

A handbook

on planning projects to prevent child trafficking

for Terre des homme Foundation

by Mike Dottridge



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Mike Dottridge

January 2007

The *International Federation Terre des hommes* (IFTDH) is a network of 11 national *Terre des hommes* organisations, whose mission is to provide active support to children without discrimination, and to generate positive change. To this end, they run 1215 development and humanitarian aid projects in 64 countries, which are designed to improve the living conditions of disadvantaged children within their own environment. *Terre des hommes* complements its project work by advocating for the promotion and implementation of the rights of children in the countries in which it operates, in order to find lasting solutions. This advocacy work is deeply rooted in field knowledge.

At the European and International level, the *IFTDH* participates in decision making that has an impact on the plight of children, to ensure that experience at a local level informs the global level. The *IFTDH* also runs an International Campaign against Child Trafficking, and is a founding member of the Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers. The *IFTDH* is in consultative status with the UN Economic and Social Council, with UNICEF, the ILO and the Council of Europe.

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International Federation Terre des homme www.terredeshommes.org

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Author profile

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Author's acknowledgements

I am grateful to Terre des hommes Foundation and the Oak Foundation for giving me the opportunity to scrutinise efforts around the world to prevent children from being trafficked (or subjected to the exploitation associated with trafficking) and to draw conclusions about the ways in which projects to prevent child trafficking should be prepared and implemented.

During the 15 months which I spent focusing on the issue of preventing child trafficking, I visited three countries in West Africa, four in South East Europe, one in South Asia and three in South East Asia. In each I obtained information about efforts to prevent children being trafficked. This was rather more than the three visits which I originally expected to undertake to prepare this report (to Albania, Nepal and Burkina Faso) and means that a great number of projects and individuals have contributed directly or indirectly to the ideas set out in this handbook—too many to mention by name.

The handbook benefited greatly from UNICEF's interest in the issue of prevention in South Eastern Europe and I am grateful to Deborah McWhinney in particular for seizing the opportunity and asking me to visit Kosovo, Moldova and Romania to assess the efforts being made there to prevent child trafficking. The conclusions from these visits, together with observations made on my earlier visit to Albania, have been published in a separate report entitled *Action to Prevent Child Trafficking in South Eastern Europe. A Preliminary Assessment* (UNICEF and Terre des hommes, Geneva, August 2006).

Government agencies, inter-governmental organisations and non-governmental organisations around the world have been generous and allowed me both to talk to their staff about their experience in trying to prevent child trafficking and to consult unpublished reports assessing a wide variety of initiatives. In virtually every country I have visited, one or other branch of Save the Children has been implementing interesting projects and I am grateful in particular to Turid Heiberg and Steve Ashby for the documents they shared with me. Without this positive attitude to cooperation, it would have been harder for me to draft the handbook and difficult to learn the lessons which all of us who want to see children's best interests take precedence think need teasing out of the various anti-trafficking programmes and projects launched in recent years.

Nevertheless, the conclusions I have drawn about the successes and failures of different techniques and strategies are mine alone. I hope they will prove useful to all of you who are involved in supporting efforts to prevent children from being subjected to abuse. I am particularly grateful to Emily Delap for editing the text and ensuring it makes sense and to Pierre Philippe at Terre des hommes for all his encouragement, support and suggestions.

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Abbreviations

AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
CSEC	commercial sexual exploitation of children
DAC	Development Advisory Committee of OECD
ECPAT	End Child Prostitution, Child Pornography and Trafficking of Children for Sexual Purposes (an NGO)
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IGO	inter-governmental organisation
IPEC	ILO's International Programme for the Elimination of Child Labour
ILO	International Labour Organization
IOM	International Organization for Migration
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
NGO	non-governmental organisation
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
OSCE	Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe
UN	United Nations
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNODC	United Nations Office for Drug Control

Introduction to handbook

I.1. The contents of this handbook

This handbook focuses on ways in which child trafficking can be prevented. It looks in particular at activities which are organised as projects or programmes, but also comments more generally on what actions are likely to be effective in preventing children from being trafficked. It is presented as a handbook so that project designers can follow it as they go, step by step, through the process of developing activities to prevent children from being trafficked.

The handbook is intended for anyone who plays a role in designing or organising activities to prevent child trafficking and, by implication, for a wider audience of policy makers in government, inter-governmental organisations (IGOs) and organisations involved in deciding what preventive activities should receive priority or in financing anti-trafficking activities. In contrast, this publication is not intended for general readers or for people who simply want to find out what human trafficking is and how children are exploited.¹

Although this handbook is presented in the form of practical advice on how to prepare activities to prevent child trafficking, there are so many different steps to take that they cannot be boiled down to a simple list of steps from 1 to 10. Instead, the key action points are summarised throughout the text. They are also summarised in the form of a series of guidelines at the end, in Chapter V.

I.2. Why this handbook is needed

Although a lot has been learnt already about practical ways in which adults and children who have been trafficked can be protected and assisted,² much less attention has been given in recent years to drawing lessons about what techniques succeed in preventing trafficking from occurring. As a result, donors seem reluctant to invest money in efforts to prevent child trafficking, even though they are familiar with the old adage, "prevention is better than cure".

Giving prevention more attention means improving the quality of preventive work, as well as increasing the amount of work being done. This handbook is a contribution towards that improvement, distilling some of the lessons which have already been learnt by many different organisations.

I.3. Terminology related to human trafficking, the exploitation of children and prevention

Human trafficking, trafficking in persons and trafficking in children

The international definition of trafficking adopted by the United Nations (UN) in 2000 has been analysed in many other publications.³ The UN's Trafficking Protocol defines what constitutes 'trafficking in persons' in cases involving adults and sets out a slightly modified definition in the case of children (i.e. anyone under the age of

18). In the case of children and adolescents under 18, it involves their being recruited and possibly moved to a location where they are to be exploited, either within their own country ('internal trafficking') or abroad (cross-border or transnational trafficking).

In the case of those aged 18 and above, to count as trafficking, some abusive means of control must be asserted over them during the process of recruitment. In the case of children this is not part of the definition, meaning that cases of child trafficking *may* involve threats or the use of violence or other forms of coercion in the initial phase of recruitment and transportation, but equally well may not. Children may be lured, enticed or even abducted, but may equally well have decided to accompany someone voluntarily. In the latter case they are still said to have been trafficked if this person delivers them into a situation of exploitation. For this reason, it is sometimes more difficult to know whether a child on the move is being trafficked than a young adult.

The term *trafficking* is used throughout this handbook to refer to all cases of human trafficking, whoever is involved. The terms *child trafficking* and *trafficking in children* are used to refer to cases which involve anyone who is under 18 at the time they are first trafficked. Other relevant terms used in the handbook are:

Adolescent

Young person aged from 10 to 17 years of age

Young person/young people

Adolescents and young adults aged 18 to 23

Exploitation associated with trafficking

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 and to relocate elsewhere is that trafficking is characterised by a phase of exploitation. The definition adopted by the UN says that:

"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!"

This definition applies to a range of forms of exploitation, such as commercial sexual exploitation (i.e. child prostitution or the

production of child pornography), forced marriage, and any occupation in which a child is forced to work or make money for someone other than a parent or guardian. This definition covers situations in which children are abducted or enslaved. It also includes situations in which children are in servitude, for example in debt bondage (the situation when a child is required to work in order to pay off a loan which either the child her/himself or one of the child's relatives has borrowed).

Children are forced to work in a wide variety of occupations, such as begging, domestic work, and various forms of agricultural or sweatshop work. With the exception of commercial sexual exploitation, it is not the fact that a child is working in one of these sectors which signifies that she or he has been trafficked, but rather the fact that the child is subjected to some form of force or constraint and is not entitled to leave.

Traffickers who recruit and move children have an awareness or intention that the young people concerned will subsequently be exploited. This distinguishes them from other recruiters or intermediaries who help children find work but who either have no intention of putting the children into a situation of exploitation or no knowledge whatsoever of the constraints imposed on them after they start work.

The terms 'exploitation' and 'exploited' are used throughout this handbook to refer to any of the situations mentioned in the UN Trafficking Protocol. Each of the forms of exploitation mentioned in the UN Trafficking Protocol has been defined separately in other international laws.⁴

The term trafficking is also used to refer to cases in which babies are taken from one country to another in order to be adopted, in circumstances which violate international standards for inter-country adoption. This category of trafficking and the action necessary to prevent it is not addressed in this handbook. The focus is on situations in which children are trafficked to be exploited.

Prevention

This handbook focuses specifically on efforts to prevent children from being trafficked, rather than related efforts to prosecute traffickers and to provide assistance to children who are already being exploited and to help such children recover and restart their lives.⁵

Diagram 1: Example of a standard 'logframe'

Project structure	Intervention logic	Indicators of achievement	Means of verification (of indicators)	Critical factors for success (assumptions and risks)
Wider Objectives (Goal)				
Purpose (Immediate Objectives)				
Outputs (Results)				
Activities/ Inputs	Means	Costs		

The UN Trafficking Protocol only offers general guidance about what to do to prevent human trafficking, mentioning, among other things, measures “to alleviate the factors that make persons, especially women and children, vulnerable to trafficking, such as poverty, underdevelopment and lack of equal opportunity” (article 9.4) and “educational, social or cultural measures...to discourage the demand that fosters all forms of exploitation of persons, especially women and children, that leads to trafficking” (article 9.5). Despite the lack of detail, this is a helpful starting point. It points to the need to focus preventive efforts in two different places: where people are recruited and where they are exploited.

Further reading

Mike Dottridge. *Kids as Commodities? Child Trafficking and What to do about it*. Fédération Internationale Terre des hommes. Geneva, May 2004. http://www.stopchildtrafficking.org/site/fileadmin/stopchildtrafficking/downloads/presse/livre_fichier_final.pdf

OSCE Permanent Council Decision No. 557. *OSCE Action Plan To Combat Trafficking In Human Beings*. OSCE Document PC.DEC/557. 24 July 2003. http://www.osce.org/press_rel/2003/pdf_documents/07-3447-pc1.pdf

I.4. Terminology related to the design and management of projects

Many of the terms used in this handbook are defined in English, French and Spanish by the

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development's (OECD) Development Assistance Committee (DAC).⁶ The most relevant ones are included below:

Situation analysis The initial step of describing the situation that needs to be changed.

Logical framework (or 'logframe') This is a management tool used in the design of projects and the various 'interventions' of which a project is composed and also in the course of its implementation, when monitoring the 'means of verification' (of indicators) generates information about the project's progress towards achieving its outputs, and objectives. It involves identifying a series of elements (inputs, outputs, outcomes, impact) and their 'programme logic', i.e. the causal relationships between them and an 'outcome' or objective. It distinguishes wider objectives (or "goal") from more immediate objectives (or "purposes"), specific activities and outputs. It also identifies a series of indicators to show whether these are being achieved successfully (mentioned in Chapter IV.1 below), along with the assumptions or risks that influence success and failure (dealt with in section IV.3 below).

Programme logic The set of causal relationships which are expected to enable a series of micro-level activities to produce much wider results. Specific activities are the micro 'cogs' which are expected to bring about progress towards meeting goals at macro level. Within a logframe, the programme logic is expressed in the left-hand column ('intervention logic'), moving from bottom to top in a causal flow. However, the process is often designed in

reverse (starting out with the goal—a vision of what the world changed by the project will look like—and then working out what specific changes would contribute to this).

Strategy A self-contained set of activities which are intended to produce change (i.e. orientated towards an objective).

Intervention Term used generically for any 'activity' designed as part of a project to produce a specific result or change.

Beneficiaries (from DAC Glossary). The individuals, groups, or organisations, whether targeted or not, that benefit, directly or indirectly, from an intervention. Sometimes referred to as 'target groups'. In the case of a project intended to prevent child trafficking, the main beneficiaries should be children at risk of being trafficked (rather than just *any* children). Potentially 'beneficiaries' include wider communities where the children live (if influencing them is expected to prevent children from being trafficked) or even other organisations which a project assists in order to increase their capacity and influence.

Stakeholders (from DAC Glossary). Agencies, organisations, groups or individuals who have a direct or indirect interest in an 'intervention' or its evaluation.

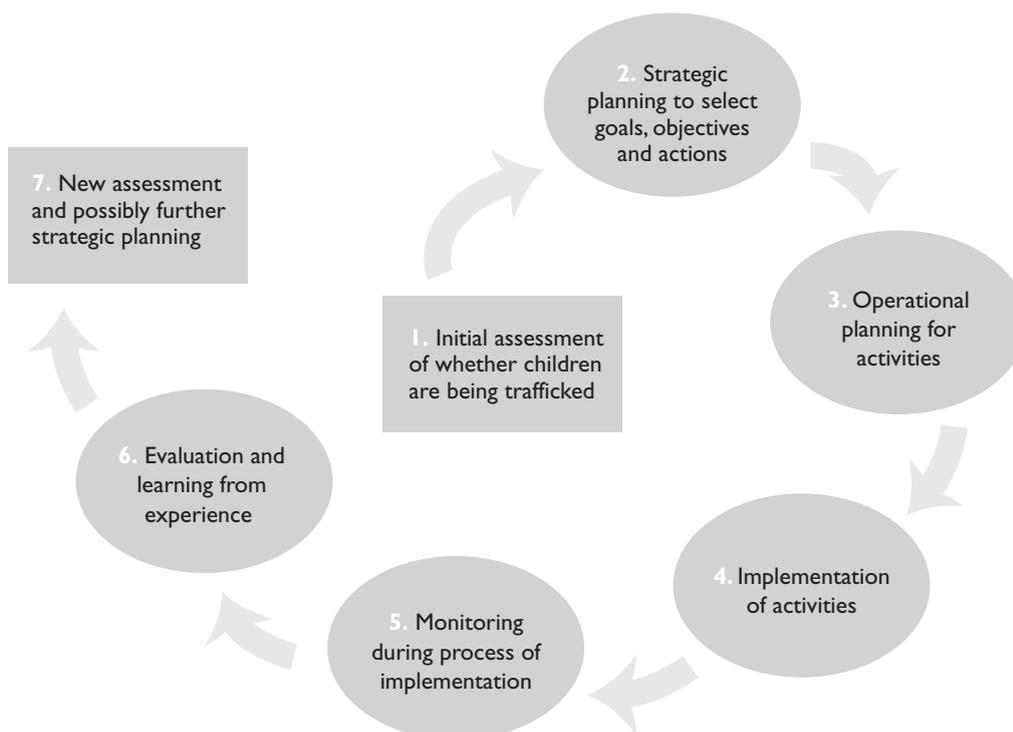
Partners The individuals and/or organisations that collaborate to achieve mutually agreed objectives. In the context of a specific project—key organisations, institutions and groups that will provide support during project implementation, all of whom are also stakeholders.

Project manager/management A project needs a specific individual (or set of individuals) to manage and monitor its implementation and to adapt the project to changing circumstances as necessary.

I.5. Areas covered by the handbook in relation to the conventional project cycle or spiral

Project designers use a set of conventional terms to refer to the different stages of any project, whatever its objectives. The assumption is that most organisations running projects perceive them to run in a cycle: planning, implementation, evaluation and review; following by a new cycle of planning and so on. However, when progress is achieved, it should not be necessary to go round and round the same circle. So the set of actions involved are presented here as a spiral rather than a cycle.

Diagram 2: The Project cycle: not a circle, more of a spiral



The emphasis in this handbook is on Stage 2, 'strategic planning', for this is both a key to success in initiatives to prevent trafficking and, sadly, the weak Achilles heel of many recent initiatives which have not achieved what they set out to do. However, in projects to prevent trafficking (more than those with different objectives) it is perhaps even more important than in projects with quite different objectives to pay attention to Stages 5 and 6; i.e. checking, once the project's activities are underway, that they are having the desired effect and not doing something either unintended or even counter-productive for children.

I.6. The key approach stressed by this handbook

Action to prevent trafficking is generally initiated to *react* to a problem: it intends to *stop* children from being trafficked or exploited. However, to bring about sustainable change, actions to prevent trafficking (whether just of children or of adults as well) have to be formulated in terms of doing something positive which contributes to the *development* of the communities concerned. So, although the starting point is to achieve something negative ("to stop trafficking"), this can best be achieved by a combination of positive actions, such as increasing the knowledge and skills of the children who are most at risk of being trafficked, increasing the number of school graduates who get jobs near where they live, or increasing income-generating opportunities available to adults who otherwise send their children away from home in circumstances in which they are trafficked.

The art of preventing trafficking (for it is not yet a science) is to work out what the effect any of these positive developments is likely to be on the incidence of trafficking. It is quite possible to contribute to a community's development by increasing knowledge, job opportunities or income, without having any effect on the frequency with which trafficking occurs. Predicting the relationship between a potential social or economic change and the incidence of trafficking means exploring the causal links between them. It is easier to understand this relationship (and the likely effects of your intervention) if you understand the various causes of trafficking. This, in turn, can be achieved most easily by referring to the cases of young people who have already been

trafficked. In particular, you can try and work out what, if anything, distinguishes these young people from others of the same age in the countries they come from. Why were *they* trafficked, rather than someone else, and in what particular circumstances did they come to be trafficked?

On the basis of an analysis of the characteristics of trafficked children and factors which had a causal effect in their cases, it is possible to reach some preliminary conclusions about which categories of children are most likely to be trafficked in the immediate future; i.e., who is most at risk or most vulnerable to being trafficked. Focusing preventive efforts on the children who are at highest risk usually makes more sense and leads to better results than untargeted preventive actions.

The priority which should be given to understanding the relationship between positive changes and the incidence of trafficking also means that the effects of every action intended to prevent trafficking should be monitored, so that evidence is collected about its impact. This makes it possible to learn what the specific effects of the action have been and how (if at all) it has affected a pattern of trafficking.

In trying to understand the causes of trafficking, and in developing effective prevention strategies, it is essential to speak with those who are most affected by trafficking; children who have been trafficked or are at risk from trafficking and their families. All interventions designed to address trafficking must consider what is in children's best interests, and ensure that actions promote children's rights. It is also essential to recognise that different groups of children may have different needs. For example, the reasons for girls' trafficking may be very different from that of boys, and the two groups may therefore require very different strategies to prevent their trafficking. This child rights approach to trafficking is promoted throughout the handbook and explored in more detail in section II.4.

I.7. Outline of the handbook

This handbook is divided into five chapters. Following this introductory chapter, Chapter II examines the preparatory steps that need to be taken before project planning begins. These include: problem analysis; identifying resources, opportunities, limitations and obstacles, and

determining the key principles and values that will shape project activities. Chapter III explores the options and strategies which have already been tried to prevent trafficking, presenting these in a series of 'menus' which can be used, respectively, in the areas where children are recruited, while they are in transit or at their destinations, where they are exploited. Chapter IV looks at how to find out if your

particular preventive initiative is having any effect and how to learn from your own monitoring and evaluation and that of others to do things better in the future. The key points are summarised at the end of each chapter and these are summaries compiled in Chapter V. Suggestions for further reading are provided throughout the text.

Footnotes

- 1 Anyone seeking purely general information can refer to other publications about human trafficking and child trafficking, including one by the same author (Dottridge, 2004). This and other references are cited in full in the bibliography at the end of the handbook, together with a web reference wherever one is available.
- 2 Particularly since the United Nations (UN) adopted a new treaty on the issue of human trafficking in November 2000 and the United States of America (US) adopted a new law on trafficking at the end of the same year. Both led to substantially more money being invested in initiatives to stop human trafficking than during previous decades.
- 3 See Dottridge, 2004. The definition is contained in the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (2000), supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (2000)", referred to in these guidelines as the "Trafficking Protocol" and also known as the "Palermo Protocol." The full text is found at <http://www.ohchr.org/english/law/pdf/protocoltraffic.pdf>.

Article 3 states:

"(a) '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;

"(b) The consent of a victim of trafficking in persons to the intended exploitation set forth in subparagraph (a) of this article shall be irrelevant where any of the means set forth in subparagraph (a) have been used;

"(c) The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of a child for the purpose of exploitation shall be considered "trafficking in persons" even if this does not involve any of the means set forth in subparagraph (a) of this article;

"(d) 'Child' shall mean any person under eighteen years of age."

- 4 The definition of all these terms (and other related ones) can be found in: David Weissbrodt and Anti-Slavery International, *Abolishing Slavery and its Contemporary Forms*, Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, Geneva, 2002. This can be found at: <http://www.ohchr.org/english/about/publications/docs/slavery.pdf>. It can also be found at the same site in a variety of other languages.
- 5 These categories of activity that involve protection and are the subject of a specific set of guidelines issued by UNICEF in 2003, UNICEF's Guidelines on the Protection of the Rights of Child Victims of Trafficking. The UNICEF Guidelines can be found at: http://www.unicef.org/ceecis/GUIDELINES_Protection_of_Victims_of_Trafficking.pdf. In addition, a Reference Guide about these guidelines, issued by UNICEF in July 2006, contains a chapter on prevention. This Reference Guide on Protecting the Rights of Child Victims of Trafficking in Europe can be found at: http://www.unicef.org/ceecis/protection_4440.html
- 6 Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Development Assistance Committee (DAC) Working Party on Aid Evaluation, *Glossary of Key Terms in Evaluation and Result Based Management*, Paris, 2002. The entire glossary is trilingual (English, French and Spanish). Available at: <http://www.oecd.org/dac/evaluation>

Preparatory steps



Many activities to prevent child trafficking are financed by a donor who is willing to support activities with specific objectives over a limited period of time, in effect a project. Even when this is not the case, the discipline imposed by project planning can be helpful. This means:

- Working out what you (and others) want to be different in the future (i.e. what is to be achieved);
- Working out what changes are necessary to make this difference and how they can be brought about; and
- Finding out subsequently whether the objectives have been met, rather than investing time and money in what sounds like a good idea, but turns out to be misdirected or ineffective.

In effect this means starting at the end (with what you want to have achieved as a result of your efforts) and working backwards!

In order to develop these project objectives and activities, several preparatory steps need to be taken. It is important to:

- Analyse 'the problem' which you want to solve and explore the causes of this problem.
- Understand the range of resources that can be drawn upon to prevent trafficking.
- Explore the risk factors that may affect the success of your project.
- Determine the principles which underpin initiatives to prevent child trafficking.

This part of the report provides guidance on each of these steps in turn.

II.1. Analysing the problem

Organisations have various terms for the process for identifying a 'problem' which they want to solve and for analysing the various causes of the problem, all of which may need tackling if the problem is to be solved. Some call it a 'situation analysis'. Others talk about a 'problem tree' and use various conceptual analyses to identify the relationships between the social, economic and cultural practices which have a causal effect. The Terre des hommes Foundation Project Cycle Handbook does not use any of these terms, but requires an initial analysis of the abuse to which children are subjected as one of the "prerequisites" in a project cycle (Zehnder et al, 2001, Sheet III).

In relation to child trafficking, this problem analysis involves getting hold of accurate information about which children have been affected and the reasons they have been trafficked and analysing it. Understanding the reasons is tantamount to understanding the causes of trafficking cases. In order to prevent trafficking from taking place, it is necessary to address the causes: any other sort of preventive action will simply skirt the surface.

What needs to be found out before project planning can begin

Differentiating between trafficked children and other child migrants

It is often difficult to differentiate between children who have been trafficked and other unaccompanied or separated children, particularly those who have ended up working

or being exploited in much the same way as children who have been trafficked. Any intervention aimed at preventing trafficking must have a clear understanding of the different types of exploitation children suffer in order to respond appropriately.

For example, children from part of northwest Romania emigrate abroad in significant numbers before finishing their compulsory education. In the early part of this decade they were routinely found earning a living by stealing in the Paris region of France. This led child rights defenders to assume they were being trafficked. In reality, the vast majority of the children were not trafficked and did not hand over their earnings to any sort of controller. The nature of the preventive action required in Romania to dissuade young adolescents from emigrating abroad into a life of petty crime is different to the action which would have been appropriate if the children had been trafficked.

It is also important to differentiate between children who have been trafficked into situations of exploitation and others who have been recruited and assisted in finding jobs which they want to stay in, even if other people consider them to be too young to be working full-time (under the terms of international labour standards). At the moment, different organisations draw the line (between acceptable work and unacceptable situations of exploitation) in different places. Consequently, some projects which are ostensibly about stopping child trafficking are in fact intended to stop the flow of children going to work in relatively safe (and, from the child's point of view, acceptable) circumstances. Box 1 provides an example of this below.

So it is sensible to assess the degree of exploitation and abuse to which a child working away from home is being subjected before assuming that it involves trafficking and should be prevented. For example, adolescent girls from a former cocoa-growing rural area in Togo now emigrate to work as live-in domestic servants in Accra, the capital of neighbouring Ghana. There are certainly risks for adolescent girls who work in private homes, but in this case most are reported to be safe in the households where they work. The employment agents who arrange their journeys and employment are reported to keep an eye on them and there are well established channels enabling the children to keep in contact with their families at home.

However, some are subsequently recruited in Accra by different agents and dispatched once again, this time to Lagos in Nigeria, where they are out of contact with home and with anyone who knows them. They are consequently at much greater risk of being abused. In theory the working situations in which the children find themselves are much the same. However, in practice the vulnerability of the children is quite different. It appears to be a much greater priority (to anyone concerned about protecting the children from harm) to prevent children travelling on to work in Lagos than to stop them working in Accra. Of course, this distinction can only be made after an analysis of the circumstances and respective vulnerabilities of the two groups of children. This is only feasible once accurate information about what is happening to children who migrate is available.

Some counter-trafficking specialists distinguish between 'hard' trafficking, involving abductions or fraudulent deception, and 'soft' trafficking, in which a child leaves home deliberately as a result of a decision made by the child or the child's parents (Dottridge, 2004, 16). When it comes to preventing child trafficking, it is useful to know whether children came under the control of a trafficker at the moment they left home or if they left home voluntarily and only came under the control of a trafficker later on. The distinction is important in order to decide how to address the different situations. Furthermore, if only some of the children who deliberately leave home (or who leave their country) end up being trafficked, it is possible to learn from those who avoid being trafficked about how and why they manage this (i.e. looking at their 'positive deviance' and learning from it).

Placing trafficking in context

Not only is it important to clearly distinguish between trafficking and other forms of exploitation or safe work for children, it is also necessary to place trafficking in context. It is important for practitioners and donors to ensure that the amounts of effort and money spent on anti-trafficking projects are not out of all proportion with the abuse being caused. It may be that related forms of abuse, such as domestic violence, rape, child marriage and the exploitation of children who have not been trafficked are all more serious problems for a particular community.

Box 1 – **When interceptions are a form of abuse**

There are various opportunities to intercept children while they are being trafficked from their usual place of residence to another location. The most common one is when they cross an international border, as immigration officials/border police can check their identity documents and query why they are leaving or entering a country (asking questions either of the child or anyone accompanying her/him).

The authorities in many countries now insist that children leaving their own country who are below a minimum age (such as 15 or even 18) should carry a letter signed by one or both parents giving their formal permission for the child to leave the country. This is more likely to prevent children being taken abroad by one of their own parents, following separation or divorce, than to stop traffickers taking them across a frontier, due to the various ruses which traffickers use.

Border formalities give immigration officials various opportunities for protection, for example to record which children are entering a country in circumstances which, even vaguely, suggest they may be exploited subsequently and to arrange for them to receive a subsequent visit from a social worker to check on their welfare.

However, interceptions can easily become abusive if children who are not being trafficked are refused permission to proceed with their journey.

For example, in Nepal non-governmental organisations (NGOs) have been allowed by the authorities to set up check-points on roads crossing the border to India. They employ specialists known as 'physionomists' who are reputed (in Nepal) to be able to identify adolescent girls who are being trafficked. In effect the NGOs concerned have given themselves police powers to stop adolescent girls from crossing to India, transferring the girls instead to their own NGO transit centres, where some are kept, often against their will. The 'physionomists' appear to use criteria based on caste and social class to identify adolescent girls who belong to social groups where a disproportionately high number of girls have been trafficked in the past. Many of the 'physionomists' reportedly come from such groups and act in good faith under orders from the NGOs employing them.

The girls who are detained in transit and 'rehabilitation' centres view the NGO as a powerful institution which is in league with the authorities and whose power they cannot contest. In the worst cases, intercepted girls who have attended residential training courses given by NGOs have been stigmatised on their return home, because the NGO is known to be involved in anti-prostitution activities and the girl is consequently suspected (unjustifiably) of having been involved in prostitution (Hausner, 2005). Such interceptions are reported to have diminished as the number of children fleeing from political violence has increased.

Interception on the basis of little specific evidence that the child concerned is in danger of harm can be justified if the child concerned has not yet reached puberty and is palpably too young to be travelling alone. However, the same does not apply to adolescent boys or girls. In the case of adolescents, it might be justified if there is substantial evidence that the vast majority of adolescents crossing a border are being trafficked—such a large proportion that it is reasonable to make the presumption that most adolescents crossing the border are destined for exploitation. However, in the case of Nepal, NGOs made this assumption without obtaining adequate evidence. It was not until 2005 that an international NGO commissioned research into the reasons why young people crossed the border and concluded that there were numerous good reasons (Hausner, 2005). Furthermore, interceptions are acceptable when carried out by law enforcement officials such as the police or immigration officials. The involvement of NGOs in stopping adolescents or young adults from exercising their freedom of movement is an abuse of power, as well as of human rights.

Understanding the process of trafficking

Trafficking is not a single event. As illustrated in Diagram 3, it consists of a series of distinct phases.

In reality, the child's experience is unlikely to be sequential like this. Some children escape (or negotiate their own withdrawal) only to be drawn back into an exploitative situation again. However, Diagram 3 serves to illustrate the basic point, that trafficking consists of a chain of events. There are different phases and each phase involves a different set of actors and different opportunities to influence them.

So, efforts to prevent trafficking and the exploitation associated with it can be made at different points along the trafficking chain. For example, action may be taken to persuade parents not to send their young children to earn money in the pre-trafficking phase. Very different action will need to be taken to influence people who pay for the sexual services of adolescents to reduce children's exploitation once they have been transported.

From the moment that a child enters the first phase of being trafficked—being recruited by someone who has the intention of exploiting her/him or handing the child over to someone else to exploit her/him—it also becomes appropriate to take action to protect the child and provide any assistance which she or he needs. From this moment onwards, the actions necessary to *protect* a trafficked child complement the actions to *prevent* that phase of trafficking from occurring and vice versa. This is illustrated in Diagram 4, which shows how complementary interventions, to prevent trafficking and to protect children who are being trafficked or subjected to other abuse, can be organised at different phases and that the nature of the intervention which is appropriate varies according to the phase in the trafficking cycle.

The characteristics of children who are being trafficked disproportionately

It is important to build up a 'profile' of the victims of trafficking; identifying their salient characteristics in order to investigate why they have been trafficked rather than any other children. The aim is to find out if children with particular characteristics are being trafficked in greater numbers than others. If they are, it may be possible to conclude that children with a certain profile are at disproportionately greater risk of being trafficked than others—and to focus preventive efforts on them. To find out this, it is necessary to identify the salient characteristics of children who have *not* been trafficked and to compare these with those who have. These comparisons should ideally be made between trafficked children and a similar social and economic background who have left home in similar circumstances, but avoided being trafficked. It is not much use knowing that all trafficked children come from poor or single parent families if there are equal numbers of poor children from single parent families who are not being trafficked. Learning from the experiences of children who have not experienced the particular abuse you are concerned about is referred to as 'positive deviance'.

It is not always possible to identify the salient characteristics of trafficked children, particularly when large numbers of children are being trafficked or ending up in situations of exploitation. However, it is always worth trying to find out. The relevant characteristics to look out for vary from region to region. Diagram 5 suggests some to look out for:

The raw data available about children who have already been trafficked is unlikely to reveal any of these characteristics initially, particularly if several different patterns of trafficking coincide in the same area and the available data concerns both. For example, in Albania boys and girls aged 8 to 11 have been trafficked to

Diagram 3: **Five phases of child trafficking**

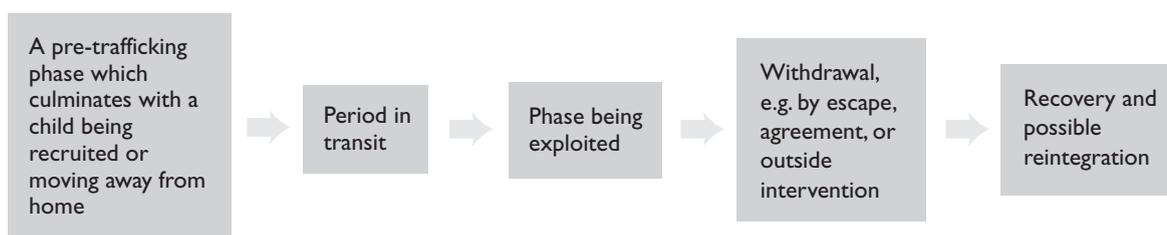
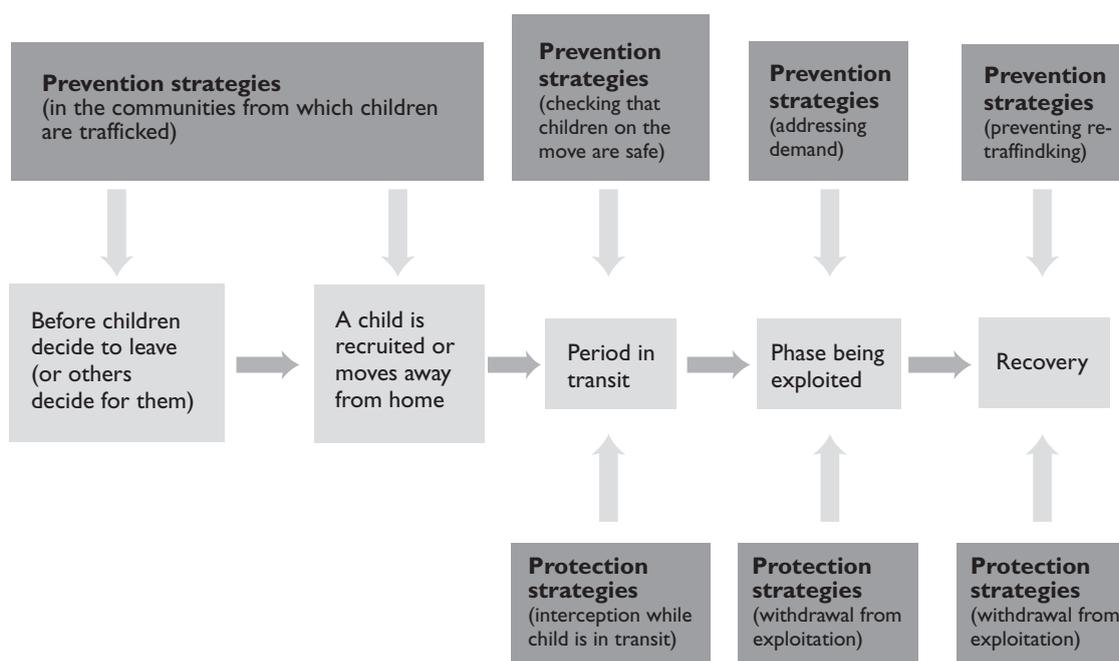


Diagram 4: **The complementary roles of prevention and protection**

beg, while older adolescent girls have been trafficked, generally to different destinations, for commercial sexual exploitation. The combined data about both patterns does not reveal what is happening. However, by disaggregating the data by age and sex, the distinct patterns become apparent.

Furthermore, the diversity of the characteristics which might be relevant makes it hard to identify common patterns. If you are only able to draw very general conclusions (“most trafficked children come from poor households living in rural areas”), you still do not know where to target your preventive efforts. More detailed inquiries based on research about specific characteristics of children who have been trafficked may consequently be necessary. This in turn means developing a better understanding of the causes behind trafficking, so that you know what characteristics to look for.

Further reading

(mentioning various research techniques, including positive deviance)

A M J Van Gaalen. *Review of initiatives to combat child trafficking by members of the Save the Children Alliance*. 2003. http://www.redbarnet.dk/Files/Filer/Rapporter/Child_Trafficking_Alliance_WorkingPaper.pdf

The underlying and structural causes of child trafficking

In order to prevent trafficking it is necessary to understand why it occurs. Child trafficking, along with other forms of child exploitation such as child labour and the recruitment of children as soldiers, has causes at different levels. The International Labour Organization (ILO) identifies causes at three levels:

Immediate causes are the most visible and obvious: they act directly at the level of the child and the family. Household-income poverty (income not meeting cash needs for subsistence) and cash-flow crises caused by shocks to the household economy are key. For example, with a sick mother; an absent father and no food, the eldest child in the family may well pick up a bucket and cloth and go to wash windscreens.

Underlying causes refer to values and situations that may predispose a family or community to accept or even encourage child labour for boys and/or girls. Perceptions of poverty come into play at this level; for example, “consumerism” may drive children and parents alike to seek to earn more money to buy the consumer goods that are becoming increasingly available.

Structural or root causes act at the level of the larger economy and society, influencing the enabling environment in which child labour can

Diagram 5: **Four sets of characteristics which may reveal salient characteristics about trafficked children**

1. Identity and place of origin

- Place of origin from which child migrated or was trafficked (country, region, specific administrative area)
- Nature of place from which trafficked: hamlet, village, small town, large town, capital
- Nationality or ethnic origin
- Age
- Sex
- Any other characteristic linked to the child's identity?

2. Education and what the child was doing at the time she/he was trafficked

- At school, unemployed, working (if so, at what – e.g. an occupation which traffickers deliberately target, such as waitresses or sex workers)
- Level of school completed
- Did the child drop out before completing her/his compulsory schooling?
- Any special characteristic of schooling (e.g. attended boarding school or lived in an orphanage)

3. Characteristics of the household from which a child was trafficked

Nature of family with whom trafficked child lived before being trafficked:

- living with both birth parents
- single parent family, (unmarried mother, parents divorced/separated, widowed)
- 'reconstituted' family (one or more step parent)
- polygamous family
- living with relatives or elsewhere, either because orphan (both parents dead) or one/both parents emigrated

Other characteristics

- Income level of household (i.e. poor; very poor; middling, one or both parents unemployed, family known to have received income support, etc.)
- Level of school education achieved by father and mother
- Numbers of siblings and where trafficked child is situated (eldest, youngest, middle) with respect to all siblings, to those of the same sex and to those with the same mother
- Occupations of parents and siblings
- Any report of domestic abuse (whether mentioned as a direct cause of leaving home or not)

4. Circumstances in which a child left home or was trafficked

- 'Soft' or 'hard' trafficking, i.e. was child abducted, were parents genuinely deceived, etc.
- Did the parents receive a loan or advance on the child's subsequent wages (which has the effect of 'bonding' the child to a particular employer later on)? Does their need to take this loan reveal any characteristic about the household?
- Did the child leave home of her/his own accord or was the child passed into the hands of a trafficker directly from home?

either flourish or be controlled. Aggregate national poverty (low Gross Domestic Product) operates at this level.¹

Particular categories in which it is useful to group the causes at each of the three levels are:

- Income-related (e.g. lack of income, lack of land, family indebtedness);
- Crises or 'shocks';
- Demand-related (i.e. demand for cheap labour or a specific demand child labour), including cultural practices, such as the extent to which paying for commercial sex is regarded as normal by men and boys in a society;
- Identity-related (i.e. linked to a child's racial, ethnic or social origins), including racial or ethnic discrimination and denial of citizenship to entire groups of people;
- Gender discrimination and other issues relate to gender, including cultural practices (such as discrimination against girls owning or inheriting land or other property) and marriage practices (such as dowry and bridewealth²);
- Education-related (e.g. certain children dropping out of school or not making the move from a local primary to a more distant secondary school);
- Levels of respect for the rule of law (concerning e.g. levels of corruption and coordination between different branches of government or law enforcement agencies, or the lack of it).

When listing the causes, it is useful to distinguish those which are relevant predominantly in the areas where children are recruited and which are relevant in places of destination.

Trafficking has many different causes, so understanding how these interact with each other is useful, but difficult. For example, a cluster of causes are linked to school education, so providing better schooling, or better schooling for girls, or more relevant classes at school are often seen as appropriate strategies in response. This is illustrated in Diagram 6. The analysis in this diagram suggests that it is often *cultural attitudes* in the wider community that need addressing, rather than simply a lack of knowledge or skills which can be remedied by teaching children an additional subject at school.

The causes at the structural level are likely to provoke more problems than trafficking alone.

They are frequently being addressed by other initiatives, such as efforts to reduce violence against women and girls (including domestic violence) and curriculum reform. It may be appropriate to reinforce these efforts rather than launching a specific project to prevent trafficking. More often than not, initiatives addressing structural problems are not tackling some of the more specific causes of trafficking, so there is still something specific to do. However, it is usually sensible to coordinate with others and to ensure that any new project complements existing efforts, rather than duplicating or contradicting them.

A further complication is that some causal factors turn out not to be specific causes of trafficking, but causes of something else, and trafficking is a bi-product of certain other conditions. In many parts of the world, adolescents decide to leave home for a wide range of reasons: poor relationships with their parents, a sense of adventure and ambition, etc. Some of these adolescents turn out well while others are trafficked. Understanding why boys and girls chose to leave the environment they are familiar with (home or somewhere else) is important in such circumstances, as well as understanding the alternatives available to them when they do so (and boys often have more options than girls). This is essentially the same analysis that is necessary to understand why children leave home to live and work on the streets.

Understanding the demand for the services or products of trafficked children

Many recent international agreements urge that the 'demand' for the services of trafficking victims should be tackled more systematically by governments. However, few spell out what they mean by 'demand'. Frequently it is assumed to refer primarily, or solely, to men and boys who pay for commercial sex and whose money ends up in the hands of traffickers and pimps. However, the main 'demand' for women and children who are trafficked comes from those who make a profit out of them, either in the course of recruiting them and passing them onto someone else or once trafficked children are earning money for them and being paid little or none of the proceeds. This demand is driven by the desire of pimps and exploitative employers to make money easily and also by their ability to do so (on account of the authorities' failure to enforce basic labour standards or the public's

Diagram 6: Possible causes of child trafficking perceived to be linked to education

Immediate causes	Underlying causes	Structural or root causes
Poor levels of education of parents, who do not consider attending school to be useful and do not encourage their children to remain in school (or urge them to start work)	Cultural attitude in a particular community that school education is not useful	Insufficient financial or political commitment for education and failure to make the school curriculum seem relevant
Children drop out of school before completing their primary (compulsory) education	Tolerance of child labour by parents and wider community	Failure to enforce laws on compulsory education and minimum age for admission into full-time employment
Girls attend primary school but most do not transfer to lower secondary school to finish the final years of their compulsory education (while boys do)	Tolerance of girls dropping out of school. Failure to guarantee the security of girls travelling some distance to school (or to provide transport for them)	Cultural attitudes towards girls and women: that they do not need school education; that girls move away at marriage and are not worth much investment; that it is legitimate for husbands and fathers to subject them to violence
Ignorance by children and parents of risks when they leave their own community and of how to cope with such risks	Lack of information about how to migrate safely and about the situation in potential destinations	Government policies which discourage migration and dissemination of inaccurate information about migration (e.g. either exaggerating or underplaying the risks)
Children's lack of knowledge about career opportunities, how to apply for jobs and what precautions to take when they travel away from home	Education system which emphasises academic knowledge and not life skills; teachers' own ignorance of the 'outside world'	Government's failure to modernise the education system.

ignorance of what standards are appropriate with respect to children).

A study of 'demand' for trafficked adults and children working in two unregulated sectors concluded that:

"...three related factors are key to explaining the exploitative conditions experienced by many migrant domestic and sex workers: (a) The unregulated nature of the labour market segments in which they work; (b) the abundant supply of exploitable labour and (c) the power and malleability of social norms regulating the behaviour of employers and clients. The continued expansion of any unregulated market is likely to require and facilitate the exploitation of vulnerable labour." (Anderson and O'Connell Davidson, 2003, 5).

Some members of the public represent a 'demand' factor by contributing money to traffickers without consciously preferring to pay for the services of a child rather than an adult, yet alone someone who has been trafficked. Members of the public who contribute money to child beggars can be said to act out of the best motives, while traffickers know that child beggars will inspire more pity (and earn more money for them) than adult beggars, as well as being easier to control. In some countries this means there is a specific demand (by traffickers and the 'beggar masters' who control begging children) for children with disabilities. People who donate money represent a causal factor and can potentially be influenced to prevent children being trafficked to beg.

Demand for commercial sex has particular characteristics. Men and boys who pay for sex generally place a high premium on youthful looks: in some places this results in a specific demand for girls under 16 or paedophiles deliberately seek out children who have not even reached puberty. While some men and boys who are willing to pay for sex with an under-18-year-old do not specifically seek out adolescent children rather than young adults, traffickers and pimps are evidently able to intimidate adolescents into obedience more easily than adults, despite the risk in many countries of more severe punishment if they are caught.

Further reading

ILO-IPEC. Regional Project on Combating Child Trafficking for Labour and Sexual Exploitation (TICSA-Instant Images). *Demand Side of Human Trafficking in Asia: Empirical Findings*. ILO, 2006.

Causes due to institutional failures

Trafficking is facilitated by a series of institutional failures. While these may not look like direct causes, if your analysis suggests that such failures are contributing to trafficking occurring, it means that, by remedying the failures, you would bring about improvements that would, in turn, reduce the number of children being trafficked. So, these improvements have a preventive effect. Examples of these are set out in Diagram 7.

Determining which causes are of most significance

It is easy to get lost in a mass of data about different causes of child trafficking and to emerge confused, without seeing clearly which causes should be addressed as a priority or which ones should be addressed by your organisation. One helpful technique is to avoid using the term 'trafficking' altogether. Instead, be specific: itemise the different activities linked to trafficking that are occurring in the area over which you might have some influence.

This method enables you to distinguish between cases in which the circumstances of a child's departure are abusive (e.g. abduction or sale) and those in which children set out on a journey of their own choice but subsequently come under the control of traffickers. In the latter case, the main 'problem' may be that young people are leaving home ill-equipped to make their own way in the world. In the destinations to which children are trafficked, it is the specific forms of exploitation to which children are subjected that constitute 'problems' to be prevented: either commercial sexual exploitation or various forms of forced labour.

Once you have identified a specific issue to tackle, you will find it easier to work out what intervention might make a positive difference—or at least you will have a better chance than if you seek to prevent 'trafficking' as a general occurrence from happening. In many ways, the term 'trafficking' simply blurs matters and makes it more difficult to work out what specific problem needs addressing.

Possible sources of information

Accurate information about current and recent patterns of human trafficking into or out of a country or specific area is vital before any meaningful preventive action can be planned. As

Diagram 7: Examples of institutional failures which facilitate trafficking

Examples of failures	Institution involved	Cause (to be remedied)
<p>Inability to identify children who are vulnerable to being trafficked. Inability to use child protection measures (particularly to prevent vulnerable children from being trafficked). Failure by social services to analyse information about children who have been trafficked (both within the country and abroad) or subjected to related forms of abuse.</p>	State social services and child protection agencies.	<p>Lack of government commitment to establishing effective agencies. Lack of resources. Lack of knowledge of appropriate techniques and lack of training.</p>
<p>Inadequate laws (on trafficking, forced labour; labour protection, prostitution in general or child prostitution in particular).</p>	Government, national legislature (parliament).	<p>Inappropriate laws, e.g. laws which punish children making money from prostitution because providing commercial sex is treated as a crime. Lack of political will to enforce laws linked to prostitution.</p>
<p>Inadequate enforcement of the law, sometimes arising from a lack of understanding of the law (or of recently revised definitions of trafficking in persons).</p>	Law enforcement officials, including police, immigration service and labour inspectors.	<p>Lack of political will. Lack of training. Lack of resources (including inadequate salaries). Corruption.</p>
<p>Inadequate coordination between separate agencies within one country.</p>	Agencies involved in child protection and anti-trafficking activities in the same country.	<p>Absence of mechanisms for coordinating overlapping efforts by different ministries or agencies and failure of government to insist on coordination or to introduce a coordination mechanism (e.g. national referral mechanism,³ now common in Eastern Europe). Tradition of institutional independence (not working together).</p>
<p>Inadequate coordination between agencies based in different countries which are concerned with different ends of the same trafficking chain.</p>	Agencies involved in anti-trafficking activities and child protection, consular officials and Ministry of Foreign Affairs.	<p>No adequate mechanisms set up by inter-governmental organisations. Government officials in the countries where children are exploited think the responsibility for prevention lies entirely with the children's countries of origin. Bilateral agreements (between states) slow to be negotiated.</p>

a first step, it is important to review what information has already been collected by academics, governments, UN agencies or NGOs, and to assess the quality of this material. Such data may include records kept by NGOs or UN agencies of trafficked children who they have dealt with, and research studies conducted by academics. Although in some cases this secondary data is of high quality, all too often it is based on meaningless definitions or is inaccurate. Gathering information on hidden and illegal activities such as trafficking is challenging. Before you use any evidence from other agencies, it is essential that you are confident that these organisations or individuals have been able to meet this challenge. Questions to ask about any secondary data include:

- Does it look at general trends or provide information on the specific type of trafficking we are planning to focus on?
- What definition of trafficking is being used? Does this match with our understanding of the issue?
- How many people were included in the research or record keeping (for example, it is hard to draw general conclusions from interviews with only 10 children)?
- Did relevant people, closest to the problem participate in the research? (e.g. were children consulted? What about their parents?)
- Did the organisation who gathered the information have the skills needed to do so? What is their reputation in this field?
- Does the organisation have any hidden motives for exaggerating or denying the scale of the problem, or putting a particular slant on it? (e.g. some governments may exaggerate the problem to gain funding, others may deny it as it threatens their reputation)?
- Is the information qualitative, looking in-depth at the reasons behind trafficking, or does it just focus on numbers?
- Are there any ethical considerations related to our use of this data? (e.g. protecting the anonymity of the children involved)?
- Is all the information we need available or are there gaps in our understanding? For example, does the information explore the reasons why children are trafficked? Does it look at the characteristics of trafficked children? Does it examine the types of existing interventions available and the lessons learnt from these

efforts? Does it explore all stages in the process of trafficking, and look at both sending the receiving communities?

If you find that existing information is lacking, it is important to gather your own data to supplement it. There are many different techniques for doing this, including questionnaires, in-depth interviews and group discussions, and the methods that you choose will depend on the information required. Generally, it is important to look in detail at the reasons why children are trafficked, and it is not possible to do this through the use of questionnaires alone. Children respond well to group discussions which make use of diagrams, pictures and games. In-depth interviews exploring individual life-histories can also be extremely helpful. Whichever techniques are used, it is essential that children and their families are consulted, and that efforts are made to ensure that no harm comes to them as a result of taking part in the research. For example, it is important that children do not get into trouble with employers for taking time off to speak to you. An excellent source of information about these ethical concerns, and the different tools that can be used in research on trafficking can be found in the Regional Working Group on Child Labour in Asia Handbook on research on the worst forms of child labour. It is recommended that anyone planning research on trafficking consults this handbook first.

Further reading

Regional Working Group on Child Labour in Asia (RWG-CL). Handbook for action-oriented research on the worst forms of child labour, including trafficking in children. Compiled by Joachim Theis. Bangkok, 2003. <http://www.developmentstudies.org/PolicyAdvocacy/home2.5.nsf/crresourceTrain70770A3D23432DB88256E460083621B?OpenDocument>

Whilst it is important to speak to children who have been trafficked, in some situations information from children who have had some similar experiences but who have not been trafficked may be valuable in designing initiatives to prevent trafficking. Through talking to such children, it may be possible to work out how vulnerable groups can avoid being trafficked. This is the 'positive deviance' approach mentioned above.

In addition to understanding the perspectives of the actual or potential victims of trafficking, it is

also important to gain information from others who have insights into the issues. These include:

- the child's parents or other family members,
- the trafficker or employment agent who recruits a child,
- the pimp, employer or other person who subsequently makes money out of the child,
- and the individuals who pay money to buy the child's services or products (generally referred to as 'clients' when they buy sexual services and 'consumers' when they buy manufactured products; there is no specific term to refer to would-be benefactors who donate money to child beggars),
- NGOs and UN or government agencies engaged in actions to prevent or respond to trafficking.

It is also appropriate to analyse information available about *adults* who have been trafficked as well as information about children. Firstly this is because a lot of data recorded about young people who have been trafficked does not indicate accurately whether they are under 18 or over, and, even when it does, details may be recorded about adults who were still children at the time their trafficking experience started. This is particularly the case when there is a pattern of trafficking in girls and young women for commercial sexual exploitation, in which traffickers recruit older girl children and young adult women indiscriminately. Secondly, it is useful to be able to situate any specific pattern of trafficking in children within wider patterns of trafficking and migration. Some of the causes of children and adults being trafficked may be the same. However, looking at all the cases may also reveal aspects of child trafficking which are quite different to those involving young adults.

Some of the most valuable information for preventive purposes has been obtained when organisations working at the opposite ends of a trafficking chain have begun working together—both comparing and exchanging information. Some of the same benefits have been obtained when researchers from the children's area of origin have been deployed in the areas where they are being exploited: Albanian social workers talking to Albanian children working in the street in Greece, for example.

Misdiagnosis

Once an issue like human trafficking becomes 'flavour of the month' with journalists, governments and donors, there is a strong possibility that similar practices and patterns of abuse will be diagnosed as 'trafficking' when they are not and, in effect, false solutions will be offered to real problems and money will be wasted.

For example, in numerous cases a pattern of migration has been branded as 'trafficking', and efforts deployed to stop young people moving altogether on the grounds that they are being trafficked, when they are not ending up in commercial sexual exploitation or forced labour (the main 'outcomes' associated with trafficking). An example of such misdiagnosis is included in Box 2 below.

II.2. Identifying the resources and opportunities available

A wide range of resources can potentially be mobilised in efforts to prevent trafficking. However, they are sometimes overlooked by project designers on account of their prejudices or lack of familiarity with the context in which they are operating.

Consequently a 'mapping exercise' (to identify other stakeholders) and 'stakeholder analysis' are necessary to understand what other organisations pursuing similar objectives are trying to achieve, whether their objectives are compatible or not with efforts to prevent child trafficking and how you can potentially ensure that activities with similar objectives are coordinated. Preparing a diagram along the lines of Diagram 8 can help identify these other actors.

Labour recruiters

There is usually an assumption that the criminals responsible for recruiting, transporting and employing trafficked children are a set of actors who are beyond the influence of anyone except the police. This is not the right starting point to try and help children. Indeed, stereotypes about who traffickers are and how they operate can

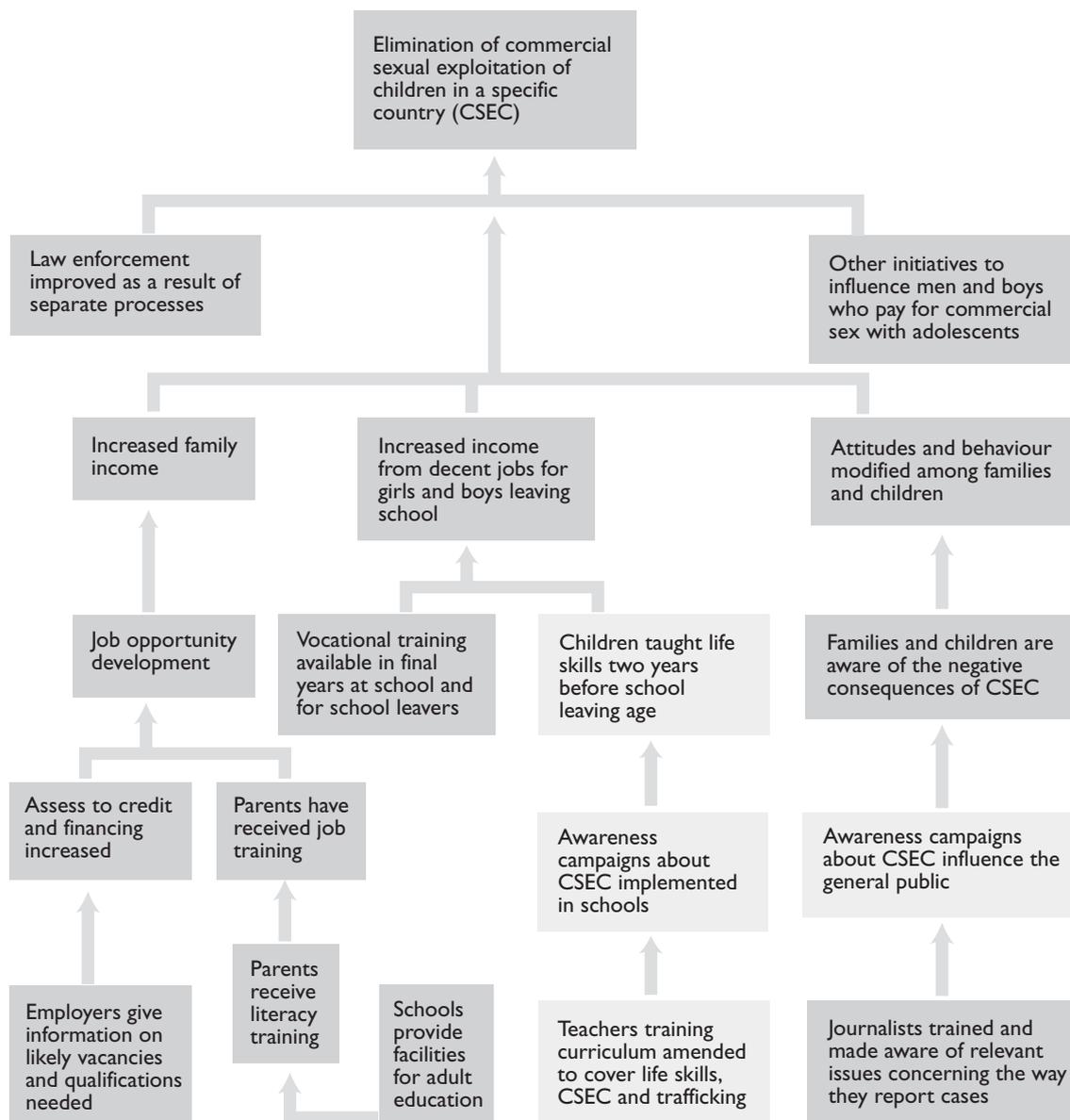
Box 2 – When a misdiagnosis results in children’s rights being violated

The classic misdiagnosis (which has resulted in the wrong strategies being used, with dire results) was in West Africa. Publicity surrounding cases in which children migrated over long distances and ended up working in circumstances which were clearly abusive (notably as domestic servants in Gabon) precipitated a string of measures in West Africa to stop adolescents from seeking work in neighbouring countries and even to keep young people from migrating from extremely poor villages to seek work in towns in their own country. In effect this was the approach taken by various totalitarian governments in the past, denying peasants the right to migrate to towns.

The starting point for designing efforts to halt abuse was probably right: just because child labour is the norm in West Africa, there is no reason not to initiate action to stop the worst cases from occurring. However, both the problem tree and the remedies offered were designed in large part by outsiders in NGOs and IGOs based in Europe or North America, sometimes under pressure from Western businesses (such as cocoa importers and chocolate manufacturers). These paid scant regard to local realities and recommended strategies based on an international standard that adolescents aged under 18 should not be involved in any work deemed ‘hazardous’. This was probably interpreted inappropriately (by international organisations) to refer to any agricultural work involving the use of a machete, a farming tool used on most farms throughout West Africa. These strategies were interpreted broadly in countries such as Burkina Faso to stop any adolescents under 18 from leaving their villages and travelling to seek work abroad or in towns. This has resulted in adolescents being intercepted on their way to town (whatever their reasons for travelling), detained in transit centres and sometimes ill-treated, albeit not intentionally, before being sent home. One consequence in Burkina Faso is that adolescent girls who used to travel in groups to protect each other now travel alone or in pairs and feel more vulnerable to abuse. When such children have been (forcibly) returned home, some parents have been arbitrarily forced to pay fines. Community watchdog groups, ostensibly set up to stop child trafficking, have become part of the problem, reinforcing the arbitrary use of power at local level, rather than being part of a solution (see Box 6 below).

None of this is surprising, as the initial diagnosis that all cases of children under 14 migrating to work and of older adolescents migrating to work in agriculture were cases of trafficking or were inherently abusive (and consequently should be stopped) simply did not make sense. This diagnosis might reasonably be the basis for a long-term plan, but was not viable as a guide to what action should be taken in the short-term. The strategies which resulted were as unsuitable and counter-productive (for children) as the efforts to transform African agriculture in the 1940s and 1950s by importing tractors and other inappropriate technology, efforts ridiculed by text books on economic development.

Diagram 8: Activities intended to contribute to eliminate the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children (CSEC), with the actions of one specific organisation highlighted



mislead project designers, as well as adolescents exposed to inaccurate stereotypes.⁴

Some individuals who are denounced as ‘traffickers’ see themselves as professional labour recruiters and, if approached as such, turn out to have scruples. They can sometimes be persuaded to change their behaviour and do more to protect children, rather than precipitating them into abuse. The work of traffickers is also facilitated by a range of intermediaries. Some are hardened criminals, but others can be influenced. Understanding their

motivation and the benefits which trafficking gives them is a good starting point.

Ignoring the positive role which some labour recruiters might play is part of a more general blinkeredness on the part of project designers who are foreigners or outsiders and who do not understand the specific roles that different individuals play in a community and who accept stereotypes too easily. In countries with a reputation for lawlessness or organised crime, outsiders easily assume that community leaders are in cahoots with traffickers or that all the

labour recruiters visiting rural communities are traffickers, when some are not. Taking a sideways look at who is involved and how they could potentially be playing a more positive role and contributing to stopping trafficking is consequently a key part of identifying the potential resources available.

Further reading

June Kane. *Child Trafficking – The People Involved. A synthesis of findings from Albania, Moldova, Romania and Ukraine*. ILO-IPEC. 2005. http://www.humantrafficking.org/uploads/publications/ipec_balkana_05.pdf

Children and their communities

There is also a tendency to see the children in communities where trafficked children originate as 'victims' or potential victims, rather than a major resource to prevent child abuse. Both children in general and children who are assessed as being at high risk of being trafficked can participate actively in preventive efforts. This is discussed in more detail below.

Beyond its children, the community as a whole is also a resource (or a specific minority group within a community, if their children are the main ones recruited by traffickers). Many communities have mechanisms for protecting their children, even if these are informal and not linked to those organised by their government. As these child protection systems (like those put in place by governments) allow some children to fall through the net, projects can potentially strengthen them, rather than introducing completely new tactics from outside.

When government agencies, IGOs or NGOs have stepped into a community where children from a minority are being trafficked and begun activities to prevent trafficking without consulting leading members of the minority, they have been criticised by the communities concerned. However, ensuring meaningful participation can be a challenge, especially if the community in question has different views on what problems need confronting as a matter of priority. In South East Europe, for example, Roma community leaders initially disputed the evidence that Roma children were being trafficked in disproportionately high numbers and that the traffickers themselves were predominantly Roma. Later on they criticised projects benefiting Roma children, which were staffed uniquely by non-Roma.⁵ One conclusion in such

circumstances is that it is difficult to pursue a specific objective concerning the welfare of children belonging to a minority group without getting involved in wider efforts to promote the rights of that minority and to challenge the discrimination against them across the board.

Other stakeholders, including institutions

Obvious stakeholders include organisations with a specific concern about children: schools/education service, government social services or child protection services, NGOs providing services to children or campaigning against child abuse, etc.

Schools and the education service (the ministry of education or other authority responsible for authorising the curriculum in schools) are potentially key partners when it comes to implementing strategies which involve giving school children knowledge or new skills. However, other stakeholders have a say in curriculum content, such as politicians and religious groups, and can easily be adversaries rather than allies. In one East European country, for example, a Church with influence at national level blocked the introduction of life skills education into the school curriculum in 2005 (which, among other things, was going to provide students with information about trafficking).

Stakeholders potentially include a wide range of government agencies and inter-governmental organisations (IGOs) concerned with law enforcement, child welfare and relations between the different countries involved in a single trafficking chain: police (notably those with a special responsibility for crimes committed by children or against children), immigration service/border guards, labour inspectors, truancy inspectors, consular officials and others.

In some countries and regions there is already a de facto division of labour between agencies addressing trafficking, which is helpful. For example, the UN Children's Fund (UNICEF) promotes more effective child protection systems, the ILO supports vocational training, the UN Office for Drug Control (UNODC) helps develop criminal investigation and prosecution techniques and the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) provides assistance to victims of trafficking returning from overseas and helps them rebuild their lives. These IGOs work respectively with the ministry responsible for social affairs or children,

the ministry of labour, the ministries of justice and interior and the ministries of foreign affairs and health. However, divisions of labour also result in confusion if the strategies advocated by different IGOs are not well coordinated, and in gaps arising along the fault lines between separate initiatives.

Consequently it is helpful to use a flow diagram to map out the various interventions which are intended to prevent trafficking. This enables you to see who is doing what and also to detect how different initiatives with a preventive effect are expected to combine or interact (intentionally or not) to produce the results required. Such diagrams can also be used to help coordinate action by different agencies, showing others explicitly how their contributions are expected to inter-act, so that the sum total is greater than the individual contributions. Diagram 8 is an example of the use of such a diagram to chart efforts to eradicate the commercial sexual exploitation of children (CSEC).

In the case of trafficking, it is likely that at least two diagrams are needed: one concerning prevention in areas of origin and one for the areas where children are exploited. The complication is that these are sometimes in two different countries and being addressed by two different and sometimes uncoordinated projects. Some stakeholder analyses also try to measure the degree of influence or power of specific stakeholders. This is helpful in assessing the extent to which they must be involved directly or kept informed if they are to continue supporting a project.

Further reading

ILO-IPEC. *Time-Bound Programme, Manual for Action Planning, Strategic planning in TBPs [Time-Bound Programmes]*, prepared by Peter Wichmand and Florencio Gudiño, September 2003.

<http://www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/themes/monitoring/spif.htm>

UNICEF Evaluation Office and Division of Policy and Planning. *Understanding Results Based Programme Planning and Management. Tools to Reinforce Good Programming Practice*. September 2003. http://www.unicef.org/evaluation/files/RBM_Guide_20September2003.pdf

Opportunities

In addition to assessing the resources available, it is essential to understand what special opportunities or circumstances exist which are favourable to an intervention to prevent child

trafficking. For example, if the number of children leaving home to seek work before reaching the end of their compulsory education has been increasing, basing your project to stop trafficking on the assumption that you can end such departures altogether is likely to be a mistake: you have not taken economic trends (or some social issues) into account sufficiently. Conventional techniques for assessing both favourable and unfavourable factors include PEST and SWOT analyses.⁶

II.3. Assessing the limitations, obstacles and risks

All projects face some limitations due to their project structure, for they are intended to achieve something within a limited time and with a limited amount of money. More worrying, however, are the external risks over which the organisation implementing a project has no control. There is no point in trying to ignore obstacles, threats and other constraints, or simply hoping that they will not materialise. At best, threats require managing with a strategy to minimise their damage. At worst, they are a reason for opting for a quite different strategy—one which cannot be undermined by the threat.

The various assumptions which you make when predicting the effects of your project's interventions also have the potential to undermine your success (if they turn out to be wrong). You must also identify these explicitly so that you can monitor them subsequently and react if it becomes obvious that some assumptions have turned out to be false. The most common assumption which turns out to be inaccurate is that certain other organisations which say they are supportive fail to support, or even sabotage, your activities later on.

Threats from possible allies

Some stakeholders, as well as other organisations, have the potential to be either allies or adversaries. If little can be done to influence them to become allies, they represent a risk. This was the case in the example cited above of a religious institution opposing the introduction of life skills education. The message here is that potential allies cannot be taken for

granted: your project may need to allow for time and effort to be deployed in trying to influence and persuade them. Other problems may emerge when stakeholders disagree on the roles they should play.

The experience in South Eastern Europe suggests that the establishment of a formal national referral mechanism enables government agencies to work more easily with NGOs and IGOs. In any situation where one of the parties fears that the division of responsibilities with another organisation may become blurred (or not be observed), a formal Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) may be a suitable solution.

Security threats posed by traffickers or criminals

Any initiative which successfully reduces the numbers of children being trafficked also reduces the income of people making money out of trafficking. The possibility (or probability) that they will retaliate in some way needs to be anticipated and should affect the methods used from the outset.

In southern Albania Terre des hommes was careful to avoid being identified too closely with the police, even though both were involved in attempts to stop traffickers taking young children across the border to beg in Greece. The NGO suspected that being identified closely with the police would increase the threat to their staff of retaliation by traffickers, and also that it would reduce the inclination of beneficiary families (whose children were at risk) to allow the NGO's staff to enter their homes and maintain close contacts with them.

In Albania Terre des hommes also avoided using the term 'trafficking' when talking to people in the community whose children were being trafficked. The term implied that a crime was being committed, so telling parents that a child sent to Greece had been trafficked suggested that the parents were accomplices in a crime—a sure way of encouraging them to break off relations with the NGO. The alternative was to avoid jargon and describe exactly what was happening: that children were being taken to Greece, missing out on schooling which would probably help their future, forced to work long hours in harsh conditions and sometimes tortured or beaten to make them obey orders.

In theory there is an alternative approach—to form a close alliance with the police and operate under their umbrella. While this may be an appropriate partnership in initiatives to provide protection and assistance to children already trafficked, it is much less likely to be effective in preventive initiatives, which involve operating in the wider community and working with people rather than provoking them against you.

Dangerous assumptions

Ultimately more projects to prevent trafficking have run into difficulties because they made false assumptions about their likely impact than because they faced security threats or were let down by other stakeholders. These include assumptions concerning the political environment and the continuing commitment of other stakeholders. Assumptions made about government support include, for example:

- “Government does not place obstacles in the way of the project”; and
- “Continued cooperation of government authorities at relevant levels to permit participation in committees coordinating preventive initiatives and also sufficient government resources to allow such participation”.

You should try and identify additional factors in the external environment, which might be relevant. Recent projects have had to cope with quite unrelated 'risks', such as epidemics and armed conflict.

There is a danger that projects concerning trafficking make many assumptions without being aware of how unreliable they are. These include assumptions about the nature of migration (that child migrants are being trafficked when they are not, or that large numbers of adolescent girls are migrating alone, when they are not) and about the aspirations of those involved (that trafficked children want to return to their home country, or will be reasonably happy to do so, when they are not).

One way of checking your assumptions is to ask someone who is not part of the design team to act as 'devil's advocate' and to ask testing questions based on what they perceive to be the false assumptions (or over optimism) being made by the designers. This testing approach, based on common sense about how human beings behave

'in real life', is just what every project to prevent trafficking needs.

II.4. Key principles and values

In the course of planning a project, there are a variety of questions to answer about the basic principles and values you want to observe. These principles and values shape both project aims and objectives and have practical implications for how activities are implemented. In its work on trafficking, Terre des hommes aims to promote a human and child rights based approach.

A human rights approach

The motivations and priorities of different organisations mean they adopt startlingly different objectives when seeking to stop human trafficking. Some see their task fundamentally as a question of stopping crime, illegal immigration or prostitution; others see it as a problem linked to unequal economic development or slavery; yet others see it principally as a question related to the status of women and girls.

A human rights approach places the person or people whose rights are violated at the centre of action to stop trafficking. This approach makes it a priority to involve the people whose rights are violated (or likely to be violated) in the process of assessing what forms of action are most appropriate to stop trafficking. It means the goal of all efforts to prevent trafficking (and also of efforts to protect people who have already been trafficked) is to enable people to exercise their human rights.

The principles underlying the human rights approach to trafficking are set out in the *Recommended Principles and Guidelines on Human Rights and Human Trafficking*, issued by the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights in 2002.⁷ The first of these principles states: "The human rights of trafficked persons shall be at the centre of all efforts to prevent and combat trafficking and to protect, assist and provide redress to victims."

Practically speaking, a human rights approach places people, in this case the children who have been trafficked, or might be, at centre stage and assesses strategies on the basis of their impact on these individuals. The approach involves identifying the vulnerabilities of individuals or

groups of persons to trafficking, analysing who is accountable for protecting them, and recommending what measures are required to ensure that their rights will be upheld and protected more effectively.

A related principle concerning the primacy of human rights points out that measures to prevent trafficking should not "adversely affect the human rights and dignity of persons" (Principle 3), either of people who have been trafficked or others (such as migrants, refugees or internally displaced persons). The principle is similar to the requirement that doctors and other health professionals should 'do not harm'. The Recommended Guidelines suggest that both governments and NGOs should monitor and evaluate "the relationship between the intention of anti-trafficking laws, policies and interventions, and their real impact" and distinguish "between measures which actually reduce trafficking and measures which may have the effect of transferring the problem from one place or group to another" (Guideline 3).

Certain other principles underlie all human rights treaties, notably the principle of non-discrimination, meaning that action to promote and protect human rights and prevent abuse should not favour some individuals or groups of people and exclude others on the basis of their "race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status".⁸

A child rights approach

In the case of children, a human rights or child rights approach means ensuring that in all actions affecting an individual child or group of children, their best interests are a primary consideration (in accordance with article 3 of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child).⁹ In relation to trafficking, this means that, for example, government concerns about reducing immigration must take second place if children's rights are threatened. In some countries, such concerns have led to the deportation of trafficked children even when it may not be in their best interests to return to their countries of origin. Considering children's best interests also means looking at how a range of child rights relate to one another. In relation to trafficking, it is particularly important to consider how children's right to be protected from exploitation affects other rights, such as rights to survival and

development or education. This is examined further in Box 3 below.

A child rights approach also means listening to children and taking their views into account in accordance with the age and maturity of the children voicing their views (article 12).¹⁰ At a minimum this means that information from children who have been trafficked should inform all efforts to prevent child trafficking. However, the implications are wider. Children also have rights to freedom of expression and association and to participate fully in cultural and artistic life (guaranteed by articles 13, 15 and 31 of the Convention). Taken together with article 12, these rights constitute children's right to participate in efforts to exercise their rights, including their right not to be trafficked.

Although many anti-trafficking initiatives are designed and executed uniquely by adults—even when it is mainly children who are being trafficked—it is desirable and perfectly feasible to involve children in many of the phases of a project to prevent child trafficking: for example the stages of design, implementation of activities (particularly advocacy and awareness raising), and monitoring and evaluating the project activities' impact. Peer-to-peer education, for example, is one way to involve children in conveying information about trafficking (and other topics) to other children (see Child Rights Information Centre, 2004).

In order to ensure that children are able to exercise their rights to participate it is essential that their participation is an integral part of programmes, and that participation is meaningful. The token involvement of a few children and the manipulation of children by adults are not participation, nor is children's engagement in projects as beneficiaries, for example, through 'participating' in an adult organised art competition. When engaging in children's participation, it is important to always take measures to minimise the risks to children of abuse and exploitation, or other negative consequences of participation.

Different ways for children to participate in projects on trafficking

One of the most significant ways in which initiatives to prevent child trafficking enable children who have been trafficked to take part is at the design stage. This does not mean that children draft project documents or propose

'logframes'. But it should mean that the project is based on their experience. Boys and girls who have been trafficked can be asked about what happened to them, and those that have managed to avoid the traffickers can explain the strategies they used. In some cases it is possible and appropriate to consult children during the design stage with hypothetical 'what if' questions. "If a project had enabled your parents to earn money from so-and-so, what effect do you think it would have had on your family and on you personally?" However, the ability to answer hypothetical questions is closely linked to a child's development, so these sorts of questions are only appropriate for older children.

Consultations with girls and boys should not stop once projects are up and running. Children's views should be constantly sought during the monitoring and evaluation of project activities. Children who have been exposed to efforts to prevent trafficking can explain what they found to be helpful and what they didn't. All of this information can then be fed into efforts to improve the project in the future.

Although such consultations with children are often the most effective starting point for efforts to engage boys and girls in decision making, there are also other ways in which children can participate. Children who have been trafficked and exploited can sometimes make a major contribution by speaking to others about their experience. Their personal and emotional involvement with the issue makes them particularly influential. However, this is only appropriate in occasional cases. There is a significant risk, particularly if a trafficked child has been subjected to sexual exploitation or suffered trauma, that recalling painful memories may reawaken their own anxieties or result in their being stigmatised.

With help and encouragement, it is possible for trafficked children to establish their own organisations. In Nepal a group of young people who were trafficked to India as children and released from captivity in 1996 formed an NGO of their own, which campaigns against human trafficking involving girls, boys or adults. Surprisingly, some of the other organisations involved in anti-trafficking activities in Nepal see this NGO as a threat. This may be because the NGO, composed of individuals (now adults) who have first-hand experience of being trafficked, backs particular strategies, raising questions about the

Box 3 – A child’s right to be protected (and ensuring this does not stop children exercising their human rights)

Alongside the various freedoms which children have a right to exercise, the Convention on the Rights of the Child also requires governments to protect children against a wide range of abuse. These include:

- 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);
- 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 use of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances (as well as preventing the use of children in the illicit production and trafficking of such substances) (article 33);
- all forms of sexual exploitation and abuse (article 34); and
- all other forms of exploitation prejudicial to any aspects of the child’s welfare (article 36).

The many forms of protection involved have the potential to limit the extent to which children can exercise the rights guaranteed by the Convention. In theory, the Convention itself stipulates how a balance should be found, by stressing that all actions concerning children must make the “best interests” of the child a primary consideration and that a child has the right to have his/her views listened to and taken into account in accordance with his/her age and maturity in any matter affecting him/her. However, the Committee on the Rights of the Child (set up by the Convention) has expressed concern that governments do not do enough to treat adolescents as “rights holders”.¹¹

Indeed, too many initiatives to prevent children being trafficked assume that stopping children leaving home (whatever their age) is an essential first step to stopping them being trafficked after they leave home. Similarly, they tend to assume that keeping adolescents living in their home communities is a justifiable objective in itself, on the grounds that it enables children to continue attending school. In contrast, a child rights approach suggests that priority should be given to making it safe for adolescents who leave home, not keeping them at home in an environment which may not automatically promote their education, their ability to exercise their human rights or their general well-being. Of course, a child rights approach also means working to improve children’s access to education, health care and protection from domestic violence.

A fundamental human rights principle which can help get the balance right between protecting children and enabling them to exercise their rights is the principle of proportionality, requiring protective measures to be proportional to the problem or abuse against which they seek to protect adults or children.¹²

legitimacy of organisations which disagree with these and prefer different approaches.

Children's ability to participate should not be underestimated. If efforts are made to make proceedings child-friendly, children can engage in national and international policy debates. In South East Asia children from five countries were brought together in 2004 to agree what action they wanted their respective governments to take to stop human trafficking. The Mekong Children's Forum on Human Trafficking was held shortly before representatives of the governments of Cambodia, China, Myanmar (Burma), Thailand and Viet Nam were scheduled to finalise a series of joint commitments to stop trafficking, in an effort to influence the decisions taken by these government representatives. The children attending included some who had been trafficked, some who had worked as child labourers and others who had no personal experience of exploitation.¹³

Numerous organisations have prepared handbooks and guides on how they think it is appropriate to enable children to 'participate'.

Further reading

(describing activities in one region which put a strong emphasis on child participation)

Galit Wolfensohn. *Responding to Child Trafficking. An introductory handbook to child rights-based interventions drawn from Save the Children's experience in Southeast Europe*. Save the Children, Regional Child Trafficking Response Programme, Southeast Europe. Tirana, 2004.

Gender and non-discrimination

A child rights approach to trafficking means recognising that all children have rights, regardless of their age, sex, ethnicity, disability or any other status. All efforts to address trafficking should consider such issues of discrimination. One of the most relevant issues relating to discrimination and trafficking is gender. Although men and boys are trafficked, the majority of trafficking victims are female and a large proportion of those who are trafficked are subjected to commercial sexual exploitation.¹⁴ Many of the causes of trafficking are linked to the way that societies portray

women and girls, both in areas of origin and places where exploitation occurs. Projects to prevent trafficking can make a positive contribution to combating gender-based discrimination in a variety of ways. These include giving careful consideration to the status and roles given to women and girls within the project. Just as it seems inappropriate for a project aiming to stop trafficking in indigenous or minority children to be staffed uniquely by non-indigenous or non-minority personnel, so it would be inappropriate not to give women a major role in running projects which focus largely on the situation of girls. It would also be inappropriate *not* to give attention to increasing the awareness of project staff of gender issues in general.

Working together with others

A characteristic of many effective initiatives to prevent child trafficking is that they involve two or more organisations pursuing similar objectives in the same or different countries. This requires special attention to be given to coordinating with others. Indeed, without paying attention to how different organisations can or should coordinate their efforts, little is likely to be achieved in efforts against trafficking.

Sustainability

'Sustainability' is another buzz word in projects. The implication is that projects should make a permanent difference so that their benefits do not vanish once the project comes to an end. In some situations this is interpreted to mean that local people should be trained up to take over control of a project and run a further phase themselves. This is relevant if the weakness of child protection systems at national or local level is diagnosed as one of the reasons why children are being trafficked, as the process of reform may take a long time. However, in other cases, a single project can (in theory) be so successful at reducing rates of trafficking that the same work does not need to be continued after the project ends (indeed, to do so might be a waste of money).

Preparatory steps - Checklist

1. Complete a problem analysis which:
 - Clearly distinguishes between trafficked children and other child migrants.
 - Examines the different stages in the trafficking process.
 - Places trafficking in context, determining whether or not it is a priority issue for the communities in which you work.
 - Explores the reasons why children are trafficked in relation to: the immediate causes; the underlying and structural causes, and institutional failure.
 - Highlights the most significant causes of trafficking, requiring priority attention.
 - Identifies any groups of children being trafficked in disproportionately higher numbers than others or any salient characteristics among children who have been trafficked.
 - Determines which groups of children, households and communities or places where children are exploited you want to focus on.
 - Is based on information from a trusted and reliable source.
2. Identify resources and opportunities available, through:
 - Mapping out the individuals and organisations who may play a role in addressing trafficking in the areas about which you are concerned.
 - Exploring potential complementary activities and overlap with the work being done by other organisations.
3. Assess limitations, obstacles and risks, including:
 - Identifying threats from possible allies.
 - Exploring security threats posed by criminal elements.
 - Checking dangerous assumptions which could threaten the success of the project.
4. Consider how to implement a human and child rights approach to trafficking, through:
 - Ensuring that achieving child rights and working in children's best interests are placed at the centre of all objectives and activities.
 - Including strategies to engage children in decision making and help them to achieve their own rights.
 - Considering the different needs of different groups of children to avoid discrimination.

Footnotes

- 1 From *A Future Without Child Labour*, 2002, p.47.
- 2 I.e., payments made by the bride's family to the bridegroom's (known as dowry) or the other way around, by the bridegroom to the bride's (known as bridewealth).
- 3 The national referral mechanism is a procedure designed by OSCE's Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR) to ensure coordination among government ministries, NGOs and others that are involved in caring for victims of trafficking and making decisions in regards to them.
- 4 For example, a girl in Moldova had seen propaganda materials about seedy male criminals recruiting and trafficking girls; she failed to realise that her own aunt was recruiting her for the same purpose (Dottridge, 2006).
- 5 See ODIHR (Contact Point for Roma and Sinti Issues, Human Rights Department, Anti-Trafficking Programme), *Awareness Raising for Roma Activists on the Issue of Trafficking in Human Beings in South-Eastern Europe*, Warsaw, April 2006. This is found at: <http://www.osce.org/odihhr/18160.html>.
- 6 PEST analysis: an analysis of Political, Economic, Social and Technological factors and trends. SWOT analysis: Analysis of the Strengths and Weaknesses of an organisation, and the Opportunities and Threats it faces.
- 7 UN document E/2002/68/Add.1, 20 May 2002. This is found at: <http://www.unhcr.org/refugees/doc/4a6d4d4d.html>.
- 8 Standard phrase in various human rights treaties, appearing in Article 2 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948).
- 9 Article 3.1 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child 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".
- 10 Article 12 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child 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".
- 11 Committee on the Rights of the Child, General Comment No. 4 (2003), Adolescent health and development in the context of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, UN Document CRC/GC/2003/4, 1 July 2003.
- 12 The Human Rights Committee, set up under the terms of the UN International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, has pointed out that, "Restrictive measures must conform to the principle of proportionality; they must be appropriate to achieve their protective function; they must be the least intrusive instrument amongst those which might achieve the desired result; and they must be proportionate to the interest to be protected... The principle of proportionality has to be respected not only in the law that frames the restrictions, but also by the administrative and judicial authorities in applying the law". Paragraphs 14 and 15 of the Human Rights Committee's General Comment 27 ('Freedom of movement', Article 12 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights), UN Document CCPR/C/21/Rev.1/Add.9 (1999).
- 13 See: Save the Children UK and ILO, *Mekong Children's Forum on Human Trafficking: Making History – People, Process and Participation*, Bangkok, 2005. <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/region/asro/bangkok/child/trafficking/publicationsresearch.htm>.
- 14 In 2005 the ILO estimated that the number of people subjected to forced labour at any given time as a result of trafficking was 2.45 million, of whom 43 per cent had been trafficked for commercial sexual exploitation (i.e. 1.05 million) and 32 per cent for economic exploitation (i.e. 784,000). Source: ILO. *A global alliance against forced labour. Global Report under the Follow-up to the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work*, 2005, page 15. The ILO noted that only 2 per cent of those subjected to forced labour involving sexual exploitation were men and boys (while they account for a much larger proportion - 44 per cent - of those subjected to forced labour involving economic exploitation).

Developing project strategies



The art of planning the future is to be able to envisage what the world will look like when child trafficking is *not* taking place: not some idyllic paradise, but a version of today's reality with certain key features altered. The alterations imply some key differences and will mean that trafficking no longer occurs. If you can identify the *positive* features that will be different in the future (rather than simply things which will *not* be happening), you have taken the first step towards bringing these about. Devising a successful project means identifying a series of positive 'outcomes' ('results' or 'objectives' in project jargon) which will help ensure that children are not trafficked. Each of these involves a different strategy, that is to say a set of activities intended to produce a positive change.

The biggest challenge when setting out to design a project to prevent children being abused is to choose a meaningful objective. This sounds absurd, for it seems clear that the objective should be (simply) to *stop* child abuse from occurring. However, to do this you must identify positive changes which it is in your power to bring about. Otherwise, you are in danger of standing in the road with a large STOP sign and being ignored by both traffickers and children swarming along either side of you and your project.

Various goals sound worthy but may not be helpful as project objectives. For example: "to end child trafficking", "to contribute to ending child trafficking"; or goals which focus on the exploitation associated with trafficking, such as "to end the commercial sexual exploitation of children". The second of these ("to contribute to ending...") may be appropriate if you make clear

that this is a wider goal than anything your project can achieve and if you adopt more specific objectives. To be truly meaningful, however, you should identify what other interventions are also necessary to end child trafficking, so that it is obvious to you and to others how significant you expect your project's contribution to ending child trafficking to be.

This chapter presents a series of options for bringing about change, ones that have played a role in recent years in preventing child trafficking in different parts of the world. Each of these strategies can make an important contribution, but is unlikely by itself to stop children from being trafficked. Activities can be organised in three different places along a trafficking chain (in place of origin, transit or exploitation), so the strategies appropriate for each place are set out in separate 'menus'. These can be consulted to identify strategies which might be appropriate in the areas where you know children are recruited, pass through in transit or are exploited. It is important to note, however, that these options are not exclusive. They are simply examples of actions which are thought to have had a positive impact in recent years. At the end of some of the sections, there are references to published materials which offer more information about the strategies involved. Specific comments are added when these seem likely to demonstrate what a particular strategy involves or the circumstances in which it is likely to be appropriate. Advice on how to choose between the different options presented is also included in section III.6.

III.1. The 'menu' in the places where children come from

There are menus for three different audiences in the areas where children are recruited. The first relates to children themselves and how to influence them. The second concerns their parents and is relevant when a parent is involved in the decision to send a child away (which results in the child being trafficked) or behaves in ways which encourage their child to leave home. The third concerns the wider community in a village, town or district from which children are being trafficked.

All of these *could* have some preventive effect even if they are not targeted specifically at the communities and households whose children are at disproportionately high risk of being trafficked. However, their impact as a technique for preventing trafficking is bound to be more limited if they are not addressed at specific targets. Underlying this menu, therefore, is a presumption that the use of any of these strategies should be guided by information obtained from existing trafficking patterns that indicates which particular communities and households contain children who are at disproportionately high risk of being trafficked.

Influencing children

Giving children information about trafficking cases ('awareness raising')

This strategy has been the most widely used one around the world over the past five years. Indeed, it was the main strategy used for most of the 20th century, when adolescent girls were warned that certain patterns of behaviour were likely to put them in danger (of sexual exploitation or being trafficked). The weakness showed by this strategy was that it frequently involved circulating inaccurate or exaggerated information, sometimes generating stereotypes (of traffickers or circumstances in which someone might be trafficked) which made young people less attentive to danger rather than more so.

Presenting children with information is bound to be less effective when it is parents, not children themselves, who make decisions about their leaving home (because younger children are likely to obey, whether or not they are aware of the risky consequences).

A huge variety of formats can be used for presenting information, from cartoons, leaflets and posters, to songs, television soap operas, plays presented in villages or city streets and even films. On the whole is a reasonable to use any of these as a first step, but almost never sufficient to stop there.

Children can be given information via many different channels. School is an obvious one. However, clubs and other social gatherings also provide an opportunity and a variety of media are effective. It is consequently useful to find out how children in the age group to be influenced habitually obtain information on sensitive issues. Is it from their mothers? If so, influencing mothers may be a suitable objective for a project. Or is it or from television or other media? If so, it might be appropriate to persuade the producers of a television or radio soap opera to adopt a story line about trafficking. This technique has been used in Cambodia, where the BBC World Service Trust produces a soap opera in the national language,¹ which featured cases of adolescent girls being trafficked into forced labour in a garment factory and also into forced prostitution.

One review of efforts to inform adolescents and young adults (in the Baltic States) concluded that it was not the specific media or message which mattered, but that the message needed repeating frequently: "Repetition was, in many ways, more important than diversity of content" (Boak et al, 2003, 95).

Information needs tailoring to the age group for which it is intended and should be provided to children before they reach an age when they are likely to be trafficked (so, if it is common for 10-year-olds to be trafficked and the school curriculum stipulates that they should be given information about trafficking when they are 13 or 14, this is unlikely to be much use). It should also be tailored to the specific forms of trafficking occurring in a particular area. This means that information mainstreamed in the national school curriculum may be less effective than information prepared and presented locally.

Further reading

Ruth Rosenberg, Sebastian Lazaroiu and Elena Tyuryukanova. *Best Practices for Programming to Prevent Trafficking in Human Beings in Europe and Eurasia*. Development Alternatives Inc for USAID. September 2004. This can be downloaded at: <http://www.vitalvoices.org/files/docs/Prevention%20assessment%20Report-formatted%20CAS1.pdf>

Give children extra skills and knowledge (at school or elsewhere)	Improve the opportunities for adolescents to get jobs near to home	Create safe alternatives for children intending to leave home
Give children information about trafficking before they reach the age when they might be trafficked.	Provide vocational training for adolescents, either before leaving school or immediately afterwards.	Create semi-independent living projects for adolescents who are determined to leave home, both near to the homes they want to leave and in cities further away. Ensure these are available to children escaping from undiagnosed domestic violence.
Teach or improve children's life skills.		
Promote self-esteem and confidence among girls (or other groups of children at disproportionate risk of being trafficked).	Improve the coordination between career advisors in schools and employers, so that school leavers are informed where jobs are available.	
Enable children to distinguish between adults whom they can trust and those they cannot (i.e. among relatives, friends and authority figures).	Provide training to older adolescents (and young adults) on launching income-generating opportunities for themselves. Either make small amounts of credit available to them or set up savings groups, aiming to make these self-managing.	Enable adolescent to check offers of jobs which require them to migrate (e.g. in foreign countries) to find out if they are genuine or likely to be.
Give children positive career advice (where to find jobs, how to apply, etc.).		Set up a telephone 'hotline' to provide adolescents and young adults with information about migrating or leaving home, including jobs away from home or abroad.
Give adolescents access to advice on how to migrate safely (i.e. what precautions to take in order to migrate in relative safety).		
Give adolescents accurate information about the situation in places to which people from their community are migrating (i.e. countering inaccurate propaganda).		
Urge children not to drop-out of school (and give them information about the pro's and con's of doing so).		
Provide subsidies to children or parents to allow children 'at high risk' to remain at school, e.g. going on to secondary school instead of leaving after primary school.	Concentrate on making jobs available to 'high risk' young people who have been subsidised to stay at school.	

Improving children's life skills

The term 'life skills' refers to a set of skills that are considered important for young people to make their way in life but which are frequently not taught in schools as part of the conventional curriculum. 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. Many of these skills are helpful in reducing trafficking.

Experience shows that participatory methods are helpful or even essential when teaching life skills and that peer-to-peer education is an effective technique. This can involve training one group of school children who take responsibility for sharing information with others. Alternatively, a group of older adolescents or young adults, who are not much older than the children being trained, can be involved as trainers. There is some evidence that this is more effective than asking the school children's usual teachers to organise classes on life skills.

The techniques used for teaching children life skills may also be suitable for giving them other practical information to equip them in the future, varying from sex education (if they do not otherwise receive this), to advice on how to apply for jobs. This includes information about the risk of being trafficked. In Poland the NGO La Strada found that a computer game was a helpful way of enabling adolescent girls to understand the possible consequences of choices they would make in life, including choices concerning possible migration.

Further reading

Child Rights Information Centre (Moldova). *Life skills education for prevention of trafficking in human beings: Evaluation report*. Chisinau, 2004. http://www.crin.org/docs/resources/treaties/crc.40/GDD_2005_Moldova_Life_skills_in_institutions.pdf

Robert Gjedia (The Institute of Curriculum and Standards in Albania) and the International Organization for Migration (Ruth Rosenberg, Anna Bengtsson and Silvana Haxhijaj), *Trafficking Prevention Training Module For Teachers*, (prepared for use in Albania, Bosnia & Herzegovina, Croatia, Kosovo (province of Serbia and Montenegro), FYR Macedonia, and Serbia and Montenegro), Tirana, Albania, August 2005. Both the module and the handouts for trainees can be downloaded at: <http://iomtirana.org.al/index.php?faq=brochure>

Enabling children to know whom to trust

Few of the warnings about trafficking which are published for children or young adults suggest that relatives or close friends might make money out of them by trafficking them. Instead, traffickers tend to be portrayed as sleazy criminals. Nevertheless, evidence collected around the world suggests that relatives and family friends play a role in the cases of many adolescent girls who are trafficked.² Helping children to counter this, without at the same time undermining their faith in other members of their family, is difficult. It means encouraging them to have a healthy degree of scepticism regarding the motives of relatives (as well, in the case of girls, as boy friends and fiancés) without making them paranoid. This can be done by encouraging them to ask questions about arrangements made for them to accompany relatives and friends rather than assuming that any proposals to take them away from home are inevitably safe because of their close relationship with the person making the proposal.

Giving children access to advice on how to migrate relatively safely

The most controversial form of information intended to prevent adolescents from being trafficked consists of advice on how to migrate in relatively safe ways and on precautions to take which are likely to reduce the risk that adolescent migrants will be abused. It is controversial because many organisations which want to stop children being trafficked feel that giving advice on 'safe migration' techniques amounts to encouraging children to migrate, and that they have no right or wish to encourage young people to leave home, yet alone their own country. Sometimes such organisations are worried about the consequences for them, as organisations, if the government criticises them for encouraging emigration or if young people who have followed their advice are subsequently abused and hold them responsible, with the risk that they may have to pay damages.

Even so, practical advice is just what young people need, so not giving it can scarcely be regarded as being in their best interests.

Telephone help-lines have been set up in various Eastern European countries to give advice to young people wanting to migrate abroad.³ These have been used chiefly by young adults, but also by some aged under 18. One particular form of

advice which potential migrants want in this region is help in finding out whether offers they have received of jobs abroad are genuine or not. This may be difficult for a single organisation based in the migrant's own country to give, but could be achieved quite easily by a network of organisations working in both countries of origin and the countries to which young people routinely migrate.

Further reading

Alison Boak, Amy Boldosser and Ofronamu Biu. *Smooth Flight: A Guide to Preventing Youth Trafficking*. International Organization of Adolescents (IOFA). 2003. <http://www.seerights.org>

Creating safe alternatives for children who want to leave home

In several countries the lack of options for children leaving home while in their early or mid-teens, particularly for girls, has been identified as a reason why they end up in situations of abuse, such as commercial sexual exploitation. The conventional response was to find them and send them back home. This is appropriate in some cases, but not if the child concerned has been subjected to abuse at home, whether or not this has been formally diagnosed (for returning the child to her/his parents or guardian in such circumstances is tantamount to putting the child in harm's way). A strategy in these circumstances is to create a third option for such children. In Kosovo, for example, an NGO set up a 'semi-independent living' arrangements for adolescents who had been trafficked. They are able to live there with support and supervision and either to return to school or to start work.

Education strategies

In addition to modifying the school curriculum there are a variety of other ways in which greater emphasis on the importance of attending school has been used as a strategy to prevent trafficking. In some cases this involves encouraging particular groups of children who are at high risk of being trafficked to stay at school. UNICEF and other UN agencies are currently engaged in efforts to increase the proportion of girls who attend and stay at school. They expect this to yield a wide range of benefits which would include preventing trafficking and preventing girls from starting work younger than boys.

However, this current consensus on the need to encourage girls' education is not a reason for blindly assuming that keeping girls at school is going to reduce the chances that they will be trafficked in every case. Indeed, one specific case study found evidence that girls who stay in school for longer are *more* likely to end up in commercial sexual exploitation.⁴ This underlines the need for information to be collected about which children are being trafficked disproportionately, before a preventive strategy is chosen.

Some strategies aimed at educating trafficked or working children are coupled with material or financial incentives for parents to keep their children in school, such as Brazil's Programme for the Eradication of Child Labour ('PETI'). This provides 'school scholarships' to the families of children who have dropped out and started work while still of compulsory school age.⁵ These need managing carefully so that parents do not deliberately make their children stop school in order to become eligible.

Influencing parents not to send (or 'push') their children away

The appropriate strategies to choose from this menu depend on how (if at all) parents have contributed to their children being trafficked. In some circumstances, information to persuade them that their children will benefit from staying on at school may be sufficient. However, if parents simply cannot afford this, strategies to improve their incomes are likely to be more appropriate. In such cases, targeting assistance uniquely at households in which children are at high risk of being trafficked may be divisive and counter-productive. Once assistance is provided equally to other poor households, however, its impact in terms of preventing trafficking is diluted and may be negligible. A solution in these circumstances is to manage the allocation of resources so that they reach all the households with children who are at high risk as well as some others.

Mobilising members of the community to prevent children from being trafficked

One of the most sustainable methods for preventing children from being trafficked is to enable the communities where children are recruited to take preventive action themselves. In practice, such efforts have been fraught with difficulties, and it is important to learn from such

Influencing parents not to send their children away	Reducing child abuse and domestic violence which 'push' children to leave home
Give parents information to show that children who are trafficked to earn money elsewhere suffer abuse (without necessarily using the term 'trafficking').	Support general measures to reduce domestic violence and violence against women, including measures to reduce substance abuse (alcohol, drugs, etc.).
Convince sceptical parents that it is better for adolescents to stay at school than to go away to work.	Promote pro-active child protection to identify symptoms of domestic abuse early on and to respond to these in an appropriate way.
Promote parents' resistance to offers made by traffickers.	Strengthen the government's child protection system.
Provide 'in kind' subsidies to the household of a child assessed as being 'at risk', conditional on the child attending school or (if schooling is not available) continuing to live at home.	Create safe alternatives for adolescents who are determined to leave home, such as semi-independent living projects.
Promote income-generating opportunities for adults in households where a child is 'at risk', including access to credit, job training and alternative livelihoods	

challenges to build more effective strategies for mobilising communities in the future (see Box 4 below for example).

With sufficient knowledge of who traffickers are or how they work, local people can, in theory, report the presence of such a person. However, many traffickers are indistinguishable from other labour recruitment agents: the numerous cartoons and plays performed at village level around the world, portraying traffickers as seedy-looking criminals, regularly present stereotypes which do not indicate how many handsome boy friends and close relatives are also responsible for trafficking children.

Failing to involve adolescents and young adults in community-based initiatives is a regular shortcoming. Although easy to address in theory, in practice it requires much more than just 'child rights training' and may imply a revolution in power relations between generations in a community dominated by tradition.

Despite the flaws in many 'vigilance committees' set up at village level, there are ways in which

communities can act collectively to try and protect 'their' children once they have left home. Many do this by establishing networks along migration routes. UNICEF and others encouraged villages in parts of South East Asia to trace missing migrant children and to record details about all children (and adults) emigrating from the village so that they could subsequently use their informal networks to keep track of each child's movements. Doing so (and reacting if a child goes missing) is feasible in countries where telephone and mobile phones work flawlessly. It is obviously more difficult elsewhere.

Without involving large numbers of people within a community, one of the most effective ways of identifying children who are at high risk of being trafficked (and also of protecting children who are at risk of being abused in other ways) is to pool the knowledge of key professionals operating in the community, such as those responsible for education, health, welfare, law enforcement and spiritual issues (i.e. those with roles akin to school teachers, doctors or nurses, social workers, police and religious

Box 4 – Vigilance committees to prevent village children being trafficked — or to stop them leaving at all?

Villages, small towns and other communities around the world, where traffickers recruit children, have found a variety of techniques for trying to prevent their children from being trafficked and for minimising the likelihood that children leaving the community will be subjected to abuse elsewhere.

At its simplest, this has involved explaining to adults in a community that children are being trafficked and urging them to confront outsiders who behave like known traffickers. A more developed version of the same approach involves appointing some villagers as 'watchdogs' or a 'community surveillance' or 'vigilance' committee with responsibility for trying to prevent children being trafficked out of the community.

In South Asia 'vigilance committees' have been given a variety of tasks at local level, usually under the leadership of a government-nominated official. In Bangladesh, for example, the Ministry of Home Affairs has created 'anti-trafficking committees' at district, provincial and village level along the country's border with India. Members of these committees are governmental officials and influential members of the community (school head teachers, religious leaders, etc.). They generally coordinate with NGOs involved in trying to prevent trafficking. As the topic of human trafficking has taken a higher profile, more and more structures have been set up, so new members attend numerous training sessions. However, the amounts invested in training and setting up new structures are not rewarded by corresponding results.

Unfortunately, members of such committees can easily become responsible for infringing children's rights rather than protecting them, especially if they are not accountable to the central government or to local people in any formal way.

Two years after surveillance committees were established in one West African country, Mali, researchers found that surveillance committees did not distinguish between trafficked children and other children leaving their homes to earn money elsewhere: they aimed at stopping any children from leaving the village (Castle and Diarra, 2003). In neighbouring Burkina Faso similar committees acted so enthusiastically and indiscriminately that they even stopped 18-year-old boys (i.e. young adults) from migrating.⁷ The researchers in Mali furthermore found that young people were excluded from the committees (i.e. there was no 'child participation'), that the seizure of young people trying to leave the village was causing a crisis in relations between the young and the old, and that young people were resorting to techniques to migrate that made them more vulnerable to abuse. In such circumstances, the surveillance committee system has become part of the problem rather than offering the solution. There are various reasons why efforts to stop trafficking at community level degenerated into bad practice. The principle ones were the failure, from the level of central government (and the international organisations working with them) downwards, to distinguish between cases of trafficking and children travelling in other circumstances and the failure to prepare and train local surveillance committees adequately.

Mobilising adults in a community

The options include involving adults in a community (other than parents of child at risk) in trying to identify and discourage traffickers or to identify children who seem likely to be trafficked (such as those showing signs of abuse or neglect, those dropping out of school prematurely and others preparing to leave home when abnormally young).

Set up a 'multi-disciplinary team' of professionals at local level to share case information and agree appropriate child protection measures.

Set up a non professional team of watchdogs to look out for traffickers, taking great care to ensure they do not act as vigilantes or abuse their power.

leaders⁶). In some countries this is referred to as a 'multidisciplinary team'. In many communities such individuals exchange information already. Giving this network a formal child protection role means improving the way information about individual children is handled (protecting its confidentiality) and identifying responses which are appropriate (when individual children are observed to be in difficult circumstances) and feasible to implement and afford. This is easier in communities where abuse and neglect are isolated occurrences than in villages where a large proportion of the children are at risk of abuse (due to the poverty of their families or, in communities with high rates of emigration, the emigration and absence of one or both parents in many households). It is also relatively more difficult to organise in large towns, although the disproportional allocation of resources between rural and urban areas in many countries may make it easier to organise in towns than villages.

Further reading

UNIAP and UNICEF. *Lessons learnt through TRACE (Trafficking from Community to Exploitation). Human Trafficking from Laos to Thailand*. October 2004.

III.2. The 'menu' when children are in transit

Police, immigration officials and government child protection officials have powers to intercept children and stop them proceeding with their journey, if they judge that the risks

are unacceptably great. Unfortunately such powers are easily abused, with, for example, efforts made to stop any migration of children and young people.

Although police and immigration officials have a virtual monopoly of access to children while they cross international borders, others can influence their actions by lobbying, for example for changes in procedures. NGOs can watch out for children on their way to or from land borders and offer advice and other services to children at ports, train and bus stations and other transport hubs. In most cases it is unlikely to be appropriate to focus narrowly on children being trafficked, but better to address the needs of a wider cross-section of children (and young adults) who are on the move and who are at risk of various types of abuse.

NGOs run a variety of facilities to offer advice and practical support to young people who are on the move and who arrive at potentially dangerous destinations without knowing where they are going or what they are doing. These include information booths at busy transport hubs and drop-in or other social centres in places where young migrants who have just arrived tend to congregate (such as city markets in West Africa). The safe residential accommodation provided for many years in cities around the world by the Young Women's and Young Men's Christian Associations (YWCA/YMCA)—to Christians and non-Christians alike—comes into this category. Providing support and offering advice are quite legitimate activities for NGOs, whereas detaining travellers is not.

Safeguards at borders	Tracking children at risk once they enter a foreign country	Providing advice and practical support to children in transit
Children have to present their own passports or other identity documents containing a recent photo of the child.	Develop a set of indicators to assess whether arriving children show signs that they are going to be exploited (i.e. are being trafficked) or at risk of other abuse. ⁸	Place personnel in ports, bus and railway stations, taxi parks, etc., to spot children showing tell-tale signs of being at risk or of being lost or in need of advice or assistance. Such personnel are entitled to approach young people to provide them with information (including warnings about risks of danger), but not to detain them, unless they have legal child protection powers.
Younger children who are not accompanied by a parent are required to have proof that their parent(s) have agreed to the child leaving her or his country (e.g. a letter confirmed by a notary public).	Record personal details at the border about each child who <i>might</i> be at risk, ensuring each case has a unique identifying number and taking a photograph of the child. ⁹ Details of adults welcoming unaccompanied children at airports, stations, etc., also recorded.	
Immigration officials identify the tell-tale signs of trafficking, recording details of children who demonstrate any of these so they can be followed up.	Staff of a child protection agency (governmental or NGO) make a follow-up visit to each child to assess if the child is being exploited/abused.	Establish drop-in centres for children in the process of migrating (whether trafficked or not), to provide practical and emotional support and also advice and information, e.g. in ports and stations.
Immigration officials only intercept children if there are substantial indications that the child is being trafficked.	Police instructed to open a criminal investigation if the address provided by the child of adult turns out to be false.	Establish safe residential accommodation for young migrants arriving in a city for the first time.

III.3. The ‘menu’ for the destinations where trafficked children are exploited

Influencing traffickers and pimps: making the criminal justice system more effective

As the branch of the UN responsible for following up the UN Trafficking Protocol, the UNODC, is concerned about stopping crime, it is not surprising that, since the Protocol was adopted in 2000, governments have invested heavily in strategies designed to prosecute

traffickers: amending laws, increasing penalties for trafficking-related offences and increasing the expertise of police and prosecutors in the hope that the number of traffickers being detected and punished will increase, so that levels of trafficking decline.

All of this constitutes just one strategy among many others to stop trafficking. Unfortunately, many governments have assumed it is the only strategy necessary to use. This is partly because the importance of this particular approach has been emphasised by the UNODC and also by the US State Department, which threatens to take measures against governments which do not meet the US’ minimum standards for action to stop human trafficking.¹¹ However, even in

cases where it is clear what the law should require (e.g. making it an offence to involve anyone below the age of 18 in commercial sex), law-based strategies generally need supplementing by other techniques. In the case of CSEC, these can involve a range of other techniques to influence men and boys who pay for sex.

Influencing consumers

There are many ways in which the members of the public whose money finances trafficking, directly or indirectly, can be influenced. Some of these run parallel to law-based strategies (such as public information campaigns to discourage child sex tourism), while others are separate to them or have no significant base in law at all.

Marked increases have been noted in the number of women and girls being trafficked following the deployment of soldiers, police and others in international peacekeeping forces (in situations as far apart as Mozambique in the late 1980s and Kosovo at the end of the 1990s). Methods used to influence members of peacekeeping forces include prohibiting them from visiting prostitutes, banning them from certain bars and, recently, giving them training about child rights and trafficking issues before they are deployed. Sex tourists have also been targeted in their home countries by laws allowing them to be prosecuted at home for certain offences committed abroad against children.

In a number of countries which have general laws concerning 'vagrancy' or prohibiting begging in public places, NGOs have observed that the only action taken by public authorities when foreign children are found begging is to take the children into custody, treating them as criminals or illegal immigrants. In such cases a two-pronged strategy is justified: to influence the police and other public authorities so that when they encounter foreign children they react in a more appropriate way and protect them; and, if the child beggars have been trafficked, to influence the public which donates money to them and persuade them not to make donations, as these actually increase the harm inflicted on children. If those donating money have religious motives (which is the case in countries as far apart as Greece and Thailand), religious officials and channels may be the most effective ones to influence relevant members of the public.

Campaigns to stop donations and dissuade the public from paying for certain products or services are often criticised by observers who fear that the children involved may lose out or be punished as a result. It is therefore sensible to monitor this possibility and report publicly on it.

A campaign in the 1990s to influence members of the public in Europe and North America who bought hand-knotted carpets made by children in debt bondage (a form of servitude) in South Asia, some of whom had been trafficked, started by using publicity as its main technique. Those mounting the campaign were unsure whether calling for a boycott of hand-knotted carpets was appropriate, as this would harm producers who were not exploiting children as well as those who were. From 1994 onwards, several schemes offered guarantees that specific carpets had *not* been made by children in servitude or by illegal child labour. However, it was difficult for Western consumers to know which schemes to trust as, within a short time, a plethora of schemes and labels announced that products had not been made 'by child labour', usually in the absence of any evidence to back up the claims. Nevertheless, in theory it became possible to offer consumers the choice of buying a product which had not been made by workers subjected to trafficking or other abuse.

Further reading

For suggestions about activities to influence men and boys who pay for sex with children, consult the web-site of End Child Prostitution, Child Pornography and Trafficking of Children for Sexual Purposes (ECPAT) International: <http://www.ecpat.net>

Influencing employers

Labour standards to be observed in the workplace are formally enacted by governments and enforced by labour inspectors and other law enforcement officials. Nevertheless, other organisations can call for new standards which seem likely to protect children more effectively and also try to influence employers (particularly those who are not checked by labour inspectors, such as employers of child domestic workers) or to check up on the conditions in which children are working and ensure working children know their rights and how to react if abused. Many of these actions potentially benefit a wider set of children than just those who have been trafficked.

Influencing traffickers and employment agents	Influencing employers and pimps	Influencing 'consumers'
<p>Make sure all the actions which contribute to trafficking are crimes.</p>	<p>Arrest and prosecute people who make money out of trafficked children, both pimps and brothel owners (profiting from CSEC), 'controllers' or beggar masters who force children to beg and others who employ trafficked children.</p>	<p>Make paying for sex with children (i.e. anyone below 18) an offence, as well as 'the exploitation of prostitution' (i.e. taking part of the earnings of a child selling commercial sex).</p>
<p>Arrest and prosecute traffickers and the other intermediaries who connive with them.</p>		<p>Educate the public about the exploitation of children and adults who are trafficked.</p>
<p>Even if the legal system does not result in convictions, ensure that the police harass likely criminals.¹⁰ If evidence to bring charges connected with 'trafficking' is weak, encourage prosecutors to indict traffickers and related criminals with 'tax evasion' (for failing to pay tax on their earnings).</p>		<p>Urge the media to avoid 'sensationalist' reporting about trafficking cases (which might encourage 'demand') and to explain how the public should respond if concerned about a possible case.</p>
	<p>Ensure labour standards are adequate to protect young workers (not just banning child labour but protecting youth workers).</p>	<p>Test other techniques for influencing men and boys who pay for sex—with the message that girls and boys aged 17 and under are children and 'off limits'.</p>
<p>Educate the community about the strategies used by traffickers and recruiters.</p>	<p>Monitor places where young children and adolescents work in the informal sector.</p>	<p>Target specific groups of 'consumers' such as sex tourists (who can be influenced by laws and dissuasive messages in their own countries) or soldiers belong to peacekeeping forces (who are under orders).</p>
<p>Find ways of distinguishing between real criminals and others who are involved in finding jobs for children and who are open to modifying their behaviour to protect children more effectively.</p>	<p>Provide employers in sectors where trafficked children have been found working (e.g. restaurants or hotels) with information about cases of trafficking, explaining what constitutes trafficking and what standards they should respect.</p>	<p>Organise public information campaigns to influence people who donate money to trafficked child beggars. If people donating money to children have a religious motive, try religious channels to influence them.</p>
		<p>If consumers buy products made by trafficked children in another country, promote similar products which offer evidence that they have not been made by workers subjected to trafficking or other abuse.</p>

A number of child rights NGOs promote efforts to protect children working as domestic servants, of whom there are many millions around the globe. Some such children are trafficked, so advocating safer recruitment practices, working conditions and better contracts for child domestics are all ways of reducing the likelihood that the process of recruiting child domestic workers in the future will involve trafficking.

Further reading

Maggie Black. *Child domestic workers: a handbook on good practice in programme interventions*. Anti-Slavery International. London, 2005. <http://www.antislavery.org>

Making it safer for children and improving levels of protection provided by the police, child protection authorities and others

Some of the measures to protect adolescents who have recently arrived in a new place are the same as those mentioned earlier, to protect children who are in transit. Whenever young workers have left their own country and are technically 'foreigners', it is quite likely

that the authorities in the country to which they have moved give less priority to protecting them than they do to their own citizens. In such cases, advocacy activities on behalf of foreign children are important, urging the government and public officials to make the same levels of protection to foreign children as to those born in the country.

III.4. Deciding the number of children whom your project can prevent from being trafficked

When considering whether to finance projects to prevent child abuse or exploitation, various donors want to know how many individual children will benefit from the project. Some require a standard presentation of "the number of children/adults whose trafficking will be prevented". This can be meaningless if they do not distinguish between a child who receives information about trafficking (for example, from a television programme) and a child who is the subject of specific child

Making it safer for child migrants at their destinations	Improving the protection provided by the police, child protection agencies and others
Establish safe residential accommodation for young migrants arriving in a city/country for the first time.	Arrest and prosecute people who make money out of trafficked children, both pimps and brothel owners (profiting from the commercial sexual exploitation of children), 'controllers' or beggar masters who force children to beg and others who employ trafficked children.
Provide young people (adolescents and young adults) who have recently arrived with a social centre or other safe place to meet; make information available to them about their rights and ways in which these might be abused, ways of avoiding abuse and advice on whom to contact for assistance if they are abused.	
Establish drop-in centres for child migrants (whether trafficked or not), to provide practical and emotional support and also advice and information.	Monitor places where young children and adolescents work, particularly in the unregulated informal sector and in private homes.
Make non-formal education available to child migrant workers who have not completed their basic education.	Train the police and others to distinguish between trafficked children and other unaccompanied or migrant children and to make their responses appropriate.

protection measures. The two should not be measured by the same yardstick. While bending to the demands of donors, it is important that those organising prevention projects point out the crucial difference.

Nevertheless, deciding on the number of 'beneficiaries' you want to reach may be as important as deciding on the preventive strategy you intend to pursue. Be careful not to introduce numbers which are meaningless or chosen arbitrarily. While numbers chosen in the context of broadcasting anti-trafficking messages over television or radio may have little significance, when it comes to activities which have a more marked effect—increasing children's skills (e.g. teaching them life skills), vocational training or income support for households where children are considered to be at risk—it is important to invest your resources carefully in proportion to the scale on which children are being trafficked and to estimate the numbers who should benefit from your activities accordingly.

III.5. Strengthening the capacity of locally based actors to respond to child trafficking

One strategy for preventing child trafficking is to improve child protection systems and to increase the capacity of various government agencies to take more effective action against child trafficking.

However, there is a danger that 'increasing the capacity' of government agencies may involve officials attending training sessions without this leading to any change in their behaviour or improvement in their effectiveness. This situation arises when the Government itself does not give a message that change is needed, when no new resources are available or when social service officials are intimidated by criminals into taking no action.

Projects have the potential to lead by example, showing in a first phase how child protection techniques can be applied to prevent trafficking and moving the focus subsequently to influencing local social services so that they apply similar techniques.

Unlike governments, however, IGOs and NGOs cannot tell government agencies what to do. However, if government agencies that need to work together to prevent trafficking fail to do so, or announce that they are cooperating without really doing so, various advocacy techniques can be used to criticise this and persuade them. The role of wider advocacy campaigns is outside the scope of this handbook, but they too contribute to prevention.

III.6. Assessing which strategy or combination of strategies to use

Determining the combination of strategies

The complexity of the issue, and the need to prevent child trafficking in at least two places at the same time (areas of recruitment and areas of exploitation) means that one strategy is never sufficient by itself. While there are limits to what a single organisation can do, it is often sensible to combine some of the strategies outlined in these menus or to work systematically with other organisations which complement your organisation's intervention, either in the same place or at different locations along a trafficking chain. For example, child protection agencies or NGOs working in the area where children are being exploited should establish links with their counterparts in the places where the children come from. Experience shows that government agencies find it more difficult to establish formal links with agencies in a different country than NGOs, facing more obstacles on account of protocol.

Decisions about which items to choose from the menus included in this chapter must be based on an assessment of the needs in the area or areas where you are considering working. Although there have been many examples of organisations implementing several preventive strategies at the same time, there is still little evidence about how distinct strategies interact, so it is difficult to recommend particular combinations. However, some lessons are already apparent.

- I. Although providing adults and adolescents with information about trafficking and the circumstances in which they risk being trafficked is a reasonable first step, it is

virtually never sufficient by itself (although it is sometimes reasonable to start with this while preparing other initiatives). It is also essential to address the material push factors such as those related to shortage of income, lack of job opportunities, discrimination or domestic abuse. In the absence of action addressing these, having extra knowledge about risks may not be much help.

2. Information about trafficking needs to be accurate (not propaganda). Avoid presenting inaccurate stereotypes about who traffickers are, places to which children are in danger of being trafficked, etc.
3. Even though information is rarely sufficient by itself, it is useful to back up other efforts (such as boosting household income or supporting certain children in school) with information about risks and dangerous situations to avoid. Young people should be exposed to the same message repeatedly, if possible via different channels, if it is to sink in.
4. Adolescents who are presented with information about the risks of being trafficked also want more positive advice about how to get jobs, precautions to take when leaving home or migrating, etc.
5. However effective the preventive strategies which are deployed in an area where recruitment is taking place, if action is not taken at the same time to reduce demand and to protect trafficked children in places where they are exploited, the results, at best, will be a shift in recruitment patterns, with a new set of children recruited somewhere else. The child targeted by your project may no longer be at risk, but others still will be.
6. Whatever specific actions are initiated in the places where children are recruited or exploited, there is usually also a need to strengthen child protection systems and to urge the public authorities to improve their response to cases of child trafficking. The

only exception is in countries where the authorities' response has had such negative repercussions on children that it should not be encouraged! Of course, the need to influence the authorities' response in such places is even greater, even if it means calling on them to review the steps currently being taken to stop trafficking and to embark on quite different strategies.

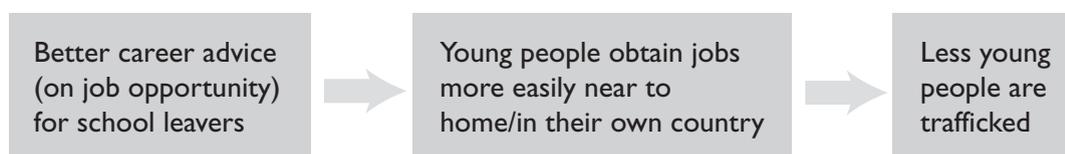
Checking the programme logic

The phrase 'programme logic' implies that there are a set of causal relationships in any set of activities taken to bring about positive change, and that these have been devised to ensure that the activity being proposed is indeed likely to bring about the results which are desired (i.e. the relationships are logical). Projects with little programme logic might be based on hope (that one action will lead to a desired result, however unlikely) or false logic. For example, a project to provide advice to school leavers about job opportunities and thereby reduce the number emigrating abroad and being trafficked might be based on the logic diagram below.

The 'logic' proposed here might be flawed in various ways, either if children are trafficked before reaching the end of their compulsory schooling (i.e. before they get any career advice) or if no jobs are available once they leave school (however good the advice they receive).

In the case of each of the strategies outlined in this chapter, it is sensible to be realistic at the planning stage about what they will deliver—even to be pessimistic, rather than over optimistic, about how effective the strategy will be in preventing trafficking.

The most common action taken to prevent adolescents being trafficked has consisted of providing them with information about trafficking so that they are aware of the risks if they decide to migrate. Taking a realistic approach means questioning whether an 'awareness of risks' is really likely to dissuade a young person from seeking a better future (and whether their need



is just for knowledge about risks or also for knowledge about ways of avoiding or minimising these risks). This in turn should prompt a project planner to look at whether it would be realistic to try and make alternative livelihoods available to young people near to where they live, or whether the emphasis should be on making it safer for them to migrate elsewhere to find jobs or safer once they are in employment (i.e. find ways to improve recruitment procedures and employment standards so that these no longer involve forced labour, servitude or commercial sexual exploitation).

Consultations to check that your strategies and programme logic are suitable

Once you have decided what activities you might organise and with what objectives, you should check that these are suitable. This involves consulting others and is a valuable (if challenging) opportunity to link up with other stakeholders, if you have not already done so.

Talking directly (bilaterally) to other stakeholders and to the children and communities which you expect to benefit from your project is likely to lead to a more genuine exchange of views than if you invite all the other stakeholders to a meeting to hear about your intentions and to comment on them. This is because large meetings tend to allow people with power and influence to make their views known, rather than the powerless (and people who are trafficked are usually among the latter).

Some organisations have nevertheless found that large meetings are a viable technique for informing some stakeholders and getting feedback to modify their plans. ILO's International Programme for the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) projects, for example, have organised what they call 'stakeholder ownership exercises' at national or provincial level, inviting all the various government departments and other organisations which might be involved or affected by the ILO's efforts to prevent child trafficking, to share the organisation's analysis and comment on its proposed activities.

Participatory consultations potentially serve as an opportunity for other stakeholders to raise issues

which serve their own interests, criticising, for example, an activity which threatens their monopoly in a particular area. It is a good idea to hear their views (in order to assess threats and risks), but also necessary to use good judgement in assessing which comments to take into account in a positive way. Are another NGO's comments based on self-interest, for example, or on a genuine commitment to establishing an effective division of labour (and trying to avoid duplications)? Either way, it is important to give a clear message to anyone you consult at the outset about the nature of the consultation and the extent to which they can expect you to modify your proposals in the light of their comments.

Consultation with others is one way of assessing the suitability of your plans and their viability in the eyes of others. A quite different technique involves using independent experts to check the quality of your project (i.e. quality assurance), particularly its programme logic and the probability that it will deliver what is being promised. The independent experts involved could be 'peer group reviewers' involved in similar work for other organisations or within the same organisation (although in the latter case, their margin for independent comment is reduced). Too many projects only involve independent experts after finishing their activities, at the evaluation stage. In many instances, outsiders can see that the programme logic or other aspects of the approach that has been proposed were flawed from the start. However, at the end of a project it is too late for them to have much influence. It would be more sensible to consult them early on. This is particularly the case because some projects are amended in the course of being drafted in some peculiar ways—to take account of particular concerns of either their organisation's managers or of a donor—and lose their initial programme logic as a result.

The competitive nature of some tenders for projects and competition between rival organisations are reasons why project proposals are not reviewed by outside experts early on. However, these obstacles can be overcome if autonomous organisations agree to work together to improve the quality of their work for children.

Developing project strategies – Checklist

1. Develop a project strategy. Based on the preparatory steps taken:
 - Decide which stages of trafficking your project will focus on.
 - Choose from the different options presented in the 'menus' or develop your own strategies to address trafficking at the stages chosen.
 - Select a combination of different strategies which reflect the complexity of the problem you are seeking to address.
2. Set realistic targets for the number of children to be reached by the project.
3. Consider how activities contribute to strengthening the capacity of locally based actors to respond to child trafficking.
4. Use the following to check if the combination of strategies that you have selected are suitable:
 - Lessons learnt from previous initiatives on trafficking.
 - A consideration of the programme logic – are the activities you are planning likely to bring about the change you are seeking?
 - Consultations with key stakeholders, including other organisations working on trafficking and children and communities.

Footnotes

- 1 Entitled 'Taste for Life'.
- 2 A recent study concerning more than 200 women and adolescent girl trafficked in Europe revealed that one in five knew her trafficker before being trafficked (Zimmerman, 2006, 8). Twelve per cent of those questioned were below the age of 18 when trafficked.
- 3 Run by the "La Strada" International Centre for Women's Rights Protection and Promotion in countries such as Moldova and Ukraine. This is a network working to stop human trafficking throughout Central and Eastern Europe, particularly trafficking in women and girls.
- 4 See: Lisa Rende Taylor; 2005. The author provides evidence that the risk of girls becoming involved in hazardous labour increased by an average of 11.6 per cent for every additional year of education. The villages where she collected evidence in northern Thailand were ones in which elder daughters are routinely kept near home to help their parents, but "middleborns" were "more than twice as likely to be entered into hazardous labour than firstborns on lastborns".
- 5 "No caso do Brasil, uma das boas práticas, que é mundialmente comentada, é o caso da Bolsa-Família, que ajuda perto de 13 milhões de crianças. Não há como combater o trabalho infantil sem ajudar as famílias." (Anita Amorim, encarregada para a América Latina do PETI-Programa para a Eliminação do Trabalho Infantil). http://www.rfi.fr/actubr/articles/077/emission_381.asp ("In the case of Brazil, one of the good practices which is noted around the world is the case of the 'family scholarship' subsidy, which helps near on 13 million children. There is no way of combating child labour without helping the families." Anita Amorim, IPEC official responsible for Latin America).
- 6 The involvement of religious leaders is contentious in some countries, particularly when religious institutions are involved in opposing initiatives designed to enable children to protect themselves, such as sex education and life skills education. However, in other countries religious leaders are regarded as well informed and influential.
- 7 The author visited Burkina Faso in February 2006 and was shown details in the town of Bobo Dioulassou about an 18-year-old boy intercepted when travelling to find work in neighbouring Côte d'Ivoire.
- 8 With good intelligence about the profile of children or adults who have been trafficked in the past, the police and immigration service can identify the characteristics of children or adults who are being trafficked and use this intelligence to pick out travellers who need advice and protection (but not necessarily by intercepting them, yet alone repatriating them). In contrast, with poor intelligence the characteristics they identify result in discrimination against young travellers on the basis of their nationality or appearance. In the Netherlands the police Criminal Investigation Division set up a new victim-tracing system in 2002, the Informatie Knooppunt Politie Systeem (IKPS), Police Nodal Intelligence System, which is used to record information about individuals who might have been trafficked into prostitution, as well as known victims. The system involves according one or more points according to a list of indicators determined by the prosecution service and police counter-trafficking specialists. When 10 or more points are noted, details about the adult or child concerned are noted on a data-base as a possible victim of trafficking. The system is reportedly not used much for keeping track of children who are suspected of being trafficked, as it is felt that protection measures should be taken promptly whenever a child is suspected of being involved in prostitution. See: Anke van den Borne, Karin Kloosterboer et al, Investigating Exploitation. Research into trafficking in children in the Netherlands, produced by ECPAT (Netherlands), in cooperation with Defence for Children International (Netherlands) and UNICEF (Netherlands), and with financial support from PLAN (Netherlands). Defence for Children International (Netherlands), Amsterdam, 2005, page 31. A similar points system based on likely indicators can be used at border posts, rather than relying on vaguer criteria which may be arbitrary and influenced by prejudice.
- 9 This procedure was piloted in the United Kingdom in 2004 in Operation Paludin Child. Details can be found in The Job, Volume 38, Issue 953, 13 May 2005, at: http://www.met.police.uk/job/job953/live_files/6.htm
- 10 This recommendation is mentioned in: The Bangladesh Thematic Group on Trafficking, Revisiting the Human Trafficking Paradigm: The Bangladesh Experience, Part I: Trafficking of Adults, IOM, September 2004, page 36. <http://www.iom.int>
- 11 The US Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 contains a set of minimum standards for the elimination of trafficking in persons, which the US authorities regard as applicable to the governments of all countries

of origin, transit, or destination which have a significant number of victims of what the Act calls “severe forms of trafficking”. There are four standards:

- “(1) The government of the country should prohibit severe forms of trafficking in persons and punish acts of such trafficking.
- “(2) For the knowing commission of any act of sex trafficking involving force, fraud, coercion, or in which the victim of sex trafficking is a child incapable of giving meaningful consent, or of trafficking which includes rape or kidnapping or which causes a death, the government of the country should prescribe punishment commensurate with that for grave crimes, such as forcible sexual assault.
- “(3) For the knowing commission of any act of a severe form of trafficking in persons, the government of the country should prescribe punishment that is sufficiently stringent to deter and that adequately reflects the heinous nature of the offense.
- “(4) The government of the country should make serious and sustained efforts to eliminate severe forms of trafficking in persons.”

The Act lists 10 factors to be considered as “indicia of serious and sustained efforts to eliminate severe forms of trafficking in persons”. These are assessed by the US State Department once a year and include:

- “(1) Whether the government of the country vigorously investigates and prosecutes acts of severe forms of trafficking in persons, and convicts and sentences persons responsible for such acts, that take place wholly or partly within the territory of the country...”
- “(2) Whether the government of the country protects victims of severe forms of trafficking in persons...”
- “(3) Whether the government of the country has adopted measures to prevent severe forms of trafficking in persons, such as measures to inform and educate the public, including potential victims, about the causes and consequences of severe forms of trafficking in persons”.

And “(7) Whether the government of the country vigorously investigates, prosecutes, convicts, and sentences public officials who participate in or facilitate severe forms of trafficking in persons, and takes all appropriate measures against officials who condone such trafficking”.

The Act can be found at: <http://uscode.house.gov/download/pls/22C78.txt> Parts are reproduced in the US Department of State’s annual ‘Trafficking in Persons’ report.

Learning from experience

IV

While planning an initiative to prevent trafficking from occurring, it is also important to think ahead and work out how you are going to know what the results of your activities are (both intended and unintended results) and whether the project is having the effects you intended. At simplest this means talking to the people involved (your intended beneficiaries). If you forget to do this, you may never find out what your real results have been and, at worst, your project may have all sorts of unintended results without doing what you intended! This chapter examines ways of finding out how your project progressing through monitoring and evaluation and impact assessment, and explores the importance of using this learning in the future.

IV.1. Monitoring, indicators and means of verification

While your organisation is carrying out activities to prevent child trafficking, the project manager and any outside donor should monitor its progress, to know if it is achieving the outputs that were planned and if it is having the effects that were desired. An example of such monitoring is included in Box 5 below.

The evidence needed to track the initiative outlined in the box above (and others) comes into three categories.

When *monitoring* the activity involving 10,000 leaflets, your aim is to find out whether the leaflets have been produced and meet the quality standard you expected, and whether the awareness-raising classes took place as scheduled.

Finding out whether the children who attended the classes learnt anything and whether their behaviour changed as a result involves *evaluation*.

Finally, finding out whether the activity actually helped prevent anyone from being trafficked would involve *impact assessment*.

All three involve deciding at an early point in the project, usually when designing the project, what ways would be appropriate for measuring your project's achievements. In project jargon this involves a set of *indicators*.

One set of '*output indicators*' helps measure whether the project is on schedule, producing the specific results which are expected from its activities. Separate '*results indicators*' measure what changes have actually been brought about by the programme's activities. In projects to prevent trafficking, the difference is crucial, for '*output indicators*' merely tell a project manager (or donor) that the project's products or outputs are being achieved on schedule, but not whether, individually or collectively, they are achieving the change which is hoped for (whether social, cultural, economic or political).

Indicators can be qualitative factors as well as quantitative ones. In either case, a specific way of measuring them has to be found: a '*means of verification*'.

Output indicators can be checked early on in the project's implementation: e.g. the number of leaflets printed or the number of school classes organised. However, in projects to prevent trafficking, it is also essential to monitor some results indicators during the project and not leave this until an evaluation after the project has ended.

In theory it is also possible during the design stage of a project to set 'impact indicators' which

you monitor during and after the project to see if it is having the desired effect. These should concern the key changes you want the project to make. In practice, there is a danger in setting impact indicators' in a vacuum, before the project has substantial contact with its beneficiaries. They can either be set soon after the project starts (if the donor agrees to wait this long) or reviewed and modified soon after the project starts.

Various methods have been designed for measuring the results of distributing leaflets and other public information campaigns designed to prevent trafficking. A common one was mentioned in Box 5 below: to conduct two tests of the levels of knowledge of a sample of the audience receiving the information (usually only a small sample). In the case of children who sit through a class on the topic of trafficking (and who take a cartoon leaflet home afterwards), this involves administering a standard set of questions

Box 5 – Seeking evidence about the project's activities

A lot of efforts of prevent child trafficking have involved the production and distribution of leaflets containing information about what trafficking entails, often in cartoon form. When a project set out to produce 10,000 of these and to use them during school classes to increase children's awareness (in the hope that the children would use the knowledge to avoid being trafficked), there were various opportunities to collect evidence about what was occurring. At simplest, the mere fact that 10,000 leaflets were printed was evidence that the project activity was on track (and implied that a suitable message to put in the leaflet had been agreed and suitable cartoons drawn). Evidence that the leaflets had been printed (a receipt from the printers) might satisfy the donor that their money was being spent correctly. However, the mere fact that leaflets have been printed does not mean that they have been put to any use. The piles of printed leaflets seen in numerous offices testify to the fact that publications are not always used properly.

So, further evidence was needed about the way the leaflets were used, such as records of visits to schools and the numbers of leaflets left in the school or handed out to children. However, even this evidence did not show whether the children receiving information had been affected in any way. So, the project organisers visited schools a few days before and after each class was organising, checking the level of knowledge of a sample of children and measuring the difference (a classic measure used in school to assess the 'value added' of education). The project organisers were happy to note that the children's understanding of trafficking had increased, but perturbed that a few boys said they wanted to become traffickers when they grew up!

After conducting the classes for six months, no-one knew if children who were by now better informed were going to react in any more appropriate ways when faced with key decisions affecting their lives, future and safety. However, the project organisers were encouraged when one of the children came along to tell them that a fellow pupil had dropped out of school and might have been trafficked.

In the longer term, the project's managers had to look elsewhere for evidence to indicate whether the 10,000 leaflets had the intended effect, checking with the police whether they were aware of any changes in trafficking patterns and with other organisations working in the area to which children were known to have been trafficked.

to some of the children a few days or weeks before the class and another afterwards. The 'pre-test' can find out what level of knowledge or awareness children have before being exposed to new information. Obviously, administering the questions immediately after the class is more of a test of memory than a meaningful way of finding out if the children have been influenced at all. However, even going back to the school a month or two later does not produce very useful evidence. This 'post-test' can find out whether children acquired knowledge in the course of the class they attended and (importantly) whether any of that knowledge was distorted or misunderstood in significant ways. It can also check whether they shared the information with others (parents, siblings or friends). But it does not find out whether the children's behaviour is going to be any different in the future as a result of acquiring new knowledge. Consequently, it can measure whether a satisfactory proportion of children have acquired the accurate information which the project set out to give them, but cannot go further.

In contrast, a follow-up interview later on, a year or more later, might allow a child to put the class and leaflet in the context of other information she or he was being exposed to and comment on what influence (if any) it had on her/his subsequent behaviour. The difficulty in arranging this is that too often the project has finished and has no capacity to find out what the long term effects of its activities have been.

This example reveals a number of relevant points. Firstly, that some monitoring is essential so that any weaknesses in your 'product' can be spotted early on and remedied. In principle, information given to children or adults should be subjected to some form of pilot testing to assess its suitability *before* it is used widely (i.e. it should not require correcting as a result of monitoring). However, this stage has been overlooked in many anti-trafficking initiatives, or an assumption is made by the project manager that the pilot test will confirm that the way information is presented is indeed appropriate (often an unjustified assumption by an over-optimistic manager). Consequently, information may still be misinterpreted—as in the case of anti-trafficking posters which illiterate adults look at, drawing completely unintended conclusions from the cartoon pictures, as they understand nothing of the caption.

Secondly, it shows that a great deal of information can be collected during monitoring exercises which says very little about the impact the project is having. In effect, poorly chosen indicators can waste a lot of your resources.

Thirdly, it shows that indicators can be found fairly easily which relate to a specific activity and measure something about the results, i.e. that the level of knowledge which children have about trafficking has increased (not a surprising result!). However, finding meaningful indicators to measure your progress towards reaching your project's objectives is more difficult. Indeed, in many cases project designers have ended up amending their objectives in order to find suitable indicators to measure their progress (and this may mean that, as a result, the project pursues objectives which are less effective at preventing child trafficking than they would otherwise have been).

Section III.5 at the end of the last chapter raised the question of how many beneficiaries you should commit your project to influencing and how to distinguish between those who are 'slightly' influenced and those who are more intensively influenced in a way which might prevent them being trafficked. When you commit your project to influencing specific numbers of people, you should also find ways of measuring whether appropriate numbers of individuals have indeed been influenced. More difficult, however, is to measure the extent to which they have been influenced or have taken on board an anti-trafficking message. With the objective of informing the general public about human trafficking and mobilising them to prevent it, one project set out to measure the "extent of attitudes changed positively among (i) the general public and (ii) groups specifically at risk of being trafficked". Not surprisingly, they found this much more difficult to measure than counting the number of people who received information.

The results of activities to encourage public awareness about trafficking or political commitment to taking action to stop trafficking can be assessed by counting the number of articles published by the media, or the number of times the issue is mentioned in a speech by a member of the government or national assembly. However, it is useful to make your indicators more sophisticated. Press reports may signal that newspaper editors think stories about commercial sexual exploitation help sell their newspapers, in which case you should also find

ways of assessing the quality of the reports presented by journalists and counting the number of good quality media reports, rather than all of them.

The art of choosing useful indicators is consequently to work out what tangible evidence is scheduled to become available of your project's activities and effects, what of this will give you and your donor useful information about the project's progress and, finally, how to measure this evidence in ways which are not unacceptably expensive.¹

Further reading

Mekong Sub-regional Project to Combat Trafficking in Children and Women. *Tools for Prevention. Participatory Monitoring. Guidelines for practitioners in the fight against human trafficking*. Prepared by Rachel Bray for IPEC. ILO, Bangkok, 2005. <http://www.childtrafficking.net> As the publication explains in its foreword, these "guidelines consist of three parts including a theoretical framework for participatory monitoring, a kit with eight different tools to be used to collect data as well as annexes with tips on how to run training workshops and analyze baseline data".

Ruth Rosenberg, Sebastian Lazaroiu and Elena Tyuryukanova. *Best Practices for Programming to Prevent Trafficking in Human Beings in Europe and Eurasia*. Development Alternatives Inc for USAID. September 2004. This was already mentioned at the end of section 5.2.1.1 and can be downloaded at: <http://www.vitalvoices.org/files/docs/Prevention%20assessment%20Report-formatted%20CAS1.pdf> Annex C contains a 'Trafficking prevention framework and indicators', recommending 28 different indicators for use in projects aiming to reduce the number of people being trafficked. These indicators were designed for initiatives on human trafficking in general, rather than especially for cases involving children.

IV.2. Monitoring whether your project has any unintended or undesirable effects

The projects which have caused the most harm to the people whom they were supposed to benefit (by preventing them from being trafficked) seem to be those which give least priority to talking to their intended beneficiaries at the outset. This is because their objectives tend to be focused narrowly on 'preventing trafficking' rather than meeting the hopes and aspirations of the children or adults in the communities they aim to influence.

Look at the conclusions drawn by one organisation funding anti-trafficking activities in Nepal:

In the course of observing the impact of our interventions, we began to be concerned that some of the approaches we were supporting might have unintended negative consequences. Prevention messages that characterized trafficking as a definite result of leaving a village seemed to discourage girls and women from exercising their right to migrate in search of a better life. Some women and girls crossing the border to visit relatives or join legitimate jobs were intercepted as suspected trafficking victims, infringing on their right to migrate—an important self-protection mechanism, especially given the current conflict. Furthermore, increased HIV/AIDS awareness also resulted in serious stigmatization of returnees, with some neighbors thinking all returnees must be infected by the virus. (Hausner, 2005, foreword)

Not surprisingly, monitoring any unintended or harmful effects of your project also means talking to the intended beneficiaries regularly. This should involve listening to more than simply the direct answers they give you—also listening and looking out for other changes which might be caused by project activities. This implies that the monitoring requires interviews rather than filling in a questionnaire.

A handbook for practitioners and evaluation specialists gives the following advice to those responsible for monitoring and evaluation:

"Deliberately set out to capture negative changes and to seek out those who might report it, particularly groups who are often disadvantaged such as women, minority groups, or people who have dropped out of the project" (Roche, 1999, 52).

It is important to note that a project's intended beneficiaries are often reluctant to report negative changes to representatives of the organisation carrying out the project (even if they gossip about these negative aspects all the time). They are in an unequal power relationship with those administering the project and may fear the consequences of criticising anything. The same handbook suggests that, to get around this, it is necessary to raise the issue of negative impacts at least twice, at the beginning and again at the end, each time you talk with members of communities affected by a project (Roche, 1999, 44).

Furthermore, it is also not enough to talk to the project's direct beneficiaries. You also need to talk to other people who are in a position to note changes in the behaviour of either your beneficiaries or anyone else involved in the trafficking process (such as police who are aware of a change in the routes or techniques used by traffickers).

IV.3. Impact assessment

In addition to monitoring a project's progress regularly while it is being implemented, a more substantial evaluation is needed to look at the overall impact of either a project or a series of projects grouped together as a programme. This impact assessment involves evaluating the positive and negative long term effects produced by an intervention, directly or indirectly, intended or unintended.

Good quality impact assessment is important with all projects. However, the current funding climate makes assessing the impact of projects on trafficking particularly important. While large amounts of money have been spent on programmes to help victims of trafficking, many donors have been unwilling to invest as much in initiatives to prevent trafficking, because not enough evidence is available to confirm that preventive projects have been successful at preventing trafficking. If your project does not collect evidence about its impact, particularly about whether it has contributed to preventing child trafficking, it is unlikely to encourage donors to be more generous.

Even more challenging, however, is the fact that some donors want to see a preventive project have a direct impact on the rate at which children are being trafficked: they want to see the numbers of children being trafficked before and after the project and want to see that the numbers have dropped. Although understandable, this is unfortunate, as most statistics available (at the moment) about the numbers of children or adults being trafficked are inherently inaccurate. As more and more projects have started, more evidence about trafficking cases has become available, so claims are made around the world that the numbers of trafficking cases are increasing, although there is often no real evidence of this. Collecting meaningful evidence about your project's impact can help persuade donors and others to pay less attention to misleading statistics and more attention to the genuine benefits of prevention projects.

Proper impact assessment requires measuring situations 'before' and 'after' your interventions; i.e. it is not sufficient just to look at your *results indicators* (which show that you have brought about the changes which you *thought* would be necessary to ensure that trafficking no longer occurs). Showing that new laws have been adopted or that people are more aware of the

risks associated with trafficking reveals that changes have occurred that *may* help prevent trafficking, but should not be presented as direct evidence that trafficking has been prevented (they may be essential bricks to construct a larger wall, as it were, but, by themselves, they do not represent the whole wall).

This suggests that further social research is required after every project to find out if the people affected are now behaving differently. This is obviously not possible in every case. However, if your project set out to change people's behaviour, then you need to find out at the end of the project or afterwards whether the changes you sought have indeed taken place. Reviewing your indicators may not be enough: you can often find out more by talking to the beneficiaries of your activities and asking them for their subjective views.

The information you need from the project's intended beneficiaries in order to measure its impact is not restricted to information about the project. It is better to start by asking them more broadly what changes have occurred in people's lives during the period over which the project has been running. In this way, you can situate any specific changes which are due to the project's activities within a broader context (of social and economic change).

In general, at the time of an impact assessment you want to find out how the project's intended beneficiaries and others around them are behaving, whether this behaviour has changed significantly since the project started, and whether this seems likely to result in a reduction in trafficking. Of course, it is appropriate to ask specifically about the changes that the project has made, but the answers to such specific questions may not be the most useful ones when it comes to assessing the project's impact.

In many instances impact assessments are needed several years after a project ends. For example, in South Eastern Europe and several other regions, life skills have been emphasised as a way of preventing trafficking. For the moment, however, the impact of learning better life skills still cannot be assessed. Many of the results will only become obvious two, four or more years down the road. Consequently, samples of children taught particular skills which are expected to help them *not* be trafficked need monitoring over a quite long period, to work out how it affected them and whether they made

different (and better) life choices as a result. Tracking the long term effects of efforts to prevent trafficking consequently becomes a project in its own right, an important one, even if it is not yet popular with donors funding anti-trafficking initiatives.

“The ultimate purpose of impact assessment is to learn about what works and what does not, and how to apply these lessons in the future” (Roche, 1999, 258).

Further reading

Chris Roche. *Impact Assessment for Development Agencies – Learning to Value Change*. Oxfam GB with Novib, 1999.

IV.4. Learning which interventions are effective at preventing trafficking

Evaluations and impact assessments are only useful if the information gained is used to shape further project activities. In planning projects it is also important to be prepared to learn from the success and failure of other initiatives and to share the result of evaluations so that others can learn from your achievements and mistakes.

The importance of learning from both success and failure

Patterns of trafficking have changed in recent years, but not enough evidence has been collected about the impact of preventive initiatives to understand the link between particular initiatives and changes in the patterns which have occurred. The first half of this decade was a period of rapid investment in untested or unproved techniques (both to prevent trafficking and to assist adults and children who had been trafficked). However, the process of learning what techniques were effective (for preventing trafficking, including re-trafficking of children or adults who had already been trafficked) did not keep pace. This seems to be for a number of reasons (all of which are lessons on what to avoid in the future):

- Organisations were in such a hurry to get on with the actual activity of warning children and young women about the dangers of being trafficked that evaluation did not seem a priority. Activities were either not evaluated at

all or were started while inadequate information was available about the situation beforehand, so it was difficult to measure what difference they made.

- Much of the finance for anti-trafficking activities was available in relatively small sums, meaning only relatively inexpensive activities could be afforded (such as awareness raising). At the same time, many different donors wanted to finance small-scale activities, so a lot of activities were conducted independently to one another, without building on each other's experience.

Either way, the lack of systematic evaluation means that useful experience and opportunities to learn have been lost. There is consequently an important gap to fill: a gap between what has been done and what has been learnt. Filling the gap involves processes such as 'institutional learning', 'sharing lessons learnt' and identifying 'good practice'. These and other terms relating to learning lessons are defined in Box 6 below.

In the case of every substantial initiative to prevent trafficking, therefore, it is important that it should be evaluated. Whenever possible, the lessons from the evaluation should be published or made available to others conducting similar work. The fastest way of circulating information of this sort at the moment is to put it on a website, ensuring the title mentions 'evaluation' or 'impact assessment' (of efforts to prevent child trafficking), so that this is picked up by internet search engines.

Individual activities can be evaluated, as can particular strategies, entire projects or even wider programmes. A recent report on Nepal, for example, assessed the strategy pursued by dozens of NGOs in Nepal (that of intercepting women and girls along Nepal's frontier with India) and pointed out major flaws in both the programme logic of those responsible for the interceptions and the way they went about them at operational level (Hausner, 2005). This report went further, collecting new information from the intended beneficiaries of such interventions and proposing alternative strategies.

In many circumstances, donors or organisations responsible for several different initiatives to prevent child trafficking are in a better position to organise an evaluation of a range of initiatives than an organisation implementing only one or two projects.

Box 6 – Terms concerning learning lessons

Good practice. Specific strategies or activities which have been tested in different circumstances and are known to produce good quality results. Implicitly this term is juxtaposed with 'bad' or 'less good' practices which do not produce the desired results or which have harmful side-effects (either on the people whom an intervention was designed to benefit or on others whom it was not expected to affect).

Institutional learning, also known as organisational learning and referred to in French as capitalisation.² Learning systematically from experience, both from what has worked and what has not, creating a learning culture within an organisation in which learning is valued and encouraged. This implies that changes are made in the way the organisation carries out its activities as a result.

Lessons learnt (adapted from DAC Glossary). Generalisations based on evaluation experiences with projects, programmes, or policies that abstract from the specific circumstances to broader situations. Frequently, lessons highlight strengths or weaknesses in preparation, design, and implementation that affect performance, outcome, and impact.

Peer group. A group of individuals with relevant expertise to comment on a particular topic, either formed within one organisation or composed of individuals belonging to different organisations. Academics routinely subject their research work to peer review, by other academics.

The concept of 'good practice' and ways of identifying good practice

By 2006, many practitioners claimed that they had identified a 'good practice' or even a 'best practice' among their efforts to prevent children from being trafficked. This usually means they have found an activity to be effective in the particular circumstances in which they used it. However, the criteria for making these claims or for achieving common agreement between different organisations, about what works and what does not, are not yet clear.

The term 'good practice' has become popular in recent years. Indeed, the term has been over-used to refer to all sorts of strategies or initiatives to prevent trafficking, which the organisations operating them believe have been effective in quite specific circumstances. In principle, the term should be used more selectively. It only applies to techniques which are considered appropriate to replicate elsewhere: techniques which have proved successful in meeting one or more objectives related to preventing trafficking. Consequently, it is not

sufficient to describe the activity which is deemed to have helped prevent trafficking: it requires analysing and understanding the various factors or variables which helped make the technique successful. Once again, this means understanding its programme logic, as well as other salient factors or variables in the place it was implemented.

A first step towards identifying good practice within any organisation is to document what has been achieved and what factors contributed to its success and to share a summary of this information with others in the same organisation (usually by submitting the summary to whichever unit or department is responsible for monitoring and evaluation). The process of agreeing what constitutes 'good practice' then needs to involve specialists working for other organisations, either contacted in an *ad hoc* way or part of a more formal peer group.

As far as NGOs aiming to stop trafficking in adult women are concerned, there are ongoing disputes around the issue of prostitution which make reaching agreement of what constitutes

good practice difficult (with some arguing that women only prostitute themselves as a result of coercion and that *all* cases of prostitution should consequently be counted as trafficking). However, in the case of children, relatively few argue that girls or boys under 18 are entitled to make money from commercial sex and there appear to be no ideological splits to stop organisations from agreeing common criteria

and procedures for agreeing good practice or from working together to comment on practices which they have each developed—rather, the lack of progress in agreeing what constitutes ‘good practice’ seems to be due to competition between organisations and a lack of priority being given to sharing expertise, neither of which can truly be said to be in the best interests of children.

Monitoring and evaluation and learning from experience – checklist

1. Consider Monitoring and Evaluation at the planning stage, ensuring that systems are established for:

- Monitoring activities.
- Evaluating the changes that occur as a result of these activities.
- Identifying the impact of these changes on child trafficking and children’s lives.
- Exploring any unintended impacts.

2. Develop relevant and useful indicators and means of verification against project activities and objectives. Ensure that monitoring and evaluation plans are realistic, useful and cost-effective.

3. Include plans to consult with children and communities in your monitoring and evaluation.

4. Ensure that project planning incorporate lessons learnt from other organisations on child trafficking, and be prepared to share learning on child trafficking with other agencies and work together to identify good practice.

Footnotes

- 1 Noting that some monitoring exercises appeared too expensive, Rosenberg et al (2004, 35) commented that, "...the collection of indicators needs to be balanced against other issues. Money used to collect indicators comes from money that could have been spent on more programming. Staff time spent collecting data comes out of staff time that could be spent assisting those at risk. However, without such indicators, we do not have an objective measure of program impact and, therefore, cannot make informed decisions about the future direction of programs. Thus, care should be taken not to overburden implementing agencies with an unwieldy number of indicators and focus instead on collecting fewer but more powerful indicators, which would best help ensure that programs are meeting their intended objectives."
- 2 Using the French term for institutional learning, capitalisation, the Terre des Hommes Foundation notes that, "To 'capitalise' is to make experience shareable" (Zehnder, 2001, XXIV-1).

The key points summarised

Although this chapter summarises all the key points mentioned at the end of previous chapters, there are some dangers in interpreting these out of context. They are mentioned altogether here principally for reference purposes.

1. Complete a problem analysis which:

- Clearly distinguishes between trafficked children and other child migrants.
- Examines the different stages in the trafficking process.
- Places trafficking in context, determining whether or not it is a priority issue for the communities in which you work.
- Explores the reasons why children are trafficked in relation to: the immediate causes; the underlying and structural causes, and institutional failure.
- Highlights the most significant causes of trafficking, requiring priority attention.
- Identifies any groups of children being trafficked in disproportionately higher numbers than others or any salient characteristics among children who have been trafficked.
- Determines which groups of children, households and communities or places where children are exploited you want to focus on.
- Is based on information from a trusted and reliable source.

2. Identify resources and opportunities available, through:

- Mapping out the individuals and organisations who may play a role in addressing trafficking in the areas about which you are concerned.
- Exploring potential complementary activities and overlap with the work being done by other organisations.

3. Assess limitations, obstacles and risks, including:

- Identifying threats from possible allies.
- Exploring security threats posed by criminal elements.
- Checking dangerous assumptions which could threaten the success of the project.

4. Consider how to implement a human and child rights approach to trafficking, through:

- Ensuring that achieving child rights and working in children's best interests are placed at the centre of all objectives and activities.
- Including strategies to engage children in decision making and help them to achieve their own rights.
- Considering the different needs of different groups of children to avoid discrimination.

5. Develop a project strategy. Based on the preparatory steps taken:

- Decide which stages of trafficking your project will focus on.
- Choose from the different options presented in the 'menus' or develop your own strategies to address trafficking at the stages chosen.
- Select a combination of different strategies which reflect the complexity of the problem you are seeking to address.

6. Set realistic targets for the number of children to be reached by the project.

7. Consider how activities contribute to strengthening the capacity of locally based actors to respond to child trafficking.

8. Use the following to check if the combination of strategies that you have selected are suitable:

- Lessons learnt from previous initiatives on trafficking.
- A consideration of the programme logic – are the activities you are planning likely to bring about the change you are seeking?
- Consultations with key stakeholders, including other organisations working on trafficking and children and communities.

9. Consider Monitoring and Evaluation at the planning stage, ensuring that systems are established for:

- Monitoring activities.
- Evaluating the changes that occur as a result of these activities.
- Identifying the impact of these changes on child trafficking and children's lives.
- Exploring any unintended impacts.

10. Develop relevant and useful indicators and means of verification against project activities and objectives. Ensure that monitoring and evaluation plans are realistic, useful and cost-effective.

11. Include plans to consult with children and communities in your monitoring and evaluation.

12. Ensure that project planning incorporates lessons learnt from other organisations on child trafficking, and be prepared to share learning on child trafficking with other agencies and work together to identify good practice.

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Notes

