written contracts or to ensure that there are no hidden costs which are deducted from the wages of a child in a new job? Could the brokers themselves be influenced to take action to improve the working conditions of young workers?
2. Explore ways of reducing the isolation of young workers (for this is often reported to be a problem, with child workers having no time-off or forbidden to leave their place of work). This might include establishing a safe place for working children to go, and influencing employers to allow working children time off work to go there.
3. Ensure labour standards are adequate to protect young workers (not just banning child labour but protecting young workers). In places where laws setting labour standards are widely ignored with impunity, work in particular communities or among particular employers to set minimum standards for what is regarded as socially acceptable, which are better than those currently regarded as acceptable (e.g., those who employ domestic workers or children working in a market).
4. Monitor places where young children and adolescents work, particularly in the unregulated informal sector (e.g., markets and artisanal workshops). Explore the opportunities for getting access to children who work (as domestics) in private homes.
5. Set up drop-in centres or other facilities that working children in general (or particular categories of working children) can visit, where they meet other working children or have access to services such as non-formal education or information on their rights (and how to get their rights protected, if they are being violated). This ensures that working children are seen by others on a regular basis and helps reduce their isolation.

61. See earlier footnote 35 explaining what life skills consist of. Acquiring information about human trafficking and related abuse is not a life skill in itself.
III. Examples of activities to enhance the likelihood that children who move will benefit from their move

The history of migration around the world over several centuries has shown that there are all sorts of ways in which an individual migrant's chances of success can be enhanced. They start with providing safe accommodation, at least on a temporary basis, and advice on how to survive and stay safe at a new destination. Activities intended to benefit children on the move should be tailored to their particular profile (e.g., age, gender, languages spoken or degree of familiarity with the culture of their destination, etc.).

They include:

1. access to education, either formal (school) or non-formal (evening classes or learning opportunities at a drop-in centre);
2. advice on work opportunities and vocational training;
3. facilitating access to vocational training;
4. access to information and interesting leisure activities;
5. access to means of communication, including internet-based ways of communicating with other family members;
6. organising savings groups and facilitating remittances, when children want to send money to other family members;
7. access to other children who are in a similar situation (clubs, organisations, etc.);
8. transport (or cash in the short-term to pay for public transport) to any of these;
9. advice on how to access health services and assistance in facilitating access.

As you will note, this list emphasises two things:

a. Advice (on various topics); and
b. Access to information and services, with organisations and adults facilitating a child’s access to services which might otherwise be inaccessible.

There are evidently many other examples, which you are invited to tell us about (see Chapter 9 for an e-mail address to contact us with your examples).