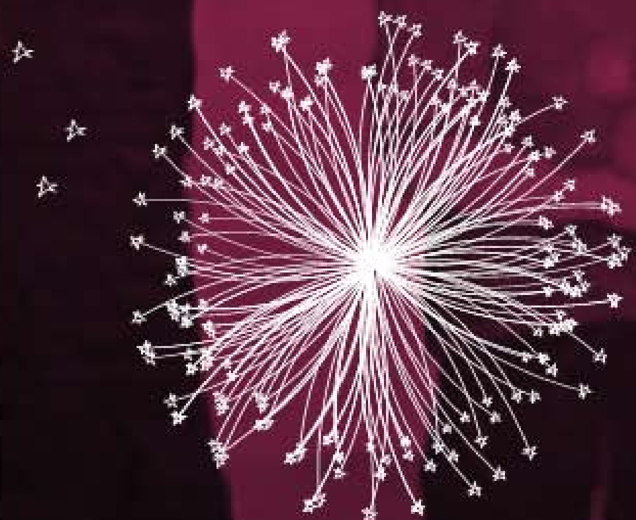
In pursuit of good practice in responses to child trafficking:

Experiences from Latin America, Southeast Europe and Southeast Asia



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In pursuit of good practice in responses to child trafficking: ***Experiences from Latin America, Southeast Europe and Southeast Asia***

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Figure 10	Aung Myo Min (Burma ACT)
Figure 13	Jean-Luc Marchina
Figure 14	PACT Zamboanga - Basilan Cluster

The photos in this study have been selected to ensure they meet the criteria set out in UNICEF's *"Principles for Ethical Reporting on Children"*.

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Mike Dottridge

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Abbreviations

ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
Asia ACTs	Asia Against Child Trafficking
Burma ACT	Burma Against Child Trafficking
Cambodia ACTs	Cambodia Against Child Trafficking
CILSP	Centre for Integrated Legal Services and Practices (Albania)
CPPCR	Committee for Promotion and Protection of Child Rights - Burma
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
CSW	Centres for Social Work (Kosovo and FYROM)
CTWT	Child Trafficking Watch Thailand
EIDHR	European Initiative for Democracy and Human Rights
EU	European Union
FYROM	Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia
HCWF	Ho Chi Minh City Child Welfare Foundation
IACAT	Inter-Agency Council Against Trafficking (Philippines)
IDEIF	*Instituto de Estudios por la Infancia y la Familia* (Peru)
ILO	International Labour Office or International Labour Organization
Indonesia ACTs	Indonesia Against Child Trafficking
NGO	non-governmental organisation
PACT	Philippines Against Child Trafficking
PVPT	Centre for Protection of Victims and Prevention of Trafficking in Human Beings (Kosovo)
SE	Southeast
TdH	Terre des Hommes
TDHIF	Terre des Hommes International Federation
UN	United Nations
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
VFI	Village Focus International (Lao)

Glossary

Adolescent	A person between the ages of 10 and 19.
Best interests of the child	The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (article 3.1) states, "In all actions concerning children, whether undertaken by public or private social welfare institutions, courts of law, administrative authorities or legislative bodies, *the best interests of the child* shall be a primary consideration" (emphasis added).
Burma	Although Burma's military dictators have renamed the country 'Myanmar', the new title is not recognized as legitimate by many Burmese either inside the country or living abroad. Throughout this study the country is referred to as 'Burma' and its inhabitants as 'Burmese'.
Child	The word child is used throughout this publication in accordance with the definition contained in Article 1 of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child: "For the purpose of this present Convention, a child means every human being below the age of 18 years unless, under the law applicable to the child, majority is attained earlier".
Child abuse	Any kind of harm done to children, including neglect, physical, sexual or mental violence by someone who is responsible for them, or has power or control over them, who they should be able to trust.
Child exploitation	Exploitation involves taking unfair advantage of someone, for personal gain, and often mistreating them while doing do. The Convention on the Rights of the Child refers to the "economic exploitation" (article 32), "sexual exploitation" (article 34) and "all other forms of exploitation prejudicial to any aspects of the child's welfare" (article 36), but does not define these terms. The UN Trafficking Protocol cites a more limited set of examples of exploitation associated with human trafficking: see 'Human trafficking'
Child prostitution	The use of a child in sexual activities for remuneration or any other form of consideration.
Child trafficking	See 'Human Trafficking' below.
Human Trafficking / Trafficking in Persons / Trafficking in Human Beings	According to the UN *Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children* (2000), referred to in this study as the 'UN Trafficking Protocol', "trafficking in persons" is the recruitment, transport, transfer, accommodation or receipt of persons (adults or children or both); • in the case of adults, by means of threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person; • in the case of children, it refers to the recruitment, transport, transfer, accommodation or receipt of children, whether or not these means are used. In both cases (of adult and children), it is for the purpose of **exploitation**, which includes the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs.
Internal trafficking	Trafficking within the same country (between regions or districts, but also when a child is recruited to be exploited only a short distance away).
Life skills	These are a set of skills that are important for making one's way in life. They include learning to negotiate, decision making, problem solving, critical thinking, communicating effectively, managing interpersonal relationships, resolving conflicts, being self-aware and empathetic towards others, and coping with emotions and stress.
Palermo Protocol	See 'Human Trafficking' above. The UN Trafficking Protocol is sometimes known as the 'Palermo Protocol', after the city in Italy where it was first signed.
Referral, referral system and referral mechanism	A referral system is a standard way of referring people on to another expert for information or services, particularly someone who is ill or requires the services of a health professional. The term 'referral' is used by health professionals to refer to the process by which they refer a patient to other health professionals for specialised care. In the context of child protection, it refers to a standardised set of procedures for responding to a report of abuse, both to refer a child victim to specialised services and to set child protection measures in motion to prevent further abuse, for example involving the police in investigating a possible offence or requiring social workers to react in some standard ways.
Sexual abuse	The actual or threatened physical intrusion of a sexual nature, whether by force or under unequal or coercive conditions.
Sexual exploitation	Any actual or attempted abuse of a position of vulnerability, differential power, or trust, for sexual purposes, including, but not limited to, profiting monetarily, socially or politically from the sexual exploitation of another. The most common forms of child sexual exploitation involve a child in prostitution or in the production of pornography.
Trafficking Protocol	UN *Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children*, linked to the UN *Convention against Transnational Organized Crime* (2000). This Protocol is sometimes referred to as the 'Palermo Protocol'.
Transnational	Across a national border or between countries, whether situated nearby or on different continents.
UNICEF Guidelines	UNICEF's *Guidelines for the protection of child victims of trafficking or for the protection of the rights of child victims of trafficking.*
Young person / young people	Refers to both children (under 18) and young adults who are now 18 or up to the age of 23.

1 INTRODUCTION

In 2001 the Terre des Hommes International Federation (TDHIF)[1] launched an International Campaign against Child Trafficking. Since then, a large number of projects delivering services to children at risk or children who have been trafficked have been initiated in the framework of the campaign, some of which are still going on. The geographic areas covered include some 40 countries West and Southern Africa, Latin America, Southeast and South Asia and Europe, both in the European Union (EU) and in Southeast Europe. A large number of locally based non-governmental organisations (NGOs) have taken part in the campaign, supported by various Terre des Hommes (TdH) organisations.

In March 2007, a consortium of NGOs, consisting of five Terre des Hommes organisations[2] and eight other partner organisations in three regions of the world, started a project entitled *Enhancing capacity to address trafficking in especially children from a human rights perspective in Southeast Asia, Southeast Europe and Latin America.* It involved organising activities in 12 countries over three years. It was co-financed by the European Commission under the European Initiative for Democracy and Human Rights (EIDHR).

This study discusses methods used in the course of this action and was prepared during its third and final year. It was finalised in December 2009, shortly before the project was due to come to an end in February 2010. The study is intended to share the project's experiences about good practice, based on initiatives in three regions, with other practitioners in the fields of anti-trafficking and child protection.

1.1 Aims of the project

The overall objective of the project was "To contribute to the development of effective policies and practices against trafficking in especially children, safeguarding and promoting the rights of boys and girls in Southeast Asia, Southeast Europe and Latin America". The specific objective, at the end of three years, was that the "Capacity of target groups is enhanced to address trafficking, especially in children, from a human rights perspective, in relation to the prevention of trafficking and protection of trafficked children".

At the outset, the project intended to bring about four different sorts of results, involving:

1. Capacity-building of NGOs and media;
2. Awareness-raising and empowerment at local level;
3. Advocacy at national and regional level; and
4. Networking.

The expected results set in relation to these four areas of work were:

1. "to increase cooperation between media and stakeholders active against trafficking and to improve information on this issue which contains a child rights perspective and is able to raise awareness and mobilise the general public, thanks to sensitisation campaigns and training provided in the framework of the project;
2. "to raise the awareness of local communities and to strengthen or mobilise existing child protection networks on child trafficking prevention and protection of victims of trafficking from a human rights perspective;
3. "to promote the institutionalisation of the UNICEF *Guidelines for Protection of the Rights of Children Victims of Trafficking in Southeastern Europe*, other regional guidelines or existing local provisions for the protection of the rights of victims in the beneficiary countries thanks to the commitment of government institutions, NGOs and service providers to their implementation; and
4. "to promote the establishment of inter-institutional alliances within target regions as well as active networking between regional project partners in order to enable the replication of successful strategies and actions to address trafficking".[3]

The plan for turning the project into reality, developed in 2006, envisaged a total of 17 different types of activity to be undertaken during the project.[4] However, not all of the NGOs which were involved were expected to undertake all these activities, nor were they asked to make progress towards all four of the expected results. They set themselves more specific goals based on the context in their country. In addition, the particular methods they used could vary and the specific activities that each NGO initiated were consequently also different.

The cost of the project was approximately € 1,250,000 over three years (as exchange rates varied, this amount was worth US$1,621,500 in February 2007, but US$1,848,500 in November 2009), with approximately 25 per cent of the budget allocated to pay for activities organised by the implementing partners in Southeast Asia, a further 28 per cent in Latin America and 20 per cent in Southeast Europe. The remaining 27 per cent of the budget was allocated to inter-regional coordination and activities.

1 The Terre des Hommes International Federation (TDHIF) is a network of 11 national organisations, whose mission is to provide active support to children, their family and their community without racial, religious, political, cultural or gender-based discrimination, in the framework of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child.
2 Specifically, this project was coordinated by Terre des Hommes Netherlands as lead agency and also involved Terre des Hommes Germany, Terre des Hommes Italy, the Lausanne-based Terre des Hommes Foundation and Terre des Hommes Switzerland (Geneva).
3 The quotes on this page concerning the project's objectives and expected results all come from the project proposal and accompanying logical framework ('logframe').
4 See Appendix 3 for a full list of the activities that were planned initially.

1.2 Objective of this study

This study focuses on possible good practices identified during the lifetime of the project. As it was prepared before the end of the project, many of the comments about the long-term impact and sustainability of the practices described is largely a matter of conjecture. The study was compiled by an independent consultant, Mike Dottridge, who was asked to obtain information about the project's activities in all three parts of the world involved, to assess which activities might be categorised as 'good practice', to discuss with the organisations participating in the project what criteria were appropriate for assessing whether a particular method constituted good practice and to prepare a report describing the methods which constituted good practice. An additional objective was to draw up recommendations for the organisations involved (or other relevant stakeholders), for example concerning possible future activities.

2 THE PLACES AND ORGANISATIONS INVOLVED IN THE PROJECT

The project was implemented in three regions of the world: Latin America, Southeast Asia (SE Asia) and Southeast Europe (SE Europe). Apart from Terre des Hommes itself, it involved eight other organisations, one of them a regional alliance in SE Asia with member organisations in seven different countries.

In two of the three regions involved – SE Asia and SE Europe – a regional coordinator was responsible for managing the project in the region, who played a role in promoting similar strategies or activities in different countries. In SE Asia this role was performed by Asia ACTs, a regional NGO, based in the Philippines, which was set up with the support of Terre des Hommes Germany in July 2001. In some of the seven countries in the Asia ACTs network (Lao and Vietnam), just a single organisation belongs to the network. In others, the national network consists of a dozen or more separate organisations, in several cases with a national office. A list of the country networks can be found in Appendix 1. In SE Europe the role of regional coordinator was taken on by the Terre des Hommes Foundation, in the framework of its Regional Child Protection Project, based in Hungary.

In Latin America, at the time the project was initiated there was no structured network in place among the four organisations which took part, all of which were based in the Andean region. Nevertheless, the office of Terre des Hommes Switzerland in Colombia took a number of initiatives to allow the four to share their experience, either by meeting together physically or talking together at 'virtual' meetings. It also organised one regional initiative for the Andean region, commissioning an NGO in Colombia that was not taking part in the project, the *Fundación Esperanza*, Hope Foundation, to prepare a directory about the organisations involved in anti-trafficking initiatives in the three countries covered by the project and also in three others.[5] This contains a summary of the main anti-trafficking initiatives in each of the six countries concerned.

At global level the project was coordinated by a single project manager, employed by Terre des Hommes Netherlands, based at different times in The Hague or Brussels.

The countries or specific places where project activities were organised were the following.

Table 1 Countries and NGOs participating in the project

Latin America	Southeast Europe	Southeast Asia
Bolivia *NGO involved* – ***Infante***, Child *Activities* mainly around the city of Cochabamba, situated east of the capital, with some activities in La Paz (the capital), El Alto and Santa Cruz (in the southeast)	**Albania** *NGO involved* – Centre for Integrated Legal Services and Practices (CILSP) *Activities* mainly in Tirana (the capital).	**Cambodia** *NGO involved* – Cambodia Against Child Trafficking (Cambodia ACTs), composed of 12 NGOs with one (Vulnerable Children Assistance) acting as the focal point. *Activities* in Provinces of Takeo, Banteay Meanchey, Pursat, Svay Rieng, Siem Reap, Prey veng, Phnom Penh, Kandal, Battambang, Kampong Thom, Angkor Borei, Pailin.
Colombia *2 separate NGOs: 1st NGO involved* – ***Fundación Renacer,*** the Revival Foundation. *Activities* in two departments on the Caribbean coast (Sucre and Atlántico), mainly in and around the port of Barranquilla, the country's fourth largest city; *2nd NGO involved* – ***Corporación Sinapsis***. *Activities* in Usme, one of the 20 districts of Bogotá, the capital.	**Kosovo** *NGO involved* – **Centre for Protection of Victims and Prevention of Trafficking in Human Beings (PVPT)** Activities mainly in Pristina and Albanian-speaking parts of Kosovo.	**Indonesia** *NGO involve*d – Indonesia Against Child Trafficking (Indonesia ACTs) *Activities* particularly in the provinces of North Sumatra (including Medan), West, Central and East Java (including Jakarta, Yogyakarta and Surabaya), East Nusa Tenggara (including Kupang and Batam) and Kalimantan (including Pontianak).
Peru *NGO involved* – ***Instituto de Estudios por la Infancia y la Familia*** (IDEIF), Institute for Childhood and Family Studies. *Activities* in Lima, the capital, Ica, Iquitos and other provincial centres.	**Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM)** *NGO involved* – Open Gate/La Strada *Activities* in Skopje (the capital) and other parts of the country.	**Lao** *NGO involved* – **Village Focus International (VFI)** *Activities* in the capital, Vientiane (Viang Chan) and in the south (Champasak and Salavan provinces).

5 Fundación Esperanza, *Estado del Arte sobre la Trata de Niños, Niñas y Adolescentes en los países de Argentina, Bolivia, Brasil, Chile, Colombia y Perú*, Terre des Hommes Switzerland and Fundación Esperanza, Bogotá, 2009.

		Philippines *NGO involved* – **Philippines Against Child Trafficking (PACT)** *Activities* in the capital, Metro Manila, and other areas, notably Davao City, Iligan, Cagayan de Oro Camarines Norte and Zamboanga City.
		Thailand *2 separate NGOs: 1st NGO involved* – **Child Trafficking Watch Thailand (CTWT)** *Activities* in northwest Thailand (Chiang Mai, Chiang Rai, Phayao, Lampang, Nan, Tak and Mae Hong Son); *2nd NGO involved* – **Burma ACT** *Activities* mainly in Mae Sot, (Thailand), among the Burmese expatriate (and refugee) population.
		Vietnam *NGO involved* – **Ho Chi Minh City Child Welfare Foundation** (HCWF). *Activities* primarily in Ho Chi Minh City with partners active in An Giang, Da Nang and Thanh Hoa.

3 METHODS FOR COLLECTING INFORMATION

Terre des Hommes Netherlands commissioned an independent consultant, Mike Dottridge, to collect information about the activities and 'practices' organised as part of this project between 2007 and 2009 and to describe the ones which constituted good practice. The consultant was asked to obtain information from each of the organisations involved in implementing the project, although the precise methods used varied from region to region. The criteria used for assessing whether a particular method were to be categorised as 'good practice' are summarised in Chapter 4.

3.1 A questionnaire for project participants

A two-page questionnaire was sent to all the organisations taking part in the project and also to the two regional coordinators. The text of the questionnaire is reproduced in Appendix 2. The intention was not that every participating organisation should fill in the questionnaire, but rather that each one should provide responses to the consultant, either orally when he visited them or by filling in the questionnaire.

The questionnaire functioned in much the same way as an evaluation instrument in an evaluation. However, the consultant's inquiries did not constitute an evaluation, for his focus was almost entirely on the methods used by participating organisations to achieve certain objectives, rather than on other aspects of their performance.

3.2 Site visits

The author visited five of the 12 countries involved in the project. These were: the three countries involved in Latin America, Bolivia (where he visited Cochabamba and La Paz), Colombia (where he visited both NGOs involved, one in Barranquilla and the other in Bogotá) and Peru (visiting Lima only); one in SE Asia, Thailand, where he visited Chiang Mai and also Mae Sot (to find out about activities there organised by Burma ACT, involving Burmese children); and one in SE Europe, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM), where he visited Skopje and also interviewed the regional coordinator for SE Europe. He had previously visited one of the areas affected by project activities in another of the SE Asian countries, Thanh Hoa in Vietnam, and both the other SE European countries in the project, Albania and Kosovo.

The author had an opportunity to meet representatives of all but one of the other organisations participating in the project at an 'inter-regional' conference in October 2009 in Chiang Mai, Thailand. Unfortunately representatives of an NGO in Kosovo were unable to attend this event, as Kosovo, which had declared itself independent in February 2008, had not been recognised by the Kingdom of Thailand. It was possible to interview one of the managers of the project in Kosovo by telephone, who also provided information by filling in a questionnaire.

The visits to five countries were primarily an opportunity to meet staff of the organisations participating in the project and to interview them about the results of their activities and the effects of the various methods used during the project. In two of the Latin American countries (Bolivia and Colombia) the author had an opportunity to talk to children who were direct beneficiaries of the project (initiatives to provide them with information about human trafficking and related topics). In Mae Sot (Thailand) he met Burmese children who were involved in project activities (theatre performances containing information about trafficking). In seven places visited (two cities in Bolivia, two in Colombia, Lima in Peru, Skopje in the FYROM and Mae Sot in Thailand) the author talked to adults who were impacted by the project in some way, either because children in their community were expected to benefit or because they belonged to groups whose 'capacity' was being 'enhanced', such as teachers (in Colombia), journalists (in Bolivia), social workers (in the FYROM) and government officials (in Bolivia and Peru).

As the project as a whole is focused on children and on stopping children from being trafficked, the author was worried that he had relatively few opportunities during his country visits to hear the views of the children who were intended to be the main beneficiaries of the project. However, he recognised that a foreign consultant may not learn much that would be useful during a short visit by questioning adolescents or younger children who have not met him before. While such encounters generated interesting information when facilitated by someone who was in regular contact with the children concerned (such as a school teacher or a member of staff of an NGO participating in the project), the potential to obtain useful information from young people was relatively limited, as virtually all the project's activities in which children participated involved giving them information about what human trafficking entails and the circumstances in which children are likely to be trafficked. Many of the project activities were oriented towards adults and were intended to improve their ability to protect children. In such cases, it was generally clear that, by the time of the author's visit, the activities concerned would not yet have had much effect that children would have noticed. Evidently, this limited the amount that could be learnt about the effects of the project on children.

3.3 An inter-regional conference where partner organisations could express their views

From 12 to 16 October 2009, representatives of all but one organisation participating in the project attended an inter-regional conference in Chiang Mai (Thailand) to discuss and assess their experiences. This four-and-a-half day event was an opportunity for the author, as well as others, to listen to the views of the participants about the results of their activities and to find out their views on the criteria for assessing a 'good practice', along with

other issues such as what the minimum level for the participation of children in the activities of the project was considered acceptable.

The conference in Chiang Mai was also an opportunity to interview representatives of the organisations in countries which the author did not visit, namely: Albania, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao, Philippines, Thailand and Vietnam.

3.4 The identification of 'good practices' in SE Asia

In one of the three regions, SE Asia, the NGOs involved conducted their own separate exercise to identify and describe good practice some months before Terre des Hommes commissioned the author to write a more global report about good practice. This meant that about half the organisations participating in the project had already had an opportunity to reflect on what constituted good practice and how to document it. Some of the unpublished findings were made available to the author and a publication on good practices was issued by Asia ACTs in October 2009.[6] The process followed by Asia ACTs organisations for identifying good practice is summarised in the next chapter. As some of the organisations in Asia ACTs had found it difficult to write up their findings in English, meeting the author was an opportunity for them to summarise these and ensure that they could be mentioned in the present study.

Figure 1 Participants at the Chiang Mai conference

3.5 Other sources used

Various other publications issued by organisations participating in the project contained useful information about the methods they had used, as well as about their results. Some of these are mentioned later in this study. In addition, the author was able to consult the unpublished activity reports that the project manager had prepared in 2008 and 2009 for the European Commission, covering the first two years of the project's implementation.

6 Asia ACTs, *Aspirations and Explorations: Good Practices of the Campaign against Child Trafficking in Southeast Asia*, Manila, 2009.

4 INTRODUCTION TO THE CONCEPT OF 'GOOD PRACTICE'

This chapter considers what terminology is appropriate for referring to practices which can be recommended for replication by others (4.1), describes the process followed earlier in 2009 by members of the Asia ACTs network for identifying good practice in SE Asia (4.2), and reviews the criteria which should be used in the framework of this study (4.3). It also comments on what can be learned from unsuccessful activities ('questionable' practices) and sets out the standard score card for reporting on the methods that are described.

4.1 Comments on terminology: 'best practice' versus 'good practice', 'promising practice' and 'proven practice'

A wide variety of terms have been used by organisations engaged in efforts to stop human trafficking or to protect and assist the victims of traffickers, to describe methods that they think deserve to be copied by other. These include:

- Best practice;
- Good practice;
- Proven practice;
- Emerging good practice;
- Promising practice.

Evidently the last two of these terms confirms that the method being described is innovative and there are still some questions about whether it really constitutes 'good practice'. A more neutral term, 'lessons learnt', is also used to refer to more general conclusions about methods which are reckoned to be either positive or negative.

In some countries the term 'best practice' has a specific meaning, referring, for example, to the quality of social care. The response of social workers to some situations may be determined by law (for example, they may be required to refer cases of sexual abuse of children to the police or other law enforcement officials), while in other situations they are expected to follow 'best practice' guidelines and have to justify their actions if they chose not to do so. In such situations, the identification of best practice is usually carried out by a professional body at national level and follows a detailed review of the evidence surrounding the effects of a particular method, involving peer review and other scrutiny.

The term 'good practice' is slightly more neutral, implying that it had a positive effect on the people who were intended to benefit. This is consequently the term used in this study. When considering how to assess what constitutes good practice in the context of efforts to stop child trafficking, the participants at Terre des Hommes' conference in Thailand in October 2009 took note of some remarks in a paper prepared for the most recent World Congress against Sexual Exploitation of Children and Adolescents:

> *"The complication is that there are no internationally recognized procedures to follow before a particular service or strategy is labelled a 'good practice', nor has any single organization been given the task of checking what should be labelled as good practice or recognized as a repository for information about good practice. Instead, a multitude of organizations use the term, each following different procedures and standards to conclude what constitutes 'good practice'. The result is that it is difficult to know what 'good practices' have been thoroughly tested and evaluated and in what circumstances they are likely to be replicable with success".*[7]

4.2 The process used in Southeast Asia

In early 2009 the organisations belonging to Asia ACTs took part in an exercise to identify good practice, not only in the context of the project supported by the European Commission, which started in 2007, but in the context of their wider campaign against child trafficking, which got underway earlier in the decade. The results were published in July 2009, with support from the Oak Foundation.

The process involved both internal and external scrutiny. It started with a workshop in Hanoi in October 2008, which identified nine topics in relation to which good practice might be identified (e.g., "capacity building for children, governments, NGOs, civil society" and "child protection network/referral system"). It also identified ten criteria to use in assessing whether a particular method could be labelled good practice. These were that the method was or is:

1. "Implemented from a human rights/child rights perspective;
2. "Encourages participation from wider groups of people (including children and mass media);
3. "Promotes stronger communication and coordination; has good cooperation between government and NGOs; involves collaboration of different groups; involves partnership between different actors; enhances awareness and mobilizes people to action;
4. "Promotes empowerment of community and children;
5. "Shows accountability and transparency;
6. "Demonstrated level of sustainability;
7. "Proven and effective solution to the problem of child trafficking;
8. "Has a solid program framework (clear plan of action, can influence attitude and perception of specific target groups; information collection and analysis; acceptance of services providers towards victims; piloting and identification of factors contributing for replication; has potential for replications);
9. "Has solid policy basis;
10. "Capacity building of service providers (has initiatives to build capacities in communities, government, etc.)".

7 Dottridge, Mike (2008), *Child trafficking for sexual purposes*, A contribution of ECPAT International to the World Congress III against Sexual Exploitation of Children and Adolescents, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, 25-28 November 2008.

This set of criteria was a demanding one. Among its other purposes, it was intended as a quality assurance exercise, to persuade member organisations of Asia ACTs to only describe the methods they had used as 'good practice' if there were objective grounds for doing so. However, scoring an activity against all ten of these criteria seems likely to make it difficult to acknowledge many methods as good practice.

The process that was followed in SE Asia for measuring whether a particular method met these criteria was also demanding. Following the Hanoi workshop, the process proceeded as follows:

1. A 'calls for papers' was issued, i.e., a request for a short abstract about any possible good practice;
2. The abstracts were initially read by a screening committee. The composition of the committee varied from country to country and an attempt was made to involve people who were independent of Asia ACTS. The committee decided which abstracts should be referred to an independent (external) evaluator;
3. A "validation" by evaluators who obtained more information about the method and checked on what evidence was available to support the claims about a method's success (and concluded that some did not meet the criteria adopted or that too little evidence was available);
4. An evaluator was responsible for writing up each example of good practice in more detail;
5. The evaluator's draft was referred back to the relevant country network of Asia ACTs member organisations for further comment;
6. In four cases, the evaluator presented the finalised text to the relevant country network (at workshops in Cambodia, Philippines, Vietnam and by Burma ACT);
7. These texts were submitted to the Asia ACTs secretariat which published a 90-page report entitled *Aspirations and Explorations: Good Practices of the Campaign against Child Trafficking in Southeast Asia*. While nine different themes or topics had been identified initially, the Asia ACTs publication on good practice describes 17 experiences under five headings. The headings used were:
   - Policy advocacy
   - Alliance building
   - Awareness-raising
   - Child protection network
   - Child participation

4.3 Criteria for assessing whether a particular method constitutes good practice in the context of efforts to prevent child trafficking

In contrast with the Asia ACTs report, in the present case, an independent assessor was given the key role of collecting evidence about the methods used and deciding which ones should be mentioned here – although he was guided by comments made by the participating organisations, particularly at their conference in Chiang Mai in October 2009.

In this case, five key points about anti-trafficking methods were considered with respect to each method or practice discussed in this study. This is a much shorter list that the ten points used by Asia ACTs, but also sets a relatively high threshold for calling any particular method a 'good practice'. The five are:

1. **Replicability.** Is the method replicable? i.e., Have the factors which contributed to its success been identified so that it can be replicated elsewhere?
2. **Effectiveness.** Did the method contribute to stopping child trafficking or enabling trafficked children to recover effectively?
3. Linked to the assessment of effectiveness is the need for a wider **assessment of the impact** of a particular method, in particular to check whether it has caused prejudice or harm to the intended beneficiaries or to others. This is sometimes known as the 'Do no harm' principle.
4. **A human rights approach.** Does the method conform with human rights and child rights standards? This includes assessing whether a minimum acceptable level of participation of children has been observed.
5. **Sustainability.** It the practice (or its effects) likely to continue beyond the life of the project during which it was initiated?

Details of questions that were considered in relation to each of these five points are described below. Several of them imply asking more than one specific question. For example, measuring 'replicability' implies checking whether the factors for success have been identified explicitly, as well as checking whether the method has already been replicated successfully. A 'human rights approach' implies that an acceptable standard of child participation was achieved, and so on. In the end, therefore, a 'score card' was developed for commenting on the methods used in the project, which comments on seven specific aspects of each method described. These are:

a. Replicability
b. Explicit identification of factors for success or obstacles
c. Effectiveness
d. Checking the effects, including adverse effects
e. Child participation
f. Sustainability
g. Promoting cooperation

4.3.1 Replicability

The main purpose of categorising a particular method as a 'good practice' is to enable others to replicate the same method in the knowledge that it is likely to have much the same impact and success. It is consequently essential that the factors which encouraged or hindered success should be identified and analysed, so that anyone that is considering replicating the method elsewhere is aware of what factors to look out for, or what preconditions need to be present before attempting to replicate a particular method.

4.3.2 Effectiveness

This term (effectiveness) has been defined as, "The extent to which the development intervention's objectives were achieved, or are expected to be achieved, taking into account their relative importance".[8] In the context of this project, assessing whether a method is effective means acquiring evidence that the method has succeeded in achieving its objective (and thereby contributing

to this project's goal of enhancing the capacity of various target groups to address human trafficking, especially in children, from a human rights perspective).

Possibly the best method for checking on effectiveness is to check later on (e.g., six months or two years after its conclusion), whether the activity or its impact is continuing, or whether it has been forgotten and left no trace. However, during the course of the project which initiates a particular activity or practice (even near the end of the project) it is often too early to confirm whether the practice is going to be continued, although it may be possible to reach a negative conclusion and to suspect that it is not going to be sustained. As the present project has been running for less than three years, it is too early for significant evidence to be available about the long-term impact of most of the methods used (see comments on 'Sustainability' made in 4.3.6 below).

Consequently, comments were sought from individuals who had participated in or benefited from activities in the project. However, no attempt was made to collect evidence about the wider effects of the project's activities on rates of child trafficking, as any evidence that was collected was bound to be incomplete, making the findings questionable. Assessing the impact includes finding out whether activities had any unexpected or even unwanted effects, the subject of the next section.

4.3.3 The 'Do no harm' principle': avoiding adverse effects on human rights

Various publications about methods used to prevent human trafficking (or re-trafficking) or to protect people who have been trafficked have pointed out that some methods cause prejudice or harm to the very people they are intended to benefit or else cause 'collateral damage' to others.[9] For example, if a child is rescued from the clutches of a trafficker, only to be confined to the premises of a residential centre where she or he feels powerless and complains of being treated like a prisoner, the very person who is supposed to be benefiting from an anti-trafficking action ends up experiencing further harm.

This concern was reflected in a principle identified by the United Nations (UN) High Commissioner for Human Rights in 2002, when she recommended that,

> *"Anti-trafficking measures shall not adversely affect the human rights and dignity of persons, in particular the rights of those who have been trafficked, and of migrants, internally displaced persons, refugees and asylum-seekers".[10]*

It would be unrealistic to expect anti-trafficking interventions to cause no harm to anyone – indeed, there is generally a hope that the individuals who traffic and exploit children will suffer some harm – so the principle of proportionality should be applied to assess whether the harmful effects or side-effects are justified.[11]

The principle that measures to stop child trafficking should not cause harm implies that organisations taking action against trafficking should check explicitly whether their interventions are having any harmful effects (particularly if they want to assess whether their intervention can be called 'good practice'). The first priority should be to check whether the intervention or measure concerned is having adverse effects on the very children it set out to benefit. For example, in zealously calling for tougher action by government officials to stop child trafficking, has an NGO unexpectedly precipitated a series of bans or other restrictions on children (for example, travelling to seek work or crossing a border), which cause significant prejudice to children or even to young adults? Or in providing information to parents about the possibility that their teenage daughter might be trafficked, has an NGO provoked some parents into refusing to let their child attend school or otherwise leave the family home? In both cases, the question of the proportionality of a measure needs examining carefully: there might be some circumstances in which draconian restrictions on children could be justified, but on the whole this is unlikely. The most likely appropriate source to consult is the children who have been affected. However, care is needed to ensure that they answer freely and do not feel constrained to voice approval for a measure because they think this is expected of them.

Most of the organisations taking part in the project were aware of the risk that anti-child trafficking measures could cause harm, as well as bring benefits. At their conference in Chiang Mai in October 2009, they mentioned a series of harmful side effects which it was considered important to look out for and avoid. For example, it was clear that in several countries some of the children identified as victims of traffickers ended up being detained instead of protected. To minimise the likelihood of causing harm to potential beneficiaries, conference participants stressed the importance of talking to both children who were effected by their activities and, more specifically, to children who had been trafficked or experienced abuse. However, no particular method was in general use to detect harmful side effects.

4.3.4 A 'human rights approach' in the context of child trafficking

The term "human rights perspective", used in the title of this project, signifies that its activities should be based on a 'human rights approach' and a 'child rights approach'. Evidently child trafficking can be tackled from a number of other perspectives, for example seeing it primarily as a legal issue which requires a criminal justice response, or an economic or a social issue, or

8 DAC (Development Advisory Committee), *Evaluation and Effectiveness, Glossary of Key Terms in Evaluation and Results Based Management*, OECD, Paris, 2002.

9 For example, see The Global Alliance Against Traffic in Women (GAATW), *Collateral Damage. The Impact of Anti-Trafficking Measures on Human Rights Around the World,* Bangkok, 2007.

10 Principle 3, *Recommended Principles and Guidelines on Human Rights and Human Trafficking*, issued by the UN. High Commissioner for *Human Rights in Addendum to the Report of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights to ECOSOC*. UN document E/2002/68/Add.1, 20 May 2002. Accessed (in English) on 4 December 2009 at: http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Press/OHCHR%20Recommended%20Guidelines.pdf

11 On the principle of proportionality, see, for example, an article about the principle in the context of Detention in Europe, which explains that, '"The principle of proportionality is derived from German law, and it first affected EU law in…1970: 'A public authority may not impose obligations on a citizen except to the extent to which they are strictly necessary in the public interest to attain the purpose of the measure'" (accessed on 23 November 2009 at http://www.detention-in-europe.org). In the context of limits which it is acceptable to impose on the right to freedom of movement, see General Comment 27 by the Human Rights Committee, the body set up to monitor the UN International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (UN Document CCPR/C/21/Rev.1/Add.9 of 1999).

even primarily a gender issue which affects girls disproportionately. Tackling it as a legal and criminal issue generally means giving priority to law enforcement responses and neglecting the development of child protection systems which tackle some of the immediate causes of trafficking and the various forms of economic and sexual exploitation for which children are trafficked. Interpreting what a 'human rights approach' means in the context of child trafficking, UNICEF has pointed out that,

> *"The child rights-based approach to trafficking means placing the children at the centre of all trafficking related interventions. The child's best interests need to be given primary consideration in all actions. These should be determined for each child, giving due consideration to his or her views".*[12]

4.3.5 Participation by children

Taking the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child into account means promoting the participation of children in the planning and execution of activities that are intended to protect them (against traffickers or other abuse). The participants at the project's inter-regional conference in Chiang Mai discussed what minimum level of participation was appropriate (not wanting to preclude more participation than this). Referring indirectly to Roger Hart's eight-rung 'Ladder of [child] participation",[13] the participants identified six rungs, running from tokenism at the bottom to full participation at the top:

Table 2 The 'Ladder of child participation'

6	Children make decision themselves
5	Children are actors (e.g., peer educators)
4	Children are part of the decision making process
3	Children are consulted
2	Children receive information
1	Children are not involved (or only in a tokenistic way)

Their conclusion was that it was important to achieve at least rung 3 on this ladder, consulting children, both to find out what their experiences have been and to ask them whether a method that is being planned seems appropriate. In both cases, the highest priority group of children to consult were reckoned to be children who have experienced being trafficked or being in a situation of high risk (i.e., other relevant experience), rather than children or young people in general.

It was also viewed as essential to ensure that, once expressed, children's comments are taken into account. Consequently, when assessing good practice, it is necessary to check how children have participated and whether the participation was meaningful and affected the outcome of a decision-making process.

The reluctance of NGOs as well as governments to promote the participation of children was noted in some observations made recently by the international body which oversees the implementation of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the Committee on the Rights of the Child. In a General Comment (No. 12) on article 12 of the Convention (the child's right to be heard), published in 2009, the Committee notes that, "certain groups of children, including younger boys and girls, as well as children belonging to marginalized and disadvantaged groups, face particular barriers in the realization of this right [to be heard]". The Committee encouraged States "to consult with children in the development and implementation of legislative, policy, educational and other measures to address all forms of violence" and to pay "particular attention…to ensuring that marginalized and disadvantaged children, such as exploited children, street children or refugee children, are not excluded from consultative processes designed to elicit views on relevant legislation and policy processes".[14] While the recommendations in the General Comment are addressed primarily at States, this encouragement also needs to be taken into account by NGOs when designing measures to protect children. It implies that methods used to stop trafficking or to assist children who have been trafficked should either involve or encourage the participation of children who are the subject of the method, i.e., children who have already been trafficked or children who are known to be at disproportionately higher risk of being trafficked than others.

4.3.6 Sustainability

A common view expressed at the inter-regional conference in Chiang Mai was that anti-trafficking methods should have a longer duration or effect than that of the project during which they are introduced: unless, that is, it is clear that they have a one-off impact and do not need to be continued.

Efforts intended directly to stop trafficking or to build the capacity of other agencies to prevent trafficking or to protect and assist children who have been trafficked inevitably cost money. Consequently it is probably unreasonable to require that a 'good practice' should be replicable without costing anything. On the other hand, if an activity is extremely costly, it is unlikely to be replicated, however effective it proves. Sustainability is therefore linked to the (economic) efficiency of a measure. This does not necessarily imply that a measure must be cheap to be sustainable, for a programme to enable trafficked children to recover which is relatively expensive per trafficked child but which proves effective would be both more efficient and more sustainable than a cheaper programme with is less effective. Once again, it means measuring its long-term impact rather than looking at it from a short-term perspective.

Sustainability is linked to the ability and inclination of local actors to continue with a particular measure after project-specific fun-

12 UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre (2008), *A Broad Vision to Put Children First. Child Trafficking in Europe*, UNICEF Insight, Florence, page 40. A previous joint publication by Terre des Hommes and UNICEF point out that, "Practically speaking, a human rights approach places people, in this case the children who have been or might be trafficked, at centre stage and assesses strategies on the basis of their impact on those individuals. The approach involves identifying the vulnerabilities of individuals or groups of persons to trafficking, analysing who is accountable to protect them and recommending what measures are required to ensure that human rights will be upheld and protected more effectively." Terre des Hommes and UNICEF, *Action to Prevent Child Trafficking in South Eastern Europe. A Preliminary Assessment,* Geneva, 2006.

13 Hart, Roger, *Children's Participation: From Tokenism to Citizenship*. Innocenti Essays No. 4, UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre, Florence, 1992.

14 Committee on the Rights of the Child, General Comment No. 12 (2009), *The right of the child to be heard*, UN Document CRC/C/GC/12, 1 July 2009, paragraphs 4 and 118.

ding runs out. Do they think it is worth funding from other sources? If so, how hard are they willing to work to secure new funding?

Sustainability also implies that the method used entails a transfer of knowledge or know-how, so that local actors can use it without needing further training or support from outside. Methods which receive the support of the community where they are practised seem more likely to be sustained than those which are donor driven, imposed on a community from outside and which do not acquire popular legitimacy.

One way of finding out whether an action is likely to be sustained is to ask the organisations involved about their intentions to continue with it. As suggested earlier, another is to check later on (months or even years later), whether the activity or its impact is continuing, or whether it has left no trace. During the author's visits to various project sites, the best that could be done was to ask about the intentions of the organisations involved in the future. In numerous cases they wanted to continue with particular activities, but were unsure that they would be able to obtain the funds to do so.

In the case of the practices reviewed in this study, few had been the subject of formal evaluation and this study was prepared before the project ended, so sustainability and impact were difficult to assess.

4.3.7 Other criteria

Other approaches which are said by some observers to be hallmarks of good practice include:

1. Promoting cooperation with other organisations, on the grounds that, in order to organise effective anti-trafficking action, it is almost always essential to work with other organisations;
2. Linked to the question of cooperation, charting the contributions of different initiatives that help stop child trafficking in order to avoid duplication and promote cooperation;
3. Basing the practice on an understanding of the social and economic realities of the places from which people who are trafficked originate and where they end up.

A variety of other criteria or terms are also mentioned for use in peer reviews or other assessments of good practice. These include:

- An empowering approach (i.e., in the case of children, reinforcing their 'agency' to make decisions for themselves and to influence the future course of their lives);
- Encouraging participation of other stakeholders, as well as children;
- Gender sensitivity;
- Innovation.

Among these criteria, it was only the issue of 'promoting cooperation' that the author concluded was critical (and therefore appropriate to include among the other criteria used to assess methods, listed from 4.3.1 to 4.3.6).

4.4 Questionable practices

In contrast to methods which could legitimately be described as good practice, organisations engaged in efforts to stop trafficking (whether of adults or children or both) have also tried out a wide range of other methods, some of which did not have the intended effect and a few of which actually caused harm to the very people they were intended to benefit or to others who suffered what can be called 'collateral damage'. Learning what these questionable or harmful methods are is clearly important (perhaps more important than identifying good practice). Few of the organisations which have organised anti-trafficking activities over the past decade want to give much publicity to experiences which were not successful, although it would undoubtedly be helpful to others to hear what the methods were and why they proved inappropriate. This study does not focus attention on all the lessons learnt by this project. However, by the third year of the project, as in all projects, managers at various levels had drawn conclusions about what they would prefer to do differently if they found themselves at the beginning of the project again.

One particular consideration concerns the scope of the activities that it was appropriate to organise under the terms of this project. In several countries, where NGOs had received information from UN institutions about both human trafficking and people smuggling, the NGOs included the issue of people smuggling in their activities (involving migrants crossing international borders illicitly, with the support of intermediaries who 'smuggle' people but do not intend to traffic them into any form of exploitation), as well as trafficking. In some ways this seemed unavoidable in Latin America, because of a confusing use of language. The term '*tráfico'* was widely used in the region prior to 2000 to refer to human trafficking, as well as smuggling drugs and other commodities.[15] However, when the UN adopted two protocols in 2000 (both linked to a new UN Convention on Transnational Organized Crime), one concerned with human trafficking and the other with people smuggling, the Spanish version used the word *'tráfico'* to refer to people smuggling and a different word, *'trata'*, to refer to human trafficking. Understandably, whenever either of the topics is raised with members of the public, it is necessary to explain what it refers to. Further, in several countries, government institutions set up at the instigation of UN organisations address both issues – human trafficking and people smuggling – at the same time.

However, by putting an emphasis on efforts to stop people smuggling, as well as human trafficking, NGOs have to think carefully whether they are simply being consistent with the framework offered by the UN Convention on Transnational Organized Crime, or whether there is a danger that they are being co-opted into advocating measures against migration that are not necessarily in the best interests of children. Governments evidently advocate measures against people smuggling as they consider irregular immigration to be a threat against national security – not because the human rights of irregular migrants are endangered. In contrast, by definition human trafficking involves exploiting and

15 For instance, the term *'tráfico'* was included in the Spanish version of a previous multilateral treaty at regional level, the *Inter-American Convention on International Traffic in Minors*, adopted in 1994 by the Organization of American States.

probably abusing the individuals concerned (or an intention to do so). So, while it is safe to assume that supporting efforts to stop children from being trafficked is in the best interests of children, supporting measures to stop children (or adults) from resorting to irregular migration may not be in their best interests.

4.5 The format for summarising information about 'good practice' and relevant lessons learnt about it

As indicated earlier, at the beginning of section 4.3, to make it easier to follow the analysis of good practice in the sections below from Chapter 5 onwards, this study uses a standard format for reporting on the experience of each specific method, consisting of seven criteria.

Each criterion has been scored by the author with a slightly simplistic '✓', '×' or '?'. These symbols mean:

'✓' : the activity met this criterion for good practice
'×' : the activity did not meet this criterion (or, at least, not yet);
'?' : it is unclear whether the activity met this criterion, often because it is too early to judge.

This method of scoring is simplistic, in that the correct score on some criteria is not a black or white all or nothing ('✓' or '×'), but a point somewhere in between. However, no attempt has been made to grade individual criteria in such detail. So, for example, the score card on a particular method might look like this:

Table 3 Standard score sheet for good practice

a. Replicability	?
b. Explicit identification of factors for success or obstacles	×
c. Effectiveness	✓
d. Checking the effects, including adverse effects	×
e. Child participation	✓
f. Sustainability	×
g. Promoting cooperation	✓

Whenever adequate evidence is available about a particular method to measure most of the seven criteria, a score card is included after a description of the method used. In several cases a method is described, which is certainly interesting, but insufficient information was available to assess it against these criteria. In such cases, no score card is included.

5 FINDING OUT THE FACTS

Although the collection of evidence about patterns of human trafficking or child trafficking was not a specific activity of the project and no resources were allocated for research to find out whether children were being trafficked in a particular country or area, the project did involve giving information about child trafficking to a variety of audiences. It was consequently desirable to obtain up-to-date details to ensure that information provided to children or adults described what was happening in their communities accurately, rather than basing information materials on a purely theoretical interpretation of what human trafficking entails, as such interpretations have routinely misrepresented what happens in particular places. The importance of basing efforts to stop child trafficking on evidence (rather than supposition or hearsay) was recognised at the conference in Chiang Mai in October 2009.

5.1 The need for accurate information

Projects to prevent child trafficking or to increase the ability of organisations to respond to child trafficking can, in theory, be organised anywhere, including places where no children are known to have been trafficked. For reasons of efficiency and effectiveness, it therefore seems essential that such projects start with (or be preceded by) an effort to collect evidence about patterns of abuse and exploitation experienced by children. An International Labour Organization (ILO) anti-trafficking project on 'Trafficking in Women and Children' (TICW) in SE Asia, which operated from 2000 until 2008, commented that:

> *"The reality is that human trafficking is not just an issue of sexual exploitation but a social development problem closely related to the economies and labour markets of the sub-region and the exploitation of vulnerable people confronted with these realities. It is, in many cases, linked to deeply rooted habits relating to work and the movement of people. Any analysis of trafficking consequently has to include an understanding of the social and economic realities of the places from which people originate, where they end up and the environment in which they find themselves, and how they arrived there."* [16]

A report about good practice in the context of this ILO project consequently concluded that:

> *"TICW's work has proved that the key to eliminating human trafficking lies in understanding – in all its detail and shifting nuance – what 'vulnerability' means, and in acting to protect against these vulnerabilities in the labour migration process. It is significant that vulnerability is not a fixed state; it varies over time, according to circumstances and can increase, even for example, when people become more educated or have more disposable income."* [17]

5.1.1 Methods for obtaining evidence

Some of the organisations involved in the project also run residential centres for children or adults who have been trafficked, or provide services to them. Consequently they had first-hand access to the experience of such young people and were able to use this as a basis for the public information materials that they prepared.

However, a few had no privileged access to evidence about actual trafficking cases. In this instance getting hold of relevant evidence was considered important, but the publications of governments and inter-governmental organisations about patterns of trafficking around the world[18] were not reckoned to contain sufficiently accurate or up-to-date information to rely on. Commenting on possible sources, participants at the Chiang Mai conference in October 2009 pointed out that it was important to respect the right to privacy of anyone whose experience was a source for information that was to be presented to other people, even if the cases mentioned were to be anonymous, ensuring that no identifying details were included. They suggested acquiring information by observation (in places where trafficked children might be found), talking to groups of children who might know of relevant cases (such as street children or child beggars) and also consulting other organisations which are in contact with children who have been trafficked. A key point is that many potential useful sources of information do not use the term 'trafficked' or 'trafficking' to refer to young people who have in fact been trafficked.

One extra benefit of collecting information about children who have already been trafficked is that it makes it possible to build up a profile of such children. Such profiles identify characteristics concerning the identity, location or previous experiences of trafficked children (for example, experience of particular forms of abuse), which may be factors that made them disproportionately more likely to be trafficked than other children from a similar background. These are the 'vulnerabilities' to which ILO's TICW project referred above.

The term 'vulnerable' is often used to refer to groups of children who are believed to be at greater risk of abuse than others, such as unaccompanied or separated children who are in a country

16 ILO Mekong Sub-regional Project to Combat Trafficking in Children and Women, *Meeting the Challenge: Proven practices for human trafficking prevention in the Greater Mekong Sub-region*, International Labour Organization, Bangkok, 2008, page 7.

17 *Ibid.*

18 Such as the *Trafficking in Persons* report issued by the United State Department of State in July each year or the UNODC's *Global Report on Trafficking in Persons*, issued in February 2009.

other than their own and internally displaced children. But the participants at the Chiang Mai conference observed that it was often possible to be more specific and to identify children at particularly 'high risk' of being trafficked, who could be the subject of specific, targeted prevention efforts.

5.2 Information issued during the project about specific cases or patterns of trafficking

In Latin America, the project resulted in two different types of publication about trafficking patterns. At regional level, an NGO based in Colombia which has been responding to the needs of trafficked women on their return to Colombia, the *Fundación Esperanza*, prepared a 95-page directory about the organisations involved in anti-trafficking initiatives in six Latin American countries and a summary of the main responses to human trafficking in these countries (the three involved in the project and three others, Argentina, Brazil and Chile), whether these were initiated by the government or others.[19] The report contains a three-page table summarising information available about patterns of trafficking in each of the six countries. While such summaries give some idea on what sorts of cases arise in different places, they are not usually detailed enough to base public information materials on them.

Figure 2 Peru. Trafficking routes, according to victims

In one of the three countries, Peru, an NGO that works closely with relevant specialist police units, the *Instituto de Estudios por la Infancia y la Familia* (IDEIF), prepared a detailed 90-page report on patterns of trafficking, which was published jointly with Peru's Anti-Trafficking Police, known as DIVINTRAPP.[20] This contained some general information about what constitutes a case of human trafficking. The key section of 18 pages describing seven trafficking cases. One involved transnational trafficking (from Colombia to Peru) and all the others involved internal or domestic trafficking within Peru. The cases occurred in 2008 or early 2009 and the anonymous details were made available to IDEIF by the police. Six of the seven cases involved children being trafficked (the remaining case involved adult women). The report includes maps showing the movement involved,[21] a visual summary of the places a trafficked person was moved between, which are helpful in understanding the specifics of a case.

The number of people trafficked in each case varied. For example, the second case cited involved "the rescue of 18 women who were victims of sex trafficking and the arrest of seven traffickers, one of them a man and six women".[22] However, it was the last case cited which attracted most attention when IDEIF used the book to explain to school teachers what human trafficking was about, for two women teachers had been implicated personally in this trafficking case in December 2008, involving two adolescents and one 11-year-old girl being brought to be exploited in Lima, from Huancayo and Huancavelica in the Andes. In this case, the audience's receptivity was undoubtedly due to their shock at learning that professional colleagues could also act as traffickers!

Table 4 Score card for a publication on trafficking patterns in Peru

a. Replicability	✓
b. Explicit identification of factors for success or obstacles	✓
c. Effectiveness	✓
d. Checking the effects, including adverse effects	×
e. Child participation	×
f. Sustainability	?
g. Promoting cooperation	✓

The score card reflects the fact that the report was only issued in May 2009, so its long-term impact is not clear. Evidently children contributed by giving information to the police. However, in itself this cannot be interpreted as 'child participation' and it would be useful to obtain some feedback from the young people involved (who talked to the police), both to know what they felt about the police action that concerned them and what they felt about the way their experiences were reflected in the report. On the issue of sustainability, it is difficult to score a one-off publication. The cases which occurred in 2008 and 2009 contain some lessons which will still be relevant in future years, but new reports (which can be compared to this one) will be needed to highlight trafficking patterns in future years, which are likely to be different.

19 Fundación Esperanza, *Estado del Arte sobre la Trata de Niños, Niñas y Adolescentes en los países de Argentina, Bolivia, Brasil, Chile, Colombia y Perú* [The State of the Art on Child Trafficking in Argentina,Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia and Peru], Terre des Hommes Suisse and Fundación Esperanza, Bogotá, 2009.

20 Soria Mendoza, Sandra, assisted by Dr José Alvarado de la Fuente and PNP Major Rubén Lescana Cuya, *Las rutas de la trata de personas desde sus victimas* [Human trafficking routes, according to the victims], IDEIF & *División de Investigación de delitos de trata de personas* (DIVINTRAP-PNP), Division for Investigating Trafficking in Persons, Lima, May 2009. DIVINTRAP is a part of the Peruvian National Police's (*Policía Nacional del Perú* - PNP) *Dirección de Investigación Criminal y Apoyo a la Justicia* (Directorate for Criminal Investigation and Support for Justice).

21 The map in the Figure collates all the information available about trafficking routes. It appears on page 22 of Sandra Soria Mendoza's publication and is followed by maps relating to specific cases.

22 *Ibid*., page 29.

6 PROVIDING CHILDREN, PARENTS AND COMMUNITIES WITH INFORMATION AND ADVICE

This chapter describes a range of activities that involved providing the public with information about human trafficking (or specifically about child trafficking). In some cases this was general information broadcast to the public as a whole, while in others it was aimed at specific groups, such as school children or children who were known to be at high risk of being trafficked.

These activities were referred to in the project as 'awareness raising', although some organisations refer to most of the activities described in this chapter as 'community education'. Many anti-trafficking programmes around the world have set out to 'raise awareness' over the past decade and such activities have achieved notoriety among anti-trafficking practitioners because they seem to be a bottomless pit into which more and more information can be poured or into which information can be poured for new and wider audiences, without necessarily measuring the benefit or assessing the possible undesirable side effects. Partly for this reason, the organisations in one region in this project, SE Europe, organised relatively few activities under this heading, reckoning that they are now largely unnecessary in a region where the public has been saturated with films and other publicity about human trafficking (particularly trafficking for the purpose of sexual exploitation). However, providing information to young people can be a way of empowering them, if it is accurate and relevant and if the young people concerned have not previously received similar information.

6.1 Essentials for public information to be effective

NGOs in the project felt that it was preferable for any public information about trafficking to be based on evidence available from cases occurring in their country or the area where the information was to be distributed (see 5.1 above on 'The need for accurate information'). However, this presupposed that they had access to such information, which was not always the case. They also felt that, in most instances, the information they distributed should cover more than just the topic of trafficking and should mention other related and relevant issues, such as other forms of child exploitation or abuse. This in turn presupposes that they knew what related issues were relevant for the audiences they planned to influence.

6.1.1 Issues to mention other than trafficking

In selecting audiences to provide with information, the organisations participating in the project considered to whom it might be helpful to give information, where, and on what topics. The specific audiences which they set out to influence are mentioned later. The question of 'where' information should be provided depended on what information was available to NGOs about the places of origin of children who had already been trafficked or were considered to be at high risk (of being trafficked). In the city of Barranquilla, for example, on Colombia's Caribbean coast, Renacer decided to target the community of Soledad, a relatively new township situated southeast of Barranquilla, where the majority of the inhabitants have been displaced from other parts of Colombia (as a result of the country's long-running armed conflict). Internal displacement was reckoned to make children in Soledad relatively more vulnerable to being trafficked and, particularly in the case of girls, to being persuaded to provide sex in return for money.

When talking to either children or adults in general, most of the NGOs participating in the project reckoned that it was not appropriate to focus narrowly on child trafficking, but also to touch on other forms of abuse reported to be occurring in the community concerned. In some cases (e.g., communities in Indonesia), before talking about the risk that children might be trafficked and about ways of protecting children, NGOs felt it was vital to talk to community leaders about children's rights in general, explaining the relevance of listening to children's views and the way in which children could participate themselves in child protection initiatives. In Barranquilla, where Renacer's staff encountered high levels of homophobia, they reckoned it was also important to address this topic. Likewise, they concluded that a range of topics needed mentioning alongside trafficking and the commercial sexual exploitation of children, such as the right of children to decide what happens to their own bodies (closely linked to messages about sexual abuse and sexual exploitation), the use or selling of drugs, and alcohol abuse.

Almost by definition, finding out what topics are relevant in a particular community means listening to members of the community about their worries and the main risks to children that they think need tackling. Two messages which organisations in the project drew from such consultations were that it is important to,

- Avoid pretending that you know everything and that the community knows nothing; and
- Start by helping children to understand themselves and the forces operating around them.[23]

6.1.2 Piloting public information

There is a risk that information prepared about human trafficking will be misunderstood by members of the public or that they interpret the message in a poster or television spot in ways which the authors did not intend. For this reason, the importance of testing information materials is routinely emphasised, although the small budgets for producing materials made this difficult.

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23 In contrast to the approach towards communities, it was reckoned reasonable to provide professionals (such as police, prosecutors, judges, social workers and health workers) with much more specific information about human trafficking, referring to the UN Trafficking Protocol and other technical standards developed at international level or in other regions. See chapters 8 and 9 for more details on information given to professionals.

6.2 General information for the public

Although the use of untargeted information about human trafficking has been criticised by some practitioners, all seven of the Asia ACTs organisations in SE Asia reported that having a specific day in the year on which they could focus the attention of both the general public and specific individuals (such as members of the government or of a particular profession) on the issue of child trafficking was extremely useful. The date used in most of the seven countries is 12 December, the date when the UN Trafficking Protocol was first signed in Palermo in 2000. In part this is because marking the date in one country has allowed Asia ACTs members in other countries in the same region to lobby government officials in their own country and point to what happens in neighbouring countries as a justification for the authorities in their own country to mark this date in some concerted way. Building this mutual accountability between countries (which tends to result in a degree of competition between them) has been a feature of anti-trafficking work in SE Asia, particularly when the States involved belong to a single regional organisation that has made anti-trafficking commitments. Five of the seven countries where Asia ACTs is present (Burma, Cambodia, Lao, Thailand and Vietnam) belong to an anti-trafficking regional organisations called the *Coordinated Mekong Ministerial Initiative against Trafficking* (COMMIT).

In November 2006 the Philippines' President issued a proclamation that 12 December would be marked each year as a Day against Trafficking. In Cambodia, the Prime Minister decided in December 2007 that 12 December should be a National Day against Trafficking and in other countries events to mark the annual day have received substantial backing.

Some of the activities organised around 12 December each year could be categorised as 'softening up' an audience so that people become more receptive to messages about child trafficking or human trafficking later on. For example, in Thanh Hoa, a coastal tourism area southeast of Hanoi (Vietnam), a march for children has been organised each December since 2003. In neighbouring Lao, by December 2008 Village Focus International (VFI) had persuaded international organisations (such as UNICEF) and also the Lao Youth Union (affiliated to the one-party state) to mark 12 December as 'International Day against Human Trafficking'. While VFI started the initiative, other organisations seemed keen to help replicate it. By 12 December 2008 children were involved and the events received government patronage, with the Vice Prime Minister attending. The publicity and activities that were organised received national coverage.

The general theme which Asia ACTs chose for 12 December 2008 was "Children Speak Out against Trafficking", so a special emphasis was put on the role of young people and the importance of allowing them to express their views. In Mae Sot (Thailand), Burma ACT mobilised 120 children and young people who took part in the planning, implementation and evaluation of publicity events. In Indonesia, a three-day 'National Children's Summit' was held in December 2008, organised by *Sekretariat Anak Merdeka Indonesia* (SAMIN), Secretariat for the Independent Indonesian Child, in the village of Keban Agung (Bantul District in Yogyakarta, south central Java). It was attended by representatives of children's groups from ten provinces where Indonesia ACTs is active. During the summit, 24 participants drafted a ten-point declaration against child trafficking entitled "Children's Voice against Child Trafficking". This was adopted by the summit as a whole and contained recommendations for government officials, parents and young people, urging, for example, that "law enforcers should open a 24 hours (a day) service, improve the security in areas at risk of child trafficking, improve the awareness of law enforcers to respond to reports from the community and give information and education on child trafficking to the community". The declaration was handed over by children to Queen Gusti Kanjeng Ratu Hemas, the wife of the Sultan of Yogyakarta.[24]

The activities organised around 12 December vary from country to country, but a general score can be made for the idea that a specific day each year should provide a focus both for publicity about child trafficking and related activities.

Table 5 Score card for marking 12 December as 'Anti Child Trafficking Day'

a. Replicability	✓
b. Explicit identification of factors for success or obstacles	✓
c. Effectiveness	✓
d. Checking the effects, including adverse effects	✗
e. Child participation	✓
f. Sustainability	✓
g. Promoting cooperation	✓

Some of the effects of marking 12 December are well understood. However, possible side effects still need to checked, both of the activities which are organised on 12 December and of the fact that 12 December was chosen, rather than any other date in the year (when the UN, for example, marks 2 December as its annual day against 'contemporary forms of slavery', including human trafficking).

6.3 Reaching schools and school children

Schoolchildren were a priority target for information about human trafficking in two out of the three regions involved in the project: Latin America and SE Asia.

When *Renacer* initiated its first activities in Colombia in Atlántico and Sucre in 2007, it already had substantial experience of providing young people in other parts of the country with information warning them about the risk of commercial sexual exploitation, notably in the city of Cartagena, a tourist resort situated a hundred kilometres southwest on the same Caribbean coast. However, Colombia is a highly militarised society where few government agencies feel under any obligation to take much notice of civil

24 The area is the only pre-colonial monarchy which remains in power in a particular part of Indonesia and the Sultan is governor of Yogyakarta province and also a member of Indonesia's House of Representatives.

society or NGOs, so in each new city or area that is approached it is necessary to contact relevant local officials and find out how receptive they are to coordinating activities concerning human trafficking with others.

While *Renacer* recognised that its work and ability to get access to children who might be at significantly high risk of abuse would be strengthened by establishing links with various government-run institutions, such as the *Instituto Colombiano de Bienestar Familiar* (ICBF), Colombian Institute for Family Welfare, and the local Prosecutor's Office (Fiscalía) among others, *Renacer* staff nevertheless made a strategic choice to invest in building a relationship with the Education Service in the five municipalities where the project was being implemented (so that they would be allowed to visit schools in the area and provide information both to school teachers and directly to children). The result was a series of formal agreements (*convénios*) signed with the Education Service, allowing *Renacer* staff access to schools and school children in the area.

Figure 3 Barranquilla port (Colombia)

The next challenge was to decide on which schools (i.e., in which communities) and age groups to target and what information to provide. The NGO consulted the statistical information it already had in its possession about where cases of sexual exploitation had been reported, checking which districts had seen disproportionately high rates of children expelled from school for sexual abuse and which schools were situated in these areas. *Renacer* staff also checked the local press (which they had started monitoring), as published newspaper reports gave some indication of what sort of trafficking-related cases were occurring in the vicinity.

In general, *Renacer* staff built on their previous experience of providing information about sexual exploitation and sexual abuse (although their previous experience had not involved explicitly mentioning the issue of human trafficking).

In terms of the age groups to contact, *Renacer* staff decided to focus on 'youth leaders' in schools and to develop their ability to act as peer-to-peer information disseminators (and counsellors) with other children of their same age. For example, in the *Institución Educativa Distrital José Martí*, a school in Barranquilla, the students who were provided with information were Grade 5 (i.e., Year 5) students. *Renacer* staff made their first approach to the school by contacting the head teacher (the Rector) and looked for a key teacher who could be their contact person over several years, usually someone involved in teaching values or a school psychologist.

In terms of the content of information presented to school children, *Renacer* built on its prior experience:

- that children want to talk about what they have seen on television recently;
- that (in Colombia) they are particularly worried by violence, including gender-based violence; and
- that they want to avoid being stigmatised or appearing out of the ordinary to others of the same age.

This suggested that it was not necessary to explain to young people the legal definition of human trafficking or how it differs from people smuggling (which they found that many UN publicity materials stressed), but to convey the reality of the threats, abuse and exploitation they might suffer.

A variety of schools were selected where teachers and children were provided with information, such as the *Colegio Calixto Álvarez*, on the north side of Soledad (in an area called 'Las Nieves'), the township where the majority of the population have been internally displaced from other parts of Colombia. *Calixto Álvarez* is located in an area where households generally have a low income and it is consequently a priority for the school to provide various forms of support to children and their families, for example monitoring students' health and providing them with a morning meal (as students who attend school in the morning routinely arrive at school without having eaten any breakfast).[25] School teachers at this school noted how important it was for Renacer to provide students with information covering a range of issues, including the dangers of drugs and prostitution. As in other parts of Latin America where the project provided school children with information (for example, in suburbs of Cochabamba, Bolivia), Las Nieves is an area with a significant incidence of sexual abuse of adolescent girls by their fathers (or incest involving other boys or men in the family), so it is regarded as vital to provide students with explanations of what constitutes sexual abuse and sexual exploitation and how young people should react if they experience either.

One of the lessons learnt by *Renacer* staff is that it is preferable to make a series of repeat visits to the same school and same children and to develop a relationship with them, rather than trying to visit more schools and talking to large audiences only once. Being effective, therefore, is not just about having an impressive poster or film to show young people, but about appearing interested in their lives and developing their trust.

25 In this school, as in other state-run schools in the same area, different students attend the school during the morning and afternoon sessions. For example, primary school age students attend in the morning and secondary school students attend in the afternoon.

Table 6 Score card for public information activities in schools on Colombia's Caribbean coast

Criterion	Score
a. Replicability	✓
b. Explicit identification of factors for success or obstacles	✓
c. Effectiveness	?
d. Checking the effects, including adverse effects	×
e. Child participation	✓
f. Sustainability	✓
g. Promoting cooperation	×

Like most public information activities, *Renacer's* activities in schools are based on an assumption that, once informed of the risk of sexual exploitation or other abuse, young people are less likely to experience such abuse. This requires checking in the future, preferably a year or more after school children have been given some information. Until an impact assessment of this sort is carried out, it will remain difficult to be sure whether the activities are effective. In this case, the activities evidently required some cooperation between the NGO and both the Education Service and the staff of specific schools. However, this was not supplemented by cooperation with, for example, other child protection specialists, even though *Renacer* staff would probably have liked to bring this about.

6.4 The enigma for best practice: how broad should the information for children (or adults) be?

Renacer's experience in providing information to school students in the Barranquilla area is relatively typical, in that it raised the question of what the subject matter should be when children are told about human trafficking.

In some of the other areas where the project provided school children with information, NGOs were aware that trafficking cases had occurred or that a disproportionately high incidence of specific forms of abuse was occurring, such as sexual abuse or exploitation.

Working in a few neighbourhoods of Usme, a poor district situated on the southern edge of Bogotá, *Corporación Sinapsis*, the Sinapsis Corporation, was relatively familiar with the community and its children when it embarked in 2007 on efforts to tell both parents and children about trafficking. However, no cases had yet been reported in Usme of children or adults being trafficked. Did this mean that public information activities about trafficking were unnecessary or meaningless? Not necessarily, for the fact that the community was not familiar with the word 'trafficking' did not mean that young people were not being recruited in Usme and taken elsewhere to exploit them, either in prostitution or various forms of forced labour, or that cases of exploitation were not occurring in Usme itself.

Figure 4 An overview of Usme, Bogota (Colombia)

Sinapsis' knowledge of social and economic problems in Usme was based largely on what young people told its staff while attending a community centre in Usme established by *Sinapsis,* known as the *Golosa* Centre. They surveyed just over 40 the children and adolescents attending the centre and found out that:

- 70 per cent said they had no idea what human trafficking was and only 10 per cent had a well informed idea;
- 56.4 per cent did not know what constitutes child abuse (*maltrato infantil*), while 17.9 per cent interpreted this to refer exclusively to physical ill-treatment (beatings, etc.), rather than also to include other forms of abuse. One child thought it was an acceptable way of correcting young children;
- 66.6 per cent said they did not know what constituted sexual abuse, while 33.4 per cent thought sexual abuse was the same thing as rape.

These findings and other comments made by young people suggested that children were particularly worried about the following forms of abuse:

- Parents abandoning their children, particularly babies;
- Violence within the family;
- Ill-treatment or neglect of children;
- Sexual violence and sexual abuse;
- Abuse in general.

Later on, through talking to young people, *Sinapsis* was able to estimate that about half of them had had some personal experience of sexual abuse (such as adults touching their genitals, adults offering them money in exchange for sexual favours or simply hearing from others about cases in which mothers or aunts had been subjected to sexual abuse).

Prefacing its awareness raising activities with a survey, albeit on a small-scale, to find out about children's experiences and perceptions was clearly sensible. *Sinapsis'* conclusion was that it would be appropriate to organise a general public information campaign in Usme about the ill-treatment, abuse and trafficking/smuggling of children in general (*maltrato, abuso y tráfico de niños, niñas y jóvenes*), rather than focusing narrowly on child trafficking. It is too early to assess the impact of the campaign, but it was developed on foundations which represent good practice.

Figure 5 Public information used by the Sinapsis Corporation in Usme (Colombia)

Perhaps surprisingly, none of the organisations involved in this project which provided children with information about trafficking or other abuse reached the conclusion that they should be providing young people with information that was rather more empowering, i.e., giving them knowledge or skills which would enable them to avoid abuse or minimise the likelihood that they would become victims, rather than concentrating on information about the types of abuse they might encounter. In parts of SE Europe, for example, various child rights organisations concluded several years ago that it was a priority to teach 'life skills' to children who belong to any categories of young people known to be more likely to be trafficked than others. This changes the approach to school children from one of 'awareness raising' to one of 'education for life'.[26] So far, however, insufficient evidence is available to be sure that children who have acquired life skills are significantly less likely to be trafficked than children from the same background who have not.

26 Dottridge, Mike, *Action to prevent child trafficking in South Eastern Europe. A Preliminary Assessment*, UNICEF and the Terre des Hommes Foundation, Geneva, 2006. See Glossary for an explanation of what 'life skills' are.

7 INFLUENCING THE MEDIA

A variety of standards for reports in the media featuring child-ren have been developed at international level, for example by UNICEF[27] and the International Federation of Journalists (IFJ).[28] Nevertheless, printed articles and other news items (radio, television and electronic media) continue to cause distress to individual children (for example by revealing their identity when they or their parents do not wish it to be disclosed to the public), or to groups of children (for example when publishing disparaging remarks about street children or independent child migrants).

The project set out to monitor the quality of media reports, particularly reports published in newspapers, and to improve the quality of these reports. Different methods to influence journalists were tried out in separate places.

7.1 Measuring the quality of journalists' reports about child trafficking

There is nothing new about child rights organisations reading newspaper articles with a critical eye or setting out to make media reports that refer to children more 'child friendly'. However, most organisations that monitor reports in the media go about this task independently, without seeking to use a standard system for monitoring. To begin with, this was also the approach adopted in this project – each NGO developing its own system for monitoring and assessing the appropriateness (or inappropriateness) of a published article. Nonetheless, in SE Europe a standard system was developed which could now potentially be replicated in other parts of the world to assess newspaper articles and other media reports about cases of both child trafficking and other forms of child abuse.

7.1.1 A practical tool: a scale developed in Southeast Europe

After realising that some of the NGOs which had agreed to monitor the quality of newspaper articles in SE Europe did not have a clear idea on what to look out for or how to analyse newspaper articles, a "Grading system for press reviews" was drafted. This requires the person who assesses and grades a particular news-paper or magazine article to analyse the article on four points – structure, objectivity, child rights perspective and iconography (use of photographs or pictures) – and to score these on a scale of 1 to 5.

Table 7 The Grading System used in SE Europe for assessing newspaper articles

The vertical axis refers to scores, i.e., how the article meets each standard outlined on the horizontal axis.

Score Standards	1 (lowest)	2	3	4	5 (highest)
#1 Structure					
#2 Objectivity					
#3 Child rights perspective					
# 4 Iconography					

To help analysts make objective assessments and grade articles in a standard way in all three countries, the following questions were considered key ones to ask about each article (see table 8) .

Table 8 Key questions for grading newspaper articles in SE Europe

Standard #1 Structure	• Is it a good article? • The article presents a comprehensive picture (correct/ distorted) of the situation in your country and/or region? • Does it explain the context of the problem? • Does it link the theme of the report to a bigger picture? It leads from a specific case to a general one? • Does it provide all the most important info on the topics? • Does it compare the topics to a more general or more specific situation? • Originality: topic is original and the approach is new? Does the article develop a new angle of the same theme (for example a trafficking case) • Style: use of language, wording, stigmatizing expressions, aggressive sensational words, degrading expressions • Length: is it too short, too long? Too wordy and spending too much space on details? Links between sentences and paragraph? Paragraphs are building on each other or randomly structured? Proportionality. • Considering the above, how well do you think the standard has been met? (rating score from 1 to 5 in table above)

27 UNICEF has published a set of *Principles and Guidelines for ethical reporting on children*, which can be accessed on Internet at http://www.unicef.org/media/media_tools_guidelines.html. There are six basic principles, six guidelines for interviewing children and seven guidelines for reporting on children. The principles by themselves are reproduced in Appendix 4.

28 A set of *Guidelines and Principles for Reporting on Issues Involving Children* were first adopted in draft by journalists organisations from 70 countries at the world's first international consultative conference on journalism and child rights held in Recife, Brazil, on 2 May 1998. After regional conferences and workshops they were finally adopted at the Annual Congress of the IFJ in Seoul in 2001. The guidelines were presented by the IFJ at the 2nd World Congress against Commercial Exploitation of Children held at Yokohama, Japan, in December 2001. They can be found in an IFJ publication, *Child Rights and the Media. Putting Children in the Right. Guidelines for Journalists and Media Professionals*, Brussels, 2002. The 11-point IFJ Guidelines require, for example that journalists should guard against visually or otherwise identifying children unless it is demonstrably in the public interest (guideline 5); and avoid the use of sexualised images of children (guideline 8).

Standard #2 Objectivity	• Does the article represent a critical attitude? • Argumentative? Represents different point of views? • Problematic source of information? Not reliable source of information used? For example: one neighbour testimony only or not confirmed • Does it refer to different sources? For example: government position, NGO position, service providers' position, external expert point of view represented? The article use only one source of information? Does it quote someone? • Correct or distorted use of information • Objectivity: personal point of view of the journalists? TdH [Terre des Hommes] position? Child rights advocate's point of view? The author keeps the distance from the subject or partial? Is the article one-sided? • Substantive? Contains facts, figures, and evidence to support its argument? • Are there international/ regional comparison, facts, examples from abroad? • Considering the above, how well do you think the standard has been met? (rating score from 1 to 5 in table above)
Standard #3 Child rights perspective	• Is the point of view of the child reflected? (child perspective) • Ethics: identification of the child, family members, risks of revictimisation? Rules of reporting and interviewing a child respected? • Does it make reference to children rights principles? To standards and law? • The content of the article violates seriously child rights (identification of child victims, family, abusive language, violation of the principle of innocence presumption, presenting the victim as a criminal, etc), or is very satisfactory in the way it considers the event and respects child rights. • Considering the above, how well do you think the standard has been met? (rating score from 1 to 5 in table above)
Standard # 4 Iconography	• Choice? Originality of the illustration? • Attractive photo? • Quality of the photo: is it a good photo? • Is it a positive one? • Ethical approach of the illustration? (see the children rights perspective part) • Is the picture relevant to the subject? • Considering the above, how well do you think the standard has been met? (rating score from 1 to 5 in table above)

So far this grading system has only been used in the three countries in SE Europe that took part in the project. It is reckoned to represent good practice there, even though children have not yet been involved directly in analysing and grading articles. Newspaper articles proved easier to obtain and monitor than reports in other media (such as radio, television or digital media). However, with a little adaptation the same system could be applied to other media.

Table 9 Score card for the assessment of newspaper articles in SE Europe

Criterion	
a. Replicability	✓
b. Explicit identification of factors for success or obstacles	✓
c. Effectiveness	✓
d. Checking the effects, including adverse effects	×
e. Child participation	×
f. Sustainability	✓
g. Promoting cooperation	?

7.1.2 Identifying bad practice in order to bring about improvement

In virtually all the countries involved in the project, the participating NGOs scrutinised articles concerning children that were published in local newspapers. Their aim initially was to assess if the articles being published might cause harm to children, in particular by mentioning the names (or other personally identifying details) of children who had been trafficked or subjected to sexual exploitation, or by showing photos which could identify them. Later on, once efforts to improve the quality of reporting has got underway, the monitoring exercise was also intended to find out if the quality of reports was improving (and, if so, if there were any signs that the improvements could be attributed to the NGO's own efforts).

Figure 6 Article in Rasmei Kampuchea, 28 July 2007

RASMEI KAMPUCHEA DAILY

While press monitoring was intended to be a means to an end (of improving the quality of reporting and thereby ending the secondary abuse experienced by some children), in most countries it also revealed a worrying level of poor reporting and helped convince child protection specialists that the quality of media reporting needed improving. Just one example can convey the main problems. With the headline "Four children labourers rescued from smugglers to Thailand", Cambodia's leading daily newspaper in the Khmer language, *Rasmei Kampuchea* (Light of Kampuchea – with a daily circulation of about 18,000), published a report in July 2007 about the rescue of four out of six children who had been taken to Bangkok, the capital of neighbouring Thailand, to earn money selling flowers. No effort was made to hide any personal details about the children. In addition to showing a photograph of the four children (the version above has marks to disguise their faces, but the published version had none), the article cited their names, ages (they were between 11 and 13 years

old) and the name of the village (and its precise whereabouts) in Battambang province that all six came from. It did not mention what efforts were being made by the authorities in Cambodia or Thailand to locate the missing two children.

As a report about the way children are exploited in Thailand to earn money for 'beggar masters', the article represented good investigative journalism, confirming that the children had to hand over all their earnings and were not allowed to keep any for themselves. However, the author of the article and his editor appear to have been unaware of the harm that they could cause by revealing the children's names and homes or by showing their faces in photographs. They referred to the children being 'smuggled' and forced to work, both by selling flowers and working in the home of their abusive employers, and quoted one of the girls who explained that she had been beaten and deprived of food when she had not managed to sell her flowers. It was clear from the article that the children had been abused and exploited, though the children were described as having been 'smuggled', rather than 'trafficked'. Of course, the terminology adopted in international law, which distinguishes between people being smuggled and trafficked, remains poorly understood by most members of the public, including journalists.

Much the same weaknesses were noted in media reports throughout SE Asia, as well as in the other regions, confirming the need for media monitoring and the potential efforts of initiatives to improve the quality of journalists' reporting. No score card is provided, simply because this analysis (of poor quality articles) was just a preliminary step to attempting to improve the quality of journalists' articles.

7.2 Influencing journalists to reduce child abuse caused by media reports

A variety of strategies were tried to influence journalists and the quality of their reporting, some designed principally by NGO activists and others developed with or by journalists. Three examples of influencing the press are cited below. The aim in each case was to reduce incidents in which children were stigmatised or their right to privacy was violated. As in other initiatives to influence the media, it is evidently important to avoid calling for measures which repressive governments might use to stifle the freedom of the press to comment and criticise.

7.2.1 A guideline developed by journalists in Indonesia

In Indonesia in July 2008 two NGOs belonging to Indonesia ACTs, KKSP Foundation and KIPAS Foundation, organised a workshop in North Sumatra about news releases and press coverage of children, particularly trafficked children. During the workshop, 18 journalists designed a *Guideline for journalists on news coverage and publicity concerning children.* The KKSP Foundation and the journalists involved next contacted journalists' organisations, such as the Aliansi Jurnalis Independen (AJI), *Alliance of Independent* Journalists, and *Persatuan Wartawan Indonesia* (PWI), Indonesian Journalists Association, to promote their awareness of the new guideline and submitted it to Indonesia's Press Council (a statutory organisation, established by the government) for official approval and adoption. At the time of writing this study (December 2009), the Press Council had not indicated if it intended to adopt the guideline as policy or not.

The guideline repeated some of the points made in UNICEF's *Principles for ethical reporting on children* and suggested that journalists should not mention the identity of children who are either victims or perpetrators of crime (including by publishing a photo which identifies the child). The guideline also suggests that journalists should avoid stigmatising children, for example, by calling street children 'useless people' or alleging they are a source of crime, or that the sight of them spoils the beauty of a city. Undoubtedly the examples cited may sound unlikely or outlandish to some journalists in other regions, but the strength of this guideline is that it was developed in Indonesia, with specific cases of bad practice by Indonesian journalists in mind. The guideline also calls on journalists to promptly remove and correct any wrong or inaccurate news about children, once the inaccuracy is brought to their attention, without waiting for a formal complaint to be submitted.

It is too early to provide a score card for this as a good practice, for the guideline has not yet been formally adopted. From the point of view of journalists in Indonesia, the guideline has significant legitimacy, as Indonesian journalists were involved in drafting it, although journalists are clearly wary of attempts to restrict what they write about or the way they chose to report on stories. As the General Secretary of the IFJ, Aidan White, noted in the IFJ publication, *Child Rights and the Media. Putting Children in the Right. Guidelines for Journalists and Media Professionals,*

> *"Journalists are wary of regulators. They have much evidence that outside intervention inevitably leads to forms of censorship…Codes do not guarantee ethical reporting, but identify the professional dilemmas that journalists and media face when reporting about children. They challenge journalists and media to be aware of their responsibilities".*

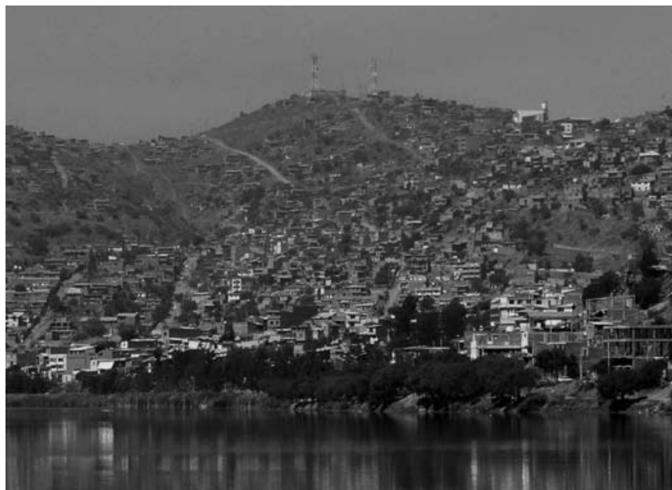
7.2.2 A course for journalists in Bolivia

In Bolivia the NGO *Infante* asked an NGO specialising on youth issues, *Eco Jóvenes*,[29] to monitor the quality of newspaper articles. As in other countries, the conclusion was that the quality of many articles (and reports in other media) left a great deal to be desired. However, the subsequent strategy used to influence journalists was unique. While others invited journalists to attend a short briefing about child rights, usually lasting just a couple of hours, *Infante* was much more ambitious and chose to organise an entire course for journalists, reckoning that workshops do not actually train participants and can only offer them a small amount of information. In contrast, a longer-term course can not only teach or train, but gives professionals an opportunity to try out new knowledge and skills and receive feed-back from their peers and from the course teachers. One course was organised in the

29 *Eco Jóvenes (Centro de Educación y Comunicación Jóvenes Bolivia*, Centre for Youth Education and Communication Bolivia) carried out the monitoring, together with the *Agencia Nacional de Noticias por los Derechos de la Infancia,* National Agency for News about Child Rights (ANNI Bolivia).

NGO's home town, Cochabamba, and another in the capital, La Paz.

Figure 7 A view of one of Cochabamba's suburbs



Rather than propose a course out of thin air, *Infante* started in Cochabamba by organising a one-and-a-half hour public debate for the media, with a panel of three journalists and one Infante representative. The results of the media monitoring were presented, summarising a short report[30] that *Infante* had prepared together with Eco Jóvenes. The report contains a critical analysis of three sample articles. The publication of such a report almost certainly represents good practice.

The report and public debate in Cochabamba helped stimulate the interest of media professionals when *Infante* announced that it was organising a part-time course for them. *Infante* took steps to avoid the course being seen as an NGO presenting journalists with information and telling them what to do. A variety of professionals with relevant expertise were invited to act as lecturers/ trainers. For example, in La Paz, the head of the anti-trafficking police participated as a trainer. *Infante* also set out to get each of the courses academic accreditation, so that attendance would be seen by other colleagues in the media as a legitimate and appropriate part of their professional development. In Cochabamba, the San Simón University agreed to accredit the course, while in La Paz San Andrés University did so.

In La Paz some 50 journalists agreed to attend the course, which consisted of 12 sessions conducted on Saturday mornings over a three month period. A journalist involved in producing a weekly supplement for children for a national newspaper reported finding the course imaginative and interesting, although he noticed that relatively few experienced journalists attended.

One result of journalists attending the course that was noted in Cochabamba was that contacts between journalists and the local police improved, as journalists realised that it was acceptable or even desirable for them to pass information to the police about crimes being committed against children. This was undoubtedly considered positive by both parties, but the longer term results for children need monitoring, in case the repercussions for them of this closer relationship turn out to be negative.

Not surprisingly, most of the journalists who attended were relatively young and inexperienced, meaning that the course probably did not influence editors or others who routinely control the style and content of media reports. It also proved difficult to attract television journalists to attend, possibly because most prefer reporting on politics, rather than social issues such as trafficking. However, the course reached radio journalists working for Radio CEPRA (*Centro de Educación y Producción Radiofónica*, Centre for Education and Radio Production), which broadcasts in Quechua (rather than Spanish) and is an important source of information for large numbers of Quechua-speaking families in rural areas, many of them potential migrants with children who could be trafficked. Further, the course organisers noted that some of the journalists emerging from the course were strongly motivated to report on cases in which children had been victimised or abused.

One result of the courses has been an increase in the number of reports about children, though not necessarily about children being trafficked. The language used in reports is also reckoned to have improved. For example, the use of a rather technical term for referring to children, 'minors' (*menores* in Spanish), was discouraged, as it was felt to be rather condescending and dehumanising, and a generic phrase used in Spanish for referring to children of all ages, '*niños, niñas y adolescentes*' (boys, girls and adolescents) was suggested in its place – and many recent articles have adopted the new usage.

The course was replicable, insofar as the initial model developed in Cochabamba was replicated in La Paz, although, of course, it required finding different trainers and lecturers who were based in or around the capital. The relatively low costs of higher education in Bolivia may be a factor which makes courses of this sort too expensive to arrange in other countries. It is also possible that the enthusiasm shown by young journalists in Bolivia would not be replicated in another country where a wider variety of professional developing courses is available for media professionals. These factors should be taken into account when considering replicating the model, but do not change the factor that it has also proved replicable.

Table 10 Score card for the course for journalists in Bolivia

a. Replicability	✓
b. Explicit identification of factors for success or obstacles	✓
c. Effectiveness	✓
d. Checking the effects, including adverse effects	×
e. Child participation	×
f. Sustainability	?
g. Promoting cooperation	✓

30 *Informe especial abordaje de la prensa sobre trata y tráfico de niños, niñas y adolescentes*, [Special report concerning the press and child trafficking and smuggling], Cochabamba, 2008.

7.2.3 Training workshops and a prize for journalists in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM)

Open Gate/La Strada used the grading system mentioned earlier (in 7.1.1) to assess the quality of media reporting in the FYROM about both child trafficking and human trafficking more generally. It organised a first workshop for journalists to obtain information about cases of trafficking in 2008, with a subsequent one in April 2009. The workshops were, as far as Open Gate staff knew, the first focused effort to influence the way journalists in their country reported these topics. The journalists who attended received a workbook (manual) on ethical reporting, as did other journalists who contacted Open Gate in 2008 and 2009. Commenting on the usefulness of the workshops, some journalists criticised the fact that little other professional training was available to them in their country.

In December 2008, when the National Commission for Combating Trafficking in Human Beings and Illegal Migration organised a week-long 'campaign against slavery', Open Gate took advantage of the attention given to the issue to make a new assessment of the quality of published articles, scrutinising in particular those produced by journalists who had attended a workshop organised earlier in the year. In April 2009 Open Gate awarded two prizes: one for the best written newspaper report and one for the best item about human trafficking in electronic media. The awards were an opportunity to provide the media with feedback on the quality of their reports about human trafficking (and the comments noted improvements which had occurred over the previous year, such as a reduction in the number of articles which mentioned the name of an individual who had been trafficked).

There is no reason why Open Gate should not make similar awards again, although the novelty and impact might wear off within a few years. Similar awards could be (and have been) made in other countries. However, editors appeared to remain relatively impervious to such awards in individual countries in the Balkans. Perhaps, it was suggested to the author in Skopje, they require inviting to a rather grander jamboree at regional level to pick out the editors and companies that deserve either a prize for good quality reporting or the booby prize!

Table 11 Score card for media prizes presented in the FYROM

a. Replicability	✓
b. Explicit identification of factors for success or obstacles	✓
c. Effectiveness	✓
d. Checking the effects, including adverse effects	×
e. Child participation	×
f. Sustainability	✓
g. Promoting cooperation	?

7.3 Outstanding challenges

Despite the positive impact of workshops and courses on some journalists, by the end of 2009 there was general recognition that the methods used had not been successful in influencing senior, influential people in the media, such as editors, producers (in the case of radio and television) and owners of newspapers, radio stations and television channels. In countries where some media are owned or controlled by the government, there was also general recognition that it is more difficult to influence the editorial line or content of articles in such media, but that privately-owned or locally based newspapers in such countries can be influenced more easily. It was also clear in most of the countries concerned that the journalists who had attended workshops and courses remained resistant to the idea that they should take the initiative themselves to establish contact with their professional colleagues in other countries in order to investigate transnational trafficking routes.

Given the sensitivity felt by many media professionals to the very idea that NGOs or others outside their profession should try and influence the methods they use and the content of their work, it was notable that in one country, Kosovo, journalists requested more detailed guidance about the way they reported on cases of child trafficking or the related exploitation of children. How would it be most appropriate for child rights NGOs to respond to calls for such detailed instructions? Most of the NGOs in the project opted to set out principles that journalists should respect, rather than trying to 'hold their hand' and show them how to do their work in more detail. However, journalists in Bolivia, who had the opportunity during a course to prepare a report about trafficked children in the experimental conditions of their course, receiving comments back from their peers and course leaders, said they had found this very useful. The role of NGOs should therefore be to 'facilitate', creating the opportunity for media professionals who understand the principles governing good practice to share their views with others and for journalists in general to discover how to listen to young people and to take the views and best interests of children into account in a much more explicit way than is usually the case.

8 DEVELOPING LOCAL LEVEL NETWORKS TO PROTECT CHILDREN

An important way to protect children from a wide range of forms of abuse and exploitation is to ensure that all the various professionals in a community who have a responsibility for protecting children from harm work closely enough together to provide an early warning system for children who are at high risk (of experiencing harm) and a referral system for children who have already been harmed or abused or who require practical support to prevent their situation deteriorating.

These local level partnerships exist at a variety of levels: village, district, municipal, etc., some of which are close to specific communities, while others are organised further up the administrative ladder. The professionals who might be members include: health professionals, police, social workers and school teachers or education service staff. In some areas they include religious leaders or NGOs which are in close contact with children.

Such networks have a key role to play in preventing children from being trafficked or exploited and also act as a local level referral system when individual children are trafficked or return home after being trafficked elsewhere. In addition to responding in trafficking cases, once established they have the potential to react on a variety of issues and forms of abuse. However, the variety of names which are used to refer to much the same local level networks tends to camouflage how similar they all are:

- child protection partnerships;
- child protection networks (the preferred name in this study);
- multi-disciplinary or multi-sectoral teams;
- local referral networks.

To complicate things further, in Spanish-speaking countries in Latin America, a different term, *Defensoría*, is used to refer to an institution which, in some cases, performs the functions of a child protection partnership. While most are state-run institutions staffed by civil servants, such as the *Defensoría del Pueblo* (Office for the Defence of the People) which plays the role of ombudsperson at national level in several countries, in Peru some *Defensorías de niños y adolescentes* (Offices for the Defence of Children and Adolescents) consist of unpaid members of the community and provide coordination to local child protection efforts.

In areas or communities where some relevant professionals are simply not present, comparable networks have been organised to include community leaders and are sometimes referred to as 'community-based child protection networks'. Once again, the aim is to ensure the protection of children in the community, although the members may be amateur volunteers, rather than trained, paid professionals. Such networks are potentially important in communities with little social cohesion, such as camps of refugees or internally displaced people (IDPs). However, the phrase 'community-based' also camouflages a variety of different structures, some appointed by government authorities from above, with relatively little popular legitimacy in the eyes of communities which distrust their central government (or among refugees in a foreign country), while others have solid roots in the community and genuinely represent the wishes of the community concerned.

Given these two options for forming child protection networks, from top down or bottom up, it is surprising that the NGOs in this project, which might appear to have little legitimacy in the eyes of either government or community members, have made a relatively major contribution by facilitating the creation of networks at local level. They found a wide range of methods for doing do, in part by demonstrating knowledge and expertise on the topic of child trafficking and offering to share this with others. The results look impressive – although it is too early to be sure that all the networks that have been established will continue to function after the end of the project.

8.1 Preparing the way

While some NGOs in the project started by making contact with relevant professionals in a city or district, in SE Asia the Asia ACTs network gave priority to establishing links with particular communities before trying to improve the coordination between individuals or agencies which exercised any responsibility for child protection. In rural areas, this was an acknowledgement that traditional village-based authorities, both political and religious, continue to have a strong influence on life in their community. Working with and through such authorities can be regarded as a 'bottom up' approach, when they represent legitimacy in their community, but there are some risks in this approach, which are outlined below.

In the Philippines, Asia ACTs members made an assumption that community education was an essential precursor to other activities, in particular to influence community leaders and familiarise them with the concept of child rights.
Indonesia ACTs used a method which involves four steps before an explicit attempt was made to set up or improve a child protection system. These were:

1. Provide officials in the village or community, as well as members of the general public there with general information about child rights. This process is referred to as 'community education'. Specific mention is made of any patterns of child abuse or exploitation which are known to be occurring in the community concerned;
2. Provide advice on how to manage the cases of individual children suspected of experiencing abuse, to improve the professionalism and performance of the professionals who are likely to be involved;
3. Promote the participation of children and young people, for

4. (continued) example the role of children as peer-to-peer educators, developing the capacity of some children to listen to the problems experienced by others and to know when to give them advice and when to tell others about particular problems being experienced by the children whom talk to them;
4. Increase the ability and inclination of community leaders and other adults to listen to children, thereby widening the scope of child participation further.

The techniques involved in the fourth step include organising adults and children in two separate groups to discuss a particular problem and asking the adult group if they would be interested in hearing what the children's group has to say. They usually express interest and are reported to routinely come away impressed with the depth of the children's awareness – and are therefore more inclined to ask young people, both individually and collectively, for their views on subsequent occasions.

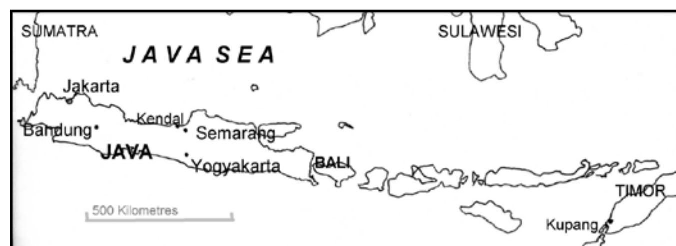
Only after the four steps have been completed is a community deemed by Indonesia ACTs members to have reached a point where it would be appropriate to go ahead with the development of a child protection network.

8.2 Choosing an appropriate strategy: bottom up or top down

Finding the right people to take part in a local network which is not composed of professionals can be a challenge. If a choice is made to recruit people who are already office-holders and pillars of the community, the network may have a high level of legitimacy, but fail to be child friendly. Indeed, there is a risk that it will be dominated by middle-aged or old men who see little benefit in listening to children or allowing them to participate.[31] On the other hand, if a network is established which omits village dignitaries, they might subsequently sabotage it or the network may lack sufficient political weight to have much influence.

In Indonesia the project was used to finance activities that led to local child protection networks being established in two different areas: West Java (whose capital is Bandung) and East Nusa Tenggara (whose capital is Kupang on West Timor). These initiatives coincided with others funded by different donors in Sumatra and other parts of Java. The organisations in Indonesia ACTs looked at options for various strategies which they could use to encourage local professionals to work together more coherently and opted for distinct methods in different areas.

Figure 8 Map showing places mentioned in Indonesia



In East Nusa Tenggara, the *Rumah Perempuan* Foundation (Women's House Foundation) helped set up networks in four villages in two of Kupang District's 30 sub-districts. Their strategy was somewhat top down, in the sense that they chose to identify existing community leaders who could be co-opted into a network (though the process was not imposed by the central or provincial government). Once again, this consisted of a stepped approach:

1. The first step was to identify appropriate community leaders and others with relatively strong influence in their village, such as village office-holders and religious leaders.
2. The second step was to involve such people in a series of discussions about cases of child trafficking and the potential role of a network at village level to prevent and stop trafficking.
3. The third step was to set up a village child protection network.

By early 2009 the protection networks in Kupang were reported to be disseminating information about the danger of child trafficking, so had not yet reached a stage when they could focus more narrowly on combating the risk of particular children being trafficked.

Figure 9 Houses in Indramayu District (Indonesia)

A more specifically top-down approach has been tried in Central Java, where there has been an opportunity to build on a government policy to develop a protection centre at local district level for both children and women, in the wake of a central government decision to establish a *Pusat Pelayanan Terpadu* (PPT), Integrated Service Centre, for women and children victims of violence. The decision to establish district-level PPTs was primarily a response to lobbying from women's rights groups, rather than child rights organisations, but nevertheless offered an opportunity to develop better services for children, particularly once the Governor of Central Java issued a decree in 2006 instructing each district to establish a *Pusat Penanganan Krisis Perempuan dan Anak*, Crisis Treatment Centre for Women and Children. In Kendal district, one of the Indonesia ACTs member organisations, *Untuk Keadilan Jender Dan Hak Asasi Manusia* (LRC-KJHAM), the Legal Resources

31 For an example of community based volunteers causing abuse, rather than protecting children, see 'Vigilance committees at community level to prevent children being trafficked—or to stop them leaving their village at all?' in Dottridge, Mike, *A handbook on planning projects to prevent child trafficking*, Terre des Hommes International Federation, Lausanne, 2007. This cites a case from Mali, in West Africa, where the village committees did not encourage any sort of child participation and almost certainly caused more harm than good.

Centre for Gender Justice and Human Rights, based in the city of Semarang, took advantage of the Governor's decree and a matching instruction issued by the Mayor of Semarang to urge that the *Indonesian Guidelines to Protect the Rights of Children Victims of Trafficking* be formally adopted as the response whenever a case of child trafficking was identified (see chapter 9 for more details on these Guidelines). Four sub-districts duly did so.

A different approach was tried in West Java, in areas where the *Kusuma Buana Foundation* is active in Indramayu District, northeast of Bandung. In this area, a disproportionately large number of young women from one of the sub-districts are known to earn money from prostitution in Jakarta and other locations, and many are reported to be recruited before reaching 18. The Foundation focused its efforts on the eight villages in this sub-district, but chose to start with an informal network, avoiding traditional office-holders, some of whom might be involved in trafficking or profiting indirectly from it. Cases concerning individuals are reported by people in the community to this network, which is reported to follow up quickly and to put the individuals concerned in contact with institutions that can help them, such as a hospital and the police department. The sub-district government is also reported to help members of the network to handle any case by referring them to the police department.[32]

Table 12 Score card for techniques to establish child protection networks in Indonesia in general

a. Replicability	✓
b. Explicit identification of factors for success or obstacles	✓
c. Effectiveness	✓
d. Checking the effects, including adverse effects	×
e. Child participation	varied
f. Sustainability	✓
g. Promoting cooperation	✓

8.3 Training professionals together

In Bolivia, *Infante* initially set out to provide a variety of professionals with responsibilities for child protection in the country's third largest city, Cochabamba, with information about child trafficking, but its efforts went far beyond the mere provision of information, being designed to convene all the professionals together and to act as a catalyst for better coordination and better child protection.

Once again (as in the case of training journalists), to make the course attractive and give participation some professional status, *Infante's* approach was to organise a course which had university accreditation and would result in participants receiving a university diploma. In this case the course was organised by the Luís Espiñal Institute[33] in Cochabamba and accredited by a university in El Salvador, the *Universidad Centroamericana José Simeón Cañas*. However, unlike the course organised for journalists, individuals attending this course had to pay a course fee of US$150 (€ 100 in 2009). While this does not sound much in Amsterdam or Washington, in Bolivia, where the average cost of attending a diploma course is between US$350 and US$450 (€ 230 to € 300), this represented a significant contribution and was intended to confirm each participant's personal commitment and, in most cases, that they were receiving the backing of the institution where they worked. The course fees paid by course participants (totalling more than US$15,000 or € 10,000) did not cover all the costs, so the project was a vital source of funds to pay for other expenses. This might well be the limiting factor on replicating courses of this sort in other countries: potentially the fees and expenses of course lecturers might be much higher elsewhere, particularly in better off countries or places where lawyers and prosecutors enjoy relatively high salaries.

From June to October 2009, more than a hundred local officials based in Cochabamba attended classes every Saturday morning, a part-time course lasting four and a half months. The initial idea was to organise a course for up to 50 participants, each of whom was to receive a diploma on completing the course. However, the take-up in Cochabamba was remarkable. There were 102 participants from all the professions that should make up a local level multidisciplinary team to prevent child abuse and respond to the needs of victims, including trafficked children: members of the local Public Prosecutor's Office (*fiscales*), police, the local *Defensoría* and social workers involved in caring for abused children. As too many people wanted to attend to fit into a single lecture theatre, it was necessary to run two separate courses in parallel.

The particularities of this course were that,

1. Participants had to pay a fee to attend;
2. Course teachers included members of the professions taking part;
3. The course was part-time, involving one half-day session per week over four-and-a-half months;
4. If they passed course tests and attended sufficient classes, each participant received a diploma at the end from a well regarded academic institution.

The course was planned by *Infante* and the Luís Espiñal Institute and faced an initial challenge in finding lecturers who had sufficient knowledge of human trafficking and children's rights to teach others who were themselves experienced and knowledgeable professionals. The organisers recognised that, although the course was about a legal issue (trafficking, an offence against the law), they needed to involve non-lawyers and to avoid putting too much emphasis on the law or legal issues. By inviting individuals who would have to be key players in any child protection network established in the city to act as trainers, such as police officers in the city's anti-trafficking unit, the course organisers succeeded both in filling the gaps and in co-opting representatives of all the key professions.

All this still did not mean that the participants would necessarily start working together to set up a child protection network: the jury is still out on this point, for the course in Cochabamba finished too

32 Asia ACTs, *Aspirations and Explorations: Good Practices of the Campaign against Child Trafficking in Southeast Asia*, Manila, 2009, page 64.
33 *Instituto Superior de Filosofía y Humanidades Luís Espiñal* in Cochabamba.

recently to be sure what its impact in the medium and long term will be. However, the Saturday morning sessions did automatically create an opportunity for people in different professions to talk to each other (more than they usually did). Several participants told the author that the course had provided them with a useful opportunity to meet others and talk about how they could cooperate more effectively. For example, a member of the Public Prosecutor's Office had found it instructive to talk to psychologists and sociologists about the obstacles to bringing prosecutions in trafficking cases (and ensuring that appropriate evidence was available from victims or others) and possible ways of overcoming the obstacles. They also remarked that the course was an excellent opportunity to identify shortcomings in existing laws or procedures and to discuss possible amendments or changes.

The course designed in Cochabamba was replicated in the capital, La Paz, where *Infante* had a small liaison office. This was a three-month course. As in Cochabamba, it was a university accredited course, attended by people from a variety of professions. Some 130 people turned up for the first session, so it was again necessary to split into two groups. A particular technique that was used to encourage course participants to empathise with children who were trafficked was to ask them to act in a short skit or play about a child who had been trafficked, with one participant taking the role of a nine-year-old child and another the role of a police officer responsible for a forensic interview with the child. This seemed helpful in persuading the participants to adopt a human rights approach, i.e., one in which the effects of the interview on the child were judged to be more important than the potential advantages for a prosecutor of getting evidence that might secure a conviction.

One of the course participants in La Paz suggested that it would be useful to set up a formal network involving the different organisations and professionals attending the course: *Infante's* staff were convinced that such suggestions had to come from the participants themselves, rather than being imposed by the NGO or others from outside.

While the course was replicated successfully in La Paz, it seems less likely that this method would have such success if *Infante* tried to export its curriculum to another country, such as Peru or Ecuador. However, an NGO based in a different country, which had also already established ties with local institutions involved in child protection, could expect to replicate this model successfully if the economic conditions (making it financially feasible to run a course) were favourable.

Table 13 Score card for courses for professionals in Bolivia

a. Replicability	✓
b. Explicit identification of factors for success or obstacles	✓
c. Effectiveness	✓
d. Checking the effects, including adverse effects	×
e. Child participation	×
f. Sustainability	?
g. Promoting cooperation	✓

8.4 Replicating a national structure at local level

Numerous NGOs taking part in the project are members of a national-level coordination structure or group in their country that plans or coordinates initiatives against human trafficking. In each case this gives them an opportunity to feed in ideas on appropriate procedures for protecting and assisting children or adults who have been trafficked and methods for preventing human trafficking. The national coordination bodies have a variety of titles, such as 'National Commission for Combating Trafficking in Human Beings and Illegal Migration' in the FYROM (where it is also referred to as a 'National Referral Mechanism', as it is in other parts of Europe), Inter-Agency Council Against Trafficking (IACAT) in the Philippines or the Permanent Multisectoral (Working) Group against Trafficking in Persons in Peru, where it was established by the Ministry of the Interior's National Commission for Human Rights.

In some countries, such as the Philippines, the national structure has taken a decision to establish similar coordination bodies at regional or local level, creating opportunities for NGOs in the project to suggest how it could knit together the various government agencies and NGOs which play a role in protecting children at local level. In others, it has been up to NGOs to take the initiative and demonstrate the benefits of creating a local-level coordination structure to others.

In Peru, IDEIF, which is a member of the Permanent Multisectoral Working Group along with two other NGOs, was ambitious and aspired to help establish local level coordination bodies, in the hope that these would act as networks to protect trafficked children and adults and to prevent human trafficking. These are referred to as "*mesa regionales*", regional round tables. So far progress has been most marked in two of the country's 24 administrative regions, Loreto (in the northeast; the largest region, covering much of Amazonia) and Ica (in the south). The capital of Loreto, the city of Iquitos, has grown rapidly in recent years, as petrol companies and others have established themselves there in order to exploit the resources of the Amazon. In 2005 the sight of businessmen paying for sex with adolescents in Iquitos received publicity. While the pattern of child exploitation has been quite visible in Loreto, in Ica it was much less obvious, although there has also been considerable economic development in the area linked to the exploitation of natural gas, and it was not until IDEIF reviewed recent evidence about internal trafficking cases in Peru that its staff realised that Ica had been a relatively frequent transit hub for adolescents being trafficked between the highlands of Peru and various places in the south of the country.

In a country with a highly centralised government, still recovering from a brutal internal armed conflict, there are limits on how much NGOs can influence government officials. IDEIF's role has been to convene the representatives of relevant agencies and professions in Iquitos and Ica in the hope that the impetus will be followed up by the formal establishment of a coordination structure. The fact that Iquitos was known to have a pattern of child sexual exploitation made it easier to persuade the authorities there to attend a workshop in early August 2009, though it was nevertheless difficult to convince representatives of Christian Churches

to attend, as IDEIF initially intended. In Ica, however, senior local officials required more persuasion. The 'softening up' process here started with a press conference in June 2009, at which IDEIF's recent publication, *Las rutas de la trata de personas desde sus victimas*, was presented, along with evidence that Ica was a significant transit point in numerous human trafficking cases. Also in August 2009 representatives of the Governor, the police, the Public Prosecutor's office and others were invited by IDEIF to attend a meeting to talk about the specific roles and responsibilities of each agency (in trafficking cases). The Governor himself initially appeared reluctant to invest time or resources in extra efforts to stop human trafficking, but the presence of a representative of the Government's Permanent Multisectoral Group against Trafficking in Persons helped convince him that doing so was a formal obligation, rather than purely voluntary. All those attending the meeting in Ica agreed to the need to establish better coordination and intended to meet again in September 2009.

It is too early to be sure that local level coordination structures will be established in Iquitos and Ica, but the signs in late August 2009 were good. The structures seemed likely to focus on human trafficking in general, rather than child trafficking in particular. This has some advantages and some disadvantages: for example, if it focuses on human trafficking in general, it may be difficult to reorient the coordination structure to playing a role in responding to other forms of child exploitation or abuse, reducing its potential to develop into a general child protection network. However, their focus on trafficking in adults and children alike mean that they could potentially respond to all the various forms of exploitation associated with trafficking (i.e., adults being subjected to any form of forced labour, as well as the exploitation of the prostitution of others).

In both places, some of the factors which made it possible for IDEIF to convene other actors were obvious: its prior contacts with the various government agencies involved and the fact that IDEIF had been known since the beginning of the decade to have expert knowledge on the topic of human trafficking (not only child trafficking).

Table 14 Score card for the establishment of local level anti-trafficking networks in Peru

a. Replicability	✓
b. Explicit identification of factors for success or obstacles	✓
c. Effectiveness	?
d. Checking the effects, including adverse effects	×
e. Child participation	×
f. Sustainability	?
g. Promoting cooperation	✓

8.5 When the community has little confidence in the State

The extent to which a local coordination structure or protection network is perceived to be legitimate and user-friendly by a local community varies according to a range of factors, and is usually much the same as popular perceptions of other government initiatives or institutions. Problems have arisen when most of the children or adults being trafficked are victims of transnational trafficking, i.e., are trafficked to a country other than their own, where it is all too frequent that structures or networks composed of local people fail to identify foreign children or adults as victims of criminals, such as traffickers, and tend to view them instead as unwanted immigrants or even criminals. Indeed, even when it is clear in such cases that a child is under the control of traffickers or is being exploited, the police or immigration officials may give priority to the government's policy of excluding irregular immigrants and deport them, rather than securing their release from the people controlling them.

Figure 10 Mae Tao Burmese quarter in Mae Sot (Thailand)

A particularly complicated situation exists for the tens of thousands of Burmese living and seeking a living in Thailand. Only a few are recognised by the Government of Thailand as refugees, even though vast numbers have fled political repression in Burma. Many more have fled Burma's economic disintegration. Mae Sot, a city on Thailand's western border with Burma, consequently hosts substantial numbers of Burmese, some of whom work in arduous and exploitative conditions in factories or on farms in the Mae Sot area. Burmese young people residing in Mae Sot have also been trafficked to other parts of Thailand, notably to fishing ports such as Samut Sakhon, where they have been held captive in fish processing factories, and the capital, Bangkok, where young children have been forced to earn money for traffickers by begging. This trafficking is facilitated by the fact that the Thai authorities try to stop Burmese living in and around Mae Sot from moving east to other parts of the country, in effect creating an internal border within Thailand, consisting of numerous police or army check-points along the roads. This pushes would-be migrants into the hands of traffickers or other intermediaries.

Setting up a child protection network among an expatriate population, such as the Burmese in Mae Sot or the Burmese, Lao or Cambodians living in Thailand more generally is exceptionally challenging. In part this is because of the community's ambiguous relationship with the authorities of their host country, who invariably want to find out what a foreign adult's or child's residence status in Thailand is before responding to any call to protect them. There have also been cases in which Thai officials have been in cahoots with traffickers or employers exploiting trafficked children. In this context, Burma ACT has devoted time to building relations

between Burmese communities and Thai officials in and around Mae Sot and also to influencing leaders in Burmese communities, so that they play a role in the front-line protection of children from their communities. One challenge in this area is that the various Burmese expatriate communities living there do not necessarily have close relations with one another, being divided by language, religion and culture as much while living in Thailand as they are inside Burma. While children belonging to the different communities have some common needs for protection, both in Mae Sot and if they travel eastwards, further into Thailand, the communities are so diverse that separate networks or child protection procedures may be needed in each distinct community.

In July 2008, Burma ACT coordinated a meeting to discuss child protection which was attended by ten leaders, representing three migrant communities in the Mae Sot area. The community leaders concluded at the meeting that they should urge parents in their respective communities to register the birth of any Burmese children born in Thailand (and obtain formal birth certificates for them) and ensure that children attended school, though this was likely to be one of the Burmese community's 'learning centres' which teach in a language spoken in Burma and are not regarded as proper 'schools' by the Thai authorities. The meeting also agreed it would be appropriate to set up some sort of network to report on suspicious recruitment activities, where traffickers might be at work.

In January 2009, Burma ACT followed up with a similar meeting with leaders from other Burmese communities, who discussed similar issues and reached much the same conclusions. One of Burma ACT's member organisations, the Committee for Promotion and Protection of Child Rights - Burma (CPPCR), has lead responsibility for developing a referral network (for children subjected to abuse or considered at high risk of abuse) among the various Burmese communities in the Mae Sot area, but the process is still at a relatively early stage. Some 40 NGOs based in these communities have agreed to nominate a specific person to act as a 'focal point' when cases of abuse need to be reported or when abused children require assistance and access to particular services. About 30 organisations are reported to have done so. CPPCR also took a lead in drafting a child protection policy for NGOs operating in Burmese communities to follow. CPPCR has the advantage that it has experience of facilitating children's participation, so it can ensure that young people's views are taken into account while a referral network and child protection policies are developed. It is too early to draw conclusions about the experience in the Mae Sot area, but the model is an instructive one for other refugee or expatriate communities.

Table 15 Score card for the establishment of local level anti-trafficking networks in Mae Sot

a. Replicability	✓
b. Explicit identification of factors for success or obstacles	✓
c. Effectiveness	?
d. Checking the effects, including adverse effects	×
e. Child participation	✓
f. Sustainability	?
g. Promoting cooperation	✓

8.6 Stop gap solutions before a network is set up

Developing a child protection network takes time, whether at village level or in a larger community, such as a town, city or district. Does this mean that nothing can be done in the short-term to stop traffickers recruiting children? Clearly it does not, for communities can take a variety of steps to identify people who are likely to be traffickers and the children who are most likely to be their prey.

In the community described in the last section, consisting of Burmese in Mae Sot (Thailand), Burma ACT has found volunteers in ten separate communities who have agreed to monitor what they regard as 'suspicious activities'. The communities are mostly outside Mae Sot town, so the activities concerned usually involve a highly visible outsider visiting houses without being invited, asking questions that suggest he or she is recruiting children for 'good jobs' somewhere else in Thailand. Some of the ten volunteers are recognised by others in their community as leaders, enhancing their legitimacy. Some have themselves been victims of abusive recruitment in the past (either being trafficked or subjected to other unwanted experiences). Eight of the ten are women, who (according to Burma ACT) are regarded as more effective than men at finding out who the visiting strangers are and what they want.

The volunteer system in the area surrounding Mae Sot is in its infancy and is intended to be replaced as soon as possible by a more ample child protection network. Its members have only met together once to exchange information, reportedly finding that this was a useful 'intelligence sharing' opportunity, as the same recruiters or traffickers were active in several different areas. They also exchanged information on the characteristics of the families in the Burmese community whose children appeared, for a variety of reasons, to be most likely to be trafficked.

Evidently there is a danger that a network staffed by unpaid amateurs might base too many assumptions on hearsay or prejudice. In some places this has been the case as far as professional law enforcement officials are concerned as well. In this case, amateurs seem a great deal better than nothing, especially if their action is kept under review by the group as a whole and by an NGO such as the CPPCR, which has substantial experience of upholding child rights.

Table 16 Score card for the establishment of a local level 'alert' network in Mae Sot

a. Replicability	✓
b. Explicit identification of factors for success or obstacles	×
c. Effectiveness	✓
d. Checking the effects, including adverse effects	?
e. Child participation	?
f. Sustainability	?
g. Promoting cooperation	✓

9 IMPROVING MINIMUM STANDARDS TO PROTECT AND ASSIST CHILD VICTIMS OF TRAFFICKERS

9.1 What international standards represent 'good practice'?

When the UN adopted a *Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children* in 2000, its provisions on protection and assistance were surprisingly weak. For example, article 6 on protection and assistance suggests "Each State Party shall *consider* implementing measures to provide for the physical, psychological and social recovery of victims of trafficking in persons…", rather than requiring them to do so. Various other UN agencies, which were aware of existing provisions in international law that oblige States to give prompt protection or assistance to certain categories of people, began preparing relevant guidelines to stress that States have legal obligations to protect and assist both children and adults who have been trafficked. This resulted in the publication by the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights of a set of *Recommended Principles and Guidelines on Human Rights and Human Trafficking* in 2002 and the World Health Organization's *Ethical and Safety Recommendations for Interviewing Trafficked Women* in 2003.

For children who have been (or may have been) trafficked, the key standard was developed by UNICEF in Southeast Europe (more specifically in Moldova) in 2003, *Guidelines for Protection of the Rights of Child Victims of Trafficking*, endorsed in December 2003 by the Regional Ministerial Forum of the Stability Pact for South Eastern Europe's Task Force on Trafficking in Human Beings. This outlined appropriate procedures for protecting children who had been trafficked on 11 points:

1. identification;
2. appointing a guardian for each trafficked child;
3. questioning by the authorities;
4. referral to appropriate services and inter-agency coordination;
5. interim care and protection;
6. regularisation of the (immigration) status of a child who is in a country other than their own;
7. case assessment and identification of what is called a 'durable solution';
8. implementing a durable solution, including possible return to a child's country of origin;
9. access for children to justice;
10. protection of the child as a victim and potential witness; and
11. training for government and other agencies dealing with child victims.

Three years later UNICEF issued a global version of its *Guidelines, this time entitled Guidelines for the Protection of Child Victims of Trafficking.*[34] This covered much the same points, but added two extra ones concerning the "Cost of proceedings, financial assistance, reparation, compensation" and "Research and data collection".

When the International Organization for Migration (IOM) published its own Handbook on Direct Assistance for Victims of Trafficking in 2007, it continued to treat UNICEF's *Guidelines for the Protection of Child Victims of Trafficking* as the 'state of the art'. Today (at the end of 2009) they still represent the benchmark against which it is reasonable to measure good practice, although efforts have been made to adapt the guidelines to meet local needs and realities in several regions of the world, such as West Africa and SE Asia.

9.2 Initiatives to promote awareness of UNICEF's Guidelines

In SE Asia and SE Europe, UNICEF's *Guidelines for Protection of the Rights of Child Victims of Trafficking* had already been brought to the attention of most anti-trafficking professionals by 2006 (sections 9.3 and 9.4 describe subsequent action taken to bring about their implementation). However, at the beginning of the project neither version of the Guidelines existed in Spanish, despite the relative prevalence of child trafficking in parts of Latin America.

In Bolivia, *Infante* worked with the UNICEF office in La Paz to translate the 2006 'global' version of the Guidelines into Spanish. By the end of 2008 a translation was available, though there seemed to be some organisational obstacles within UNICEF to finalising and publishing a UNICEF-approved version in Spanish. Nevertheless, the unofficial translation proved useful in both Bolivia and Peru, where it was possible to present copies to government officials responsible for drafting procedures concerning the protection and treatment of all victims of traffickers (adults and children alike). Further, the unofficial version could be made available to a variety of other organisations which came into contact with trafficked children and were themselves looking for advice on what constituted good practice.

In 2006, the UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) branch in Colombia published its own *Manual de Procedimiento Penal y Protección Integral de niños, niñas y adolescentes víctimas de Trata de Personas y Explotación Laboral/Sexual* (Manual on criminal procedure and integrated protection of child victims of trafficking and labour/sexual exploitation). However, this makes no reference to UNICEF's Guidelines or to many of the measures deemed essential by UNICEF and others to protect trafficked children. For example, it makes no mention of the appointment

34 This can be accessed in English at http://www.unicef.org/ceecis/0610-Unicef_Victims_Guidelines_en.pdf . A list of the contents of this version is contained in Appendix 5.

of a temporary guardian whenever a foreign child is identified as a victim of traffickers or (as is more likely in Colombia) a Colombian child has been trafficked and her/his parents or guardian are unavailable to make decisions for or with the child.

9.3 The development of regional and national guidelines for the protection of trafficked children, adapted to local needs and realities

In SE Asia 33 people belonging to organisations in the Asia ACTS network held a five day workshop in March 2004 on human rights principles and guidelines concerning the treatment of trafficked children, using UNICEF's Guidelines as a starting point. The workshop drafted a text known as the 'Bohol document', which was subsequently used to draft national guidelines in Indonesia, Philippines and Vietnam (in 2005 and 2006) and to lobby for amendments in an anti-trafficking law in Thailand (in 2005).

Asia ACTs next held a workshop in March 2006 to draft a version of the Guidelines for SE Asia as a whole.[35] The resulting draft (*Guidelines for the Protection of the Rights of Trafficked Children in South East Asia*) was discussed at the 4th Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Senior Officials Meeting on Social Welfare and Development, in Burma (Myanmar) in November 2006. In 2007, when this project got underway, the draft Guidelines were referred to the ministerial level within ASEAN and were adopted by ASEAN Ministers for Social Welfare and Development at a meeting in Vietnam in December 2007.[36] In comparison to UNICEF's original Guidelines, these give extra attention to issues of care and protection for the staff of organisations looking after trafficked children and to building the capacity of communities to care for trafficked children, by forming multi-disciplinary teams to work with the children.

Once a version of the Guidelines had been approved by ASEAN, the next stage began, of introducing any further changes that were appropriate for particular countries. The ASEAN version was translated into Bahasa Indonesian, Khmer (for Cambodia), Lao and Vietnamese and used to lobby government officials and others in these four countries to bring national procedures into line with the ASEAN standard.[37] The original version in English was used for similar lobbying purposes in other countries. The ASEAN-approved Guidelines were also used everywhere to publicise the fact that standards which were especially relevant for the region of SE Asia had been approved and now needed implementing.

In the Philippines the country's Inter-Agency Council Against Trafficking (IACAT) received information in 2007 from Asia ACTs, PACT and their partners about the draft national Guidelines which had already been prepared. To speed up the process, the IACAT entrusted the drafting of the Guidelines to several NGOs, including Asia ACTs and PACT. They used the SE Asian Guidelines as a basis to the drafting of the *Philippine Guidelines for the Protection of Trafficked Children* (while also bearing the specific provisions of the SE Europe Guidelines in mind). The *Philippine Guidelines* acknowledged the standards already existing in some jurisdictions, as well as standing by the experience and lessons gained from partners in the Philippines. The use of references and acknowledgment of standards already adopted elsewhere facilitated and sped up the process.

Figure 11 Philippine Guidelines for the Protection of Trafficked Children

An extra effort was made to consult children and to ensure the national Guidelines in the Philippines reflected the experience of children who had been trafficked. A consultation with children who had been trafficked was held in 2008 about the provisions in the draft. The comments made by children made it clear that some provisions needed amending to meet the realities they had experienced.[38] The changes were duly made and accepted in September 2008. Asia ACTs presented the *Philippine Guidelines for the Protection of Trafficked Children* to the IACAT for approval and they were approved in November 2008. The headings in these Guidelines are reproduced in Appendix 6.

In the minutes of the meeting of the IACAT at its 22nd Regular Meeting (29 July 2008), it noted that,

> *"After several validation workshops with government agencies, non government organizations and other stakeholders and inputs from children victim-survivors of trafficking the final draft of the Guidelines was presented to the IACAT during the 20th regular IACAT Meeting in February [2008].*
> *The Guidelines includes the following sections: (1) Basic Definitions (2) General Principles and Reiteration of the Rights of Trafficked Children (3) Guidelines for the specific measures for the rights of Trafficked children."* [39]

35 In partnership with Terre des Hommes-Netherlands, Terre des Hommes-Germany and the Japan Foundation.

36 See Asia ACTS against Child Trafficking. *Protecting the Rights and Dignity of the Trafficked Child in South East Asia*. 2007, and Abueva, Amihan and Saguisag, Anjanette. *UNICEF guidelines on the protection of child victims of trafficking: Adaptation to a regional context.* Accessed on 29 July 2008 at http://www.unicef-irc.org/research/resource_pages/worldcongress3/saguisag1_ppt.pdf

37 At the end of 2009 the ASEAN Guidelines were awaiting translation into Burmese and the translation was expected to be ready before the end of the project.

38 See *Survivors Speak*. *Recommendations to the Philippine Guidelines for the Protection of the Rights of Trafficked Children. ¬¬National Consultation with Children and Young People: Proposed Philippine Guidelines for the Protection of the Rights of Trafficked Children*. Tagaytay City, Philippines. 18-20 September 2007. Unpublished.

39 IACAT Minutes of the 22nd Regular Meeting (p.5), July 29, 2008/9:00 – 11:00 am, 3/F Multipurpose building, Department of Justice, Padre Faura, Ermita Manila.

In October 2009, the *Philippine Guidelines for the Protection of Trafficked Children* were still awaiting formal publication. However, recognising the potential benefits of the Guidelines, the IACAT took steps to ensure the Guidelines were "cascaded" down to regional and local level for formal adoption and implementation in the places where they were most likely to make a difference.
In considering whether specific guidelines concerning trafficked children were needed in the Philippines, PACT had noted four reasons why a set of guidelines to protect trafficking children needed to be adopted (formally) and implemented in the Philippines. All the reasons seem equally relevant to the other countries involved in this project (and probably many others as well):

1. "The Anti-Trafficking Law (RA 9208) [of 2003] is not focused on child trafficking. There were only a few provisions in the law that relate to children. Nevertheless, the networks recognized that children were at high risk of being criminalized and of being exposed to further abuses during their rescue and recovery. There were many cases reported when children are treated inhumanely like criminals when they are recovered and rescued from trafficking situations. Thus there is a need for a specific guideline for trafficked children.
2. "The Philippines is a State Party to the UNCRC [the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child]. There must be a guideline that must focus on the human rights approach in treating children who are victims of trafficking.
3. "The service providers are not knowledgeable about the human rights issues or standards that require the appropriate measures and treatment of victimized children. The provision of guidelines or standards are important because these provide principles, guiding action and uniformity in the conduct of action, handling and management of the victims especially for the agency, groups or persons who provide the direct services. The guidelines will provide the minimum acceptable actions and behavior in the treatment of children who are victims of trafficking.
4. "Victims of trafficking are not aware of their rights and have very limited access to information. Most often child victims are not informed or are made aware of their rights and consequently are also 'victimized' by the institutions that are supposed to protect them."[40]

Expressing her appreciation for the process which led to the adoption of the Philippine Guidelines, the former Undersecretary of the Department of Social Welfare and Development (Ms Lourdes Balanon) commented that,

> *"National and agency consultations were made, revisions done, subjected to new consultations including inputs from the child survivors, presentation to IACAT for adoption and soft launching of the guidelines. These were effective, efficient and appropriate as the goal of having the PHRS [Philippine Guidelines for the Protection of Trafficked Children] adopted by IACAT was achieved. The helpful factors are the commitment of Asia ACTs to pursue this guideline till its adoption, the cooperation of other stakeholders and the support of IACAT secretariat."*[41]

Table 17 Score card for developing national guidelines in the Philippines

a. Replicability	✓
b. Explicit identification of factors for success or obstacles	✓
c. Effectiveness	✓
d. Checking the effects, including adverse effects	×
f. Child participation	✓
g. Sustainability	✓
h. Promoting cooperation	✓

9.4 Promoting implementation by arranging training for professionals

As UNICEF's Guidelines were initially developed and adopted in countries in SE Europe, they were translated into most of the relevant languages in the region, including Albanian and Macedonian, making the task for Open Gate in the FYROM, of encouraging relevant professionals to follow these guidelines, rather easier. Alongside its efforts to promote knowledge and use of the UNICEF Guidelines among other NGOs, Open Gate decided to focus on social workers as a key profession in the FYROM as far as implementation of the guidelines was concerned. Along with other countries which were once part of Yugoslavia, the Republic of Macedonia has government-run Centres for Social Work (CSWs), whose social workers are responsible for many of the decisions which UNICEF's Guidelines suggest should be taken concerning children who have been trafficked.

Figure 12 UNICEF Guidelines for the Protection of the Rights of Child Victims of Trafficking in Southeastern Europe (2003) in Macedonian

Open Gate organised two training sessions in Skopje (the capital) for social workers, having previously organised a similar session for other NGOs. The first was in June 2008 and the second in September 2009. As in other countries, Open Gate's ability to influence professionals involved in protecting or assisting people

40 Asia ACTS and PACT, *Echoing Voices from the Ground. Good Practice on Policy Advocacy in the Campaign against Child Trafficking in the Philippines*, unpublished, Manilla, 2009.
41 PACT, notes of interview with former Undersecretary Lourdes Balanon, 17 May 2009.

who have been trafficked has been helped by the fact that the NGO is a member of the National Commission for Combating Trafficking in Human Beings and Illegal Migration (chaired by the Ministry of the Interior) and its sub-commission on child trafficking. The chair of the sub-commission on child trafficking, Ms Sanija Burageva, attended the sessions and commented on the differences between the provision of the Guidelines and what was happening in practice. Undoubtedly her status in the Ministry of the Interior helped persuade some social workers to attend and to take the sessions seriously. In addition, Open Gate staff have been in contact with social workers in between the sessions, to answer questions or consider what procedures are appropriate in specific cases. These on-going relationships are based on an understanding among many social workers that Open Gate offers them expertise on the issue of child trafficking and, more specifically, on how trafficked children should be protected and assisted.

A first training session for social workers in June 2008 focused specially on the issue of guardianship (point 2 in UNICEF's Guidelines) and set out to learn lessons from the experience of adolescents under 18 who had spent time at the shelter (for trafficked persons) run by Open Gate. The session was attended by two social workers from the CSW in Skopje and others working at the Open Gate shelter.

Up until this time, whenever a child under-18 was identified as a 'presumed victim of trafficking' (i.e., a suspected or possible victim), a representative of one of the CSWs was supposed to be appointed as a temporary guardian for the child. If the child was Macedonian, her parents retained legal guardianship, but if they were neither present nor available, a social worker still had to be appointed as temporary guardian. Once adolescents were referred to the Open Gate shelter, however, the NGO realised that this procedure did not function well in practice, as the social workers employed by CSWs rarely visited the child for whom they were supposed to be acting as guardian. The adolescents concerned consequently had little opportunity to make their opinions known to their guardian and the guardian could not ensure that the adolescent's views were taken into account when decisions affecting the child were made, or that these decisions regarded the child's best interests as a primary consideration.

Open Gate suggested a change in procedure, so that one of the shelter social workers, who was in routine contact with an adolescent residing it the NGO's shelter, would take on the role of guardian and report to the CSW every two weeks or so on the child's situation and progress. The change was accepted and the new procedure was reported to be functioning well in 2009. The disadvantage of the new procedure is that Open Gate has ended up funding all the costs of assistance (such as medical treatment) required by the young people concerned.

The most recent session for social workers, in September 2009, was an opportunity for social workers from around the country to come to Skopje to make comments and raise questions about the operation of UNICEF's Guidelines in practice. The focus was on the FYROM's Action Plan to combat trafficking in human beings for the period 2009 to 2012, which had just come into force, in particular on the issue of the identification of child victims (point 1 in UNICEF's Guidelines). As in other countries in SE Europe involved in the project, there was some confusion about which children found begging in public places should be regarded as 'victims of trafficking'. A variety of other issues were raised. For example, regarding point 9 of the Guidelines, access to justice, social workers noted that compensation had now been granted to victims of traffickers in three cases, but that the amounts made in the awards varied widely (500,000 Macedonian Denars in one case and 350,000 and 150,000 Denars in the others: equivalent, respectively, to € 8,150, € 5,700 and € 2,450), for no obvious reason. Identifying such issues was just a first step towards working out how they should be tackled.

Table 18 Score card for encouraging implementation in the FYROM of UNICEF's Guidelines

a. Replicability	?
b. Explicit identification of factors for success or obstacles	✓
c. Effectiveness	✓
d. Checking the effects, including adverse effects	×
e. Child participation	?
f. Sustainability	×
g. Promoting cooperation	✓

9.5 Practical obstacles encountered to the implementation of UNICEF's Guidelines and ways of overcoming them

The lessons learnt in the three regions involved in this project suggest that there are three distinct stages to implementing a human rights approach as far as protecting and assisting children who have been trafficked are concerned:

1. Getting a suitable set of standards (such as guidelines) in the national language (either translating UNICEF's Guidelines or adapting these to the regional or national context) and disseminating these;
2. Persuading relevant national authorities to commit themselves formally to implementing the procedures outlines in the Guidelines;
3. Resolving practical problems to ensure that the Guidelines work in practice and are not just a piece of paper which ends up being shelved and ignored because of practical obstacles.

In SE Asia and SE Europe, several countries have reached stage 3 and have encountered all sorts of practical difficulties in getting the guidelines respected, even when it seems clear that government agencies have the political will to implement them. The most obvious example concerns the costs of assistance, where Open Gate in the FYROM has ended up paying the costs of emergency medical attention for trafficked adolescents because of the bureaucratic delays which will otherwise delay an urgently needed examination by a doctor or other health professional. Similar obstacles have been identified elsewhere concerning costs of either school education or vocational training. In theory, of course, if governments commit themselves to respecting procedures that guarantee assistance to trafficked children but fail to resolve

the bureaucratic obstacles to doing so, they are violating their own commitments. In practice, however, it is up to an NGO or other agency to identify the obstacles and diagnose what their causes are, so that it can refer them to relevant government officials to resolve, and undertake the advocacy that is necessary to persuade officials to do so. The lesson, therefore, is that it is not sufficient simply to change policy at national level. The NGOs involved deserve supporting for longer so that they can observe what happens in practice and undertake further advocacy on behalf of children, as and when it is needed.

10 BUILDING ALLIANCES TO BRING ABOUT CHANGE

Virtually all the methods described in this study, from chapter 5 to chapter 9, make it clear that effective action against child trafficking (indeed, against any forms of human trafficking) implicitly requires each organisation or agency involved to work closely with others. In addition to developing local-level child protection networks, which by definition involves persuading a variety of individuals from different organisations to work together, one of the four areas where the project intended to bring about results concerned 'networking'. The project set out "to promote the establishment of inter-institutional alliances within target regions as well as active networking between regional project partners in order to enable the replication of successful strategies and actions to address trafficking".

At the international or inter-regional level, the main event to allow organisations based in one region to talk to others occurred in October 2009, when most of the organisations spent a week together in Chiang Mai. However, prior to this, all the participating organisations attended one or more regional meetings in their own region, where they had an opportunity to compare both achievements and obstacles and to discuss possible regional initiatives.

While it should, in theory, be relatively easy to convene different organisations and agencies at national level, the past ten years has shown that it is at national level that divisions between government agencies and NGOs (or among government agencies or among NGOs) have prevented progress. Cooperation between different countries in the same region, yet alone on different continents, is still in its infancy. So, the experience of the project in encouraging networks and alliances at national level is probably the most important to consider.

10.1 Replicating an NGO alliance in countries in SE Europe

10.1.1 Albania

During the early part of this decade both NGOs and other organisations engaged in efforts to stop child trafficking or human trafficking debated whether it was better to establish plans of action, alliances or other structures to respond to all forms of human trafficking, or to develop separate plans and structures to focus on cases of adults, on the one hand, and children, on the other. While there were numerous variables which could be taken into account when deciding what was appropriate in a particular country, the experience of one country in SE Europe, Albania, suggested that an alliance of organisations dedicated specifically to combating child trafficking could produce impressive results.

An alliance called *Së Bashku Kundër Trafikimit të Fëmijëve* (BKTF), All Together against Child Trafficking, was set up in Albania in 2001 as a coalition of six NGOs. By the end of 2003 it had nine members. By 2009 it consisted of 19 national and international NGOs. Early on, BKTF set up an advisory board with representatives from UNICEF, IOM, ILO-IPEC and a representative from Albania's Inter-Ministerial Group against the Trafficking of Human Beings, allowing it to coordinate with both government agencies and international organisations.

> *"The purpose of the BKTF Coalition is to join efforts and take advantage of the experience of its members in advocating for the development of national strategies against child trafficking, establishment and enforcement of child protection mechanisms and improvement of services delivered to children, who are victims of trafficking, abuse or exploitation as well as at risk children".*[42]

The coalition began by organising a meeting of NGOs with two government ministries (Public Order and Social Affairs) on the issue of child trafficking. Since then it has gone from strength to strength, for example coordinating the recommendations of NGOs whenever relevant government policies are being drafted or amended, such as the *National Strategy for Combating Child Trafficking and Protecting Child Victims of Trafficking and the Standards of Social Services for Children and for Trafficked Persons.* The Centre for Integrated Legal Services and Practices (CILSP) has been an active member since the beginning, along with Terre des Hommes.

Figure 13 Children in a suburb of Tirana (Albania)

42 According to the BKTF web-site, http://www.bktf-coalition.org/index2.html, accessed on 19 November 2009.

10.1.2 The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM)

In the FYROM, Open Gate embarked in 2003 on its initial attempts to convene an informal network of organisations concerned about trafficking in human beings (mainly trafficking in women, not specifically about children). In 2006 the network was formalised as *Budnost* (Vigilance). It included NGOs concerned about women's rights in general, as well as those concerned specifically about trafficking in women for the purpose of sexual exploitation. Open Gate acts as spokesperson for the coalition in its contacts with the Government. During the project, Open Gate organised three workshops for *Budnost* members. The first workshop in November 2007 focused specifically on children being trafficked. It was an opportunity to analyse the scale of the problem (of child trafficking) in the country, as well as to introduce UNICEF's Guidelines to other organisations. On other occasions, Open Gate has tried to strengthen the collective voice of the NGOs attending, for example in their ability to influence journalists or government officials.

10.1.3 Kosovo

A national coalition of NGOs on the issue of human trafficking was set up before the project started, at the initiative of the Catholic Relief Service (CRS), mainly to monitor the implementation of Kosovo's first *Plan of Action to Combat Trafficking in Human Beings* (2005 to 2007). PVPT was just one of the Kosovar NGOs involved in this coalition, known as the Partnership Against Trafficking in Human Beings (PATH). At the end of 2007 PATH submitted a set of recommendations to the government for the Second Kosovo Plan of Action, which was to start in 2008 and run until 2010.

By the time the project started, PVPT was already in close contact with the principle ministry involved in anti-trafficking initiatives, the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, in particular because PVPT had been licensed to open a residential centre for trafficked adults and adolescents in 2005. The project with Terre des Hommes gave an opportunity to the PVPT to provide training about ways of protecting and assisting trafficked children, which had been envisaged in the 2005-2007 Plan of Action. Rather than formally set up a new alliance to tie together NGOs concerned about trafficked children, PVPT invested its energy in developing links with the network of Centres for Social Work (CSW) throughout the country and the social workers who were invariably involved whenever anyone under the age of 18 was suspected of having been trafficked.

Three half-day workshops were organised for CSW staff, two in 2008 and a third in May 2009, all focusing on UNICEF's Guidelines. The first was attended primarily by representatives of organisations based in the capital, Pristina, including government officials and other NGOs. The focus here was on interviews with children who might have been trafficked (point 3 in UNICEF's Guidelines). The second was attended by some government officials and CSW social workers from 15 municipalities around the country. Five new CSW social workers from other places, who had not attended the second workshop, came to the third one in May 2009. Eight came back to the third workshop, while seven did not, meaning that social workers from a total of 20 CSWs had attended. The only detracting feature was that all were Albanian-speaking social workers, signifying that Kosovo's Serbian-speaking minority was not involved.

The second workshop talked about procedures for identifying trafficked children and the referral systems in place. Participants presented anecdotal evidence to show that the official procedures suggested in the country's laws and Standard Operating Procedures were not what happened in practice. This was also an opportunity for PVPT's own representative to explain how young people under 18 came to be referred to the rehabilitation centre that PVPT operates (which had just reopened with a focus on 'rehabilitation', rather than as a conventional shelter). The third workshop focused on the topic of the care and protection of trafficked children while they are being assisted, notably while in residential care. This was an opportunity to consider the various challenges involved in ensuring an efficient division of roles between different organisations and effective coordination between them. It was also an opportunity to talk about methods for preventing children from being trafficked and the signs (or 'indicators') that certain children might be at particular risk of being trafficked.

The BKTF model has proved replicable, but the particular circumstances of the two neighbouring countries meant that the alliances developed there look quite different, not least because both the NGOs involved, Open Gate in the FYROM and PVPT in Kosovo, started out with a focus on adult women trafficked into prostitution and it was only in the course of this project that they developed expertise relevant for working with young people under 18.

Table 19 Score card for the replication of an alliance-building model

a. Replicability	✓
b. Explicit identification of factors for success or obstacles	✓
c. Effectiveness	✓
d. Checking the effects, including adverse effects	×
e. Child participation	×
f. Sustainability	?
g. Promoting cooperation	✓

10.2 Developing an alliance between NGOs and individuals in government agencies

Like five of the seven other countries participating in Asia ACTs, the Philippines has a national network campaigning against child trafficking, PACT. This started early in the decade as a loose, informal coalition and was formalised in 2007. However, it is different to the other Asia ACTs country networks (and the other NGO alliances mentioned in this chapter) in that it has individual members as well as organisations that are members. Most of the individual members work for government agencies. Some are engaged professionally in anti-trafficking agencies. The PACT network provides a space and opportunity for civil servants and NGO activists to plan initiatives together.

In some countries such an arrangement would be regarded as unethical or unacceptable for people employed by government

agencies. In others, the formation of an alliance in which both government employees and representatives of civil society can work together proves an effective way to combat human rights violations. Evidently, there is a risk that government employees might use their personal influence in such an alliance to push the government's agenda or priorities and safeguards need to be put into place to ensure this does not happen.

In 2007 PACT consisted of a network of advocates with 27 local chapters around the Philippines. In one area alone, the Zamboanga peninsula in western Mindanao, eight separate organisations supported PACT. Zamboanga City, known as the Philippines' "Latin City", is situated near the southern end of the Philippines (and the western extreme of Mindanao), making it a natural conduit for Filipinos and Filipinas, young and old, wanting to leave their country to earn a living in neighbouring Malaysia. PACT's own description of alliance building in this area notes that,

> *"Region 9 or the Zamboanga Peninsula in the Philippines is considered a hot spot of child trafficking in the country. It is a region where children from poor rural communities are recruited and forced to work in hard labor camps and prostitution dens, either locally or in areas outside the Philippines such as Sabah, Malaysia…From 2004 to 2006 alone, various agencies in Zamboanga City posted 675 cases of human trafficking."*[43]

Figure 14 Zamboanga ferry (Philippines)

A Regional Inter-Agency Council Against Trafficking (RIACAT) was established in Zamboanga in 2005 to coordinate anti-trafficking initiatives, co-chaired by regional representatives of the government's Departments of Justice and Social Welfare and Development. The principal government agencies engaged in combating trafficking were the City Social Welfare and Development Office (CSWDO) and the Philippine National Police (PNP) of Zamboanga City. Expertise on child trafficking was expected to be provided by NGO representatives on the Regional Inter-Agency Council.

When PACT was set up in 2007, it seemed the natural conduit through which NGOs could coordinate their anti-trafficking activities with Regional Inter-Agency Council members. Five NGOs were particularly active in efforts to stop child trafficking in Zamboanga, of which two became members of the Regional Inter-Agency Council, alongside PACT: the Center for Peace and Development–Western Mindanao State University (CPD-WMSU), which has been active in campaigns against child trafficking since 2001, and *Katilingban para sa Kalambuan*, Inc. (KKI), Society for Development, a non-profit organisation founded in 1995 to help poor communities in Zamboanga City. The head of CPD-WMSU, Marcy Carpizo, was also the chair of PACT's national board. She has been able to promote coordination and information sharing between government agencies and NGOs and has consequently come to play a pivotal role in Zamboanga's referral system, when particular children are suspected of being trafficked or trafficked children are repatriated from Malaysia.

The alliance of government agencies and NGOs was also a good forum for promoting the implementation of the *Philippine Guidelines for the Protection of Trafficked Children*. Within weeks of the Guidelines being adopted at national level by the IACAT, in December 2008, various organisations in Zamboanga City, including the Regional Inter-Agency Council, PACT, KKI and Terre des Hommes-Netherlands, signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU), committing all the organisations concerned to adopt and implement the *Philippine Guidelines*. An important part of the agreement states that the adoption of the Guidelines should help ensure the rights of the trafficked child from the time of rescue to the point of reintegration to the community.[44]

Table 20 Score card for developing an alliance between NGOs and government agencies

a. Replicability	✓
b. Explicit identification of factors for success or obstacles	✓
c. Effectiveness	✓
d. Checking the effects, including adverse effects	×
e. Child participation	?
f. Sustainability	?
g. Promoting cooperation	✓

43 PACT, *Forming a United Front in Zamboanga. Good Practice on Building the Child Protection Network in the Philippines*, Unpublished, Manila, 2009.
44 *Ibid*

11 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A substantial part of the activities organised during this project have helped put people in different organisations together with the intention of making their collective efforts on behalf of children more effective and efficient than if they take action separately. The most visible benefits of this were at local and national level. However, within two of the three regions involved (Asia and Europe), a substantial amount of sharing experience and lessons learnt went on between the organisations in different countries. In the remaining region, Latin America, it seems fair to comment that anti-trafficking work is relatively less developed and, as the organisations involved acquired more knowledge of the topic and the challenges involved, they too were aware of the need to learn lessons from elsewhere, rather than to go through the experience of 'inventing the wheel' themselves and committing many of the errors that others had already committed elsewhere.

There are several lessons to learn from this. The first is that donors should invest in ensuring that international standards (such as UNICEF's *Guidelines on the protection of child victims of trafficking*) and information about relevant experience in other regions are translated promptly into Spanish and other languages that are used by substantial numbers of people affected by human trafficking. This lesson also has implications for Terre des Hommes and its partners, so the first recommendation emerging from this study is:

> **Recommendation 1:** Terre des Hommes and its partners should disseminate the finalised Spanish translation of UNICEF's *Guidelines on the protection of child victims of trafficking* to their partners and also to relevant government institutions, intergovernmental organisations and NGOs throughout Latin America and also in Spain.

The second conclusion linked to Latin America is more tenuous: numerous anti-trafficking activities in the Andean region of Latin America have been financed by donors whose principal priority is to see the cultivation and trafficking of narcotics stopped, so naturally their programmes put rather less emphasis on promoting human rights than is appropriate in programmes to stop human trafficking. It would be helpful if donors were to pay more attention to human rights.

While networking at regional and international level brings benefits, the experience of this project suggests that it is principally at local level, at the level of towns or rural communities where people know each other, that bringing people together with the explicit intention of protecting children from harm delivers rapid results. Despite the fact that different professionals or community leaders know each other, they usually have different priorities, different ways of working and different procedures or protocols for reacting when they become aware of a problem. Harmonising these and enabling people to work together in a common network or system for children may seem a simple task, but it is one which has already brought huge benefits. This results in the next recommendation:

> **Recommendation 2:** Continue investing in the development of local level networks to protect children (described in Chapter 8) and monitor, on an annual basis, the progress of the networks which have already been set up or are at a nascent stage, in order to find out which ones prove sustainable (and, if possible, why).

In particular, it would be interesting to replicate in another country the model developed in Bolivia, of organising an accredited university course for the professionals who should potentially participate in a local level network, to see whether it is economical to hold such a course in places where the relative costs are different. On a number of scores, the experience of this project suggests that children who had been trafficked did not have a sufficiently active role in providing information about their experiences or advice about what types of action would have most helped them before, during or after they were trafficked.

> **Recommendation 3:** Terre des Hommes and its partners should make an investment in developing ways to enable children to participate in the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of their anti-trafficking activities, notably by building on the experience of organisations which have already found ways of doing so.

The participation of children who have been trafficked is a particular priority, though so far (either in the framework of this project or others) it seems to have only been in the Philippines that trafficked children have been consulted about the terms of Guidelines to protect trafficked children.

> **Recommendation 4:** When seeking to adapt or implement guidelines at national or regional level to protect trafficked children, seek to replicate the experience of the Philippines in enabling such children to express their views about the provisions of the guidelines and having their views taken into account.

Virtually all the activities described in this study required accurate information about the experience of trafficked children to be available, confirming that any organisation planning an anti-child trafficking initiative should find out what the experience of children has been in the area where their initiative is scheduled to be put into practice. At the same time, the experience of the project shows that child trafficking is often only one amongst an array of forms of abuse and that it is important to find out what other

forms of child abuse are reported in a particular community. In such circumstances, it would usually be inappropriate to provide information to children or adults, which focuses narrowly on the issue of trafficking, without also addressing other, related forms of abuse.

Recommendation 5: All efforts to prevent child trafficking or to protect or assist trafficked children should be accompanied or preceded by the collection of information about patterns of child trafficking and exploitation in the areas concerned, and this information should be used to inform any new efforts.

Recommendation 6: Information should also be collected about other forms of child abuse which are reported to be occurring, so that any public information activities can mention the various forms of abuse to which children in a particular community are exposed. Even in an anti-trafficking project, public information need not focus narrowly on the issue of trafficking.

Recommendation 7: Consideration should also be given to teaching children life skills, as a way of enabling young people to avoid violence and abuse. The long-term effects of teaching life skills or providing information about particular forms of child abuse should be monitored.

While much work has been accomplished during this project to monitor and influence the quality of media reports on child trafficking, more remains to be done, both in the countries where efforts have already been made to improve the quality of journalists' work and elsewhere. As this study is being published shortly after the 20th anniversary of the adoption of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (in 1989), it would seem appropriate in the 21st year of the Convention's existence to give particular priority to further improving the quality of media reporting about children.

Recommendation 8: Terre des Hommes and its partners should disseminate the models set out in Tables 7 and 8 in this study, which were developed in SE Europe for objectively measuring the quality of media reports. They should make these models available to all Terre des Hommes organisations and also to other international NGOs concerned with child rights and child protection and to journalists' organisations. They should also seek finance to translate these models into other relevant languages.

Recommendation 9: Terre des Hommes and its partners should continue their efforts to improve the quality of media reports about children and child abuse in general, not limiting their efforts to child trafficking, and give priority to ensuring the participation of both children and journalists in these efforts. It is a particular priority to enable journalists to hear the views of children who have been the subject of poor quality or abusive reporting.

On one particular criterion mentioned in the 15 score cards presented in this study – "d. Checking the effects, including adverse effects" – none of the examples described in score cards performed well (14 out of the 15 had not checked for adverse effects; in the case of the one exception, it was not clear). The implication is that, like most other organisations engaged in anti-trafficking activities, Terre des Hommes and its partners still have to develop methods for checking all the effects of their activities, in particular for checking possible adverse effects. A previous Terre des Hommes publication quoted a handbook on impact assessment for development agencies[45] as giving 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)."

The same handbook points out that, "There are negative impacts even of very good activities. It is nothing to be embarrassed of… [T]his study [in Pakistan] stresses to the researchers (local Oxfam staff) that their attitude and willingness to hear about negative impacts is also critical".[46] This leads to the final recommendation:

Recommendation 10: Terre des Hommes should ensure that its projects and programmes allocate adequate resources to monitoring and evaluating their effects. Terre des Hommes should develop and share with its partners appropriate methods for detecting both adverse effects and other unplanned side effects of its activities, whether on children or others in the communities where its activities have an impact.

The project has produced a rich set of lessons and already exposed many project participants to new methods and new experiences. Hopefully this study will make these lessons accessible to a wider audience and contribute to improvements throughout the world in the quality of initiatives to stop child trafficking.

45 See Mike Dottridge, *A handbook on planning projects to prevent child trafficking,* International Federation Terre des Hommes, Lausanne, 2007, page 64 quoting Chris Roche, *Impact Assessment for Development Agencies – Learning to Value Change*, Oxfam GB with Novib, 1999.

46 Chris Roche, *Impact Assessment for Development Agencies – Learning to Value Change,* Oxfam GB with Novib, 1999, page 44. Much of this publication is now available on Internet at: http://books.google.co.uk/books?id=r7UDJnFmWH0C&dq=Impact+Assessment+for+Development+Agencies&printsec=frontcover&source=bn&hl=en&ei=YkEhS_3bAs6k4QaSncDmCQ&sa=X&oi=book_result&ct=result&resnum=4&ved=0CBoQ6AEwAw#v=onepage&q=&f=false

12 APPENDIXES

Appendix 1. Organisations participating in the project

Organisations in Latin America

IDEIF (Instituto de Estudios por la Infancia y la Familia)
Address: Jr. Ró Danubio Mz. M2 Lt. 16, Urb. Las Praderas - La Molina, PERU
Tel: +5113656882
Email: ongideif@yahoo.com
Website: www.ideif.org.pe

INFANTE – Promoción Integral de la Mujer y la Infancia
Address: Calle Juan Crisostomo Carrillo 931,Cochabamba, BOLIVIA
Tel: +591 4 4526614
Email: direccion@infante-bolivia.org
Website: www.infante-bolivia.org

Fundación Renacer
Address: Carrera 64 No 48-69, Barranquilla, COLOMBIA
Tel: +57 1 8050217
Email: renacer@fundacionrenacer.org; renaceratlantico@gmail.com
Website: www.fundacionrenacer.org

Corporación Sinapsis
Address: Av. 22 Nº 40-69 Of. 501 A Bogota, COLOMBIA
Tel: +57 1 269 2089
Email: sinapsis@corporacionsinapsis.org; corpsinapsis@gmail.com

Organisations in Southeast Europe

CILSP (Centre for Integrated Legal Services and Practices)
Qendra e Shërbimeve dhe Praktikave Ligjore të Integruara (QSHPLI)
Address: Bulv. Gjergj Fishta, Kulla 5, Ap. 50 Tirana, ALBANIA
Email: office@qshpli.org

Open Gate - La Strada Macedonia
Address: P.O. Box 110, Skopje 1000, Republic of MACEDONIA (FYROM)
Tel: + 389 2 2700 107
Email: lastrada@on.net.mk
Website: http://www.lastrada.org.mk/

PVPT (Centre for Protection of Victims and Prevention of Trafficking in Human Beings)
Qendra për Mbrojtjen e Viktimave dhe Parandalimin e Trafikimit të Qenieve Njerëzore
Address: Pashko Vasa 11A Prishtinë, KOSOVO
Tel/Fax : +381 38 226 305
Email: hamijet_dedolli@yahoo.com
Website: http://pvptcenter.net/

Organisations in Southeast Asia

Asia ACTs (Regional Secretariat)
Address: Rm. 312 Philippine Social Science Center, Commonwealth Avenue, Diliman, Quezon City, PHILIPPINES
Tel: (+63) 2 929 0822 - Fax: (+63) 2 929 0820
Email: asiaacts@pldtdsl.net
Website: www.asia-acts.org

Cambodia ACTs (Country network in Cambodia)
Focal point: Vulnerable Children Assistance Organization (VCAO)
Address: House #72 Street 608, Sangkat Beoung Kok II, Khan Toul Kork, Phnom Penh, CAMBODIA
Tel: (+855-12) 303 016; (+855 -92) 322 042
Email: cambodiaacts@online.com.kh
Number of member organisations: 12

Indonesia ACT (Country network in Indonesia)
Address: Jalan Mesjid i/11,RT 01/11, Bidara Cina, Jatinegra, Jakarta 1330, INDONESIA
Telefax: (+62) 21-850-7823
Email: ind_acts@yahoo.com
Website: www.Indonesia-ACTs.com
Number of member organisations: 16
Headed by a national coordinator and a presidium of the executive directors of two NGOs (currently KKSP-Medan and Yayasan Setara).

Philippines ACT (Country network in the Philippines)
Address: Rm. 316 Philippine Social Science Center, Commonwealth Avenue, Diliman, Quezon City, PHILIPPINES
Tel: (+63) 2 929-0347
Email: philippinecampaign@gmail.com
Number of member organisations: more than 50

Burma ACT (Country network in Burma)
Focal Point: Human Rights Education Institute of Burma (HREIB)
Address: P.O. BOX 485, CHIANG MAI, 50000, THAILAND
Fax: (+66 53) 120-422
Email: myomin@cscoms.com
Number of member organisations: 15

Child Trafficking Watch Thailand (CTWT) (Country network in Thailand)
Focal Points: Hill Area Development Foundation (Chiang Rai), Community and Child Development Network Center (Sobmoei district, Mae Hong Son) and Gabfai Community Theater Group (Chiang Mai)
Address: 25/6 TonKam 2 Thasala Muang Chiangmai 50000, THAILAND
Email: ctwt_tfkth@hotmail.com
Number of member organisations: 25

Village Focus International (Focal point in Laos)
Address: PO Box 4697, Saphanmo Village, Vientiane, LAO PDR
Tel/Fax: 85621 452080
Email: kongsengsrv@hotmail.com
Website: www.villagefocus.org

Ho Chi Minh City Child Welfare Foundation (Focal point in Vietnam)
Address: 85/65 Phanm Viet Chanh St. Ward 19, Binh Thanh District, Ho Chi Minh City, VIETNAM
Tel: (+84-8) 840-1406 Fax: (+84-8) 840-1407
Email: hcwf@htco.com.vn; kiemtienhcwf@gmail.com

Coordinating Terre des Hommes (TdH) organisations

Latin America

TdH Switzerland (Geneva)
National Coordination for Colombia
Carrera 27 A Nº 40 A – 68, Bogota COLOMBIA
Tel: +57 1 344 08 18
Email: tdhs.col@etb.net.co

TdH Germany
Regional Office for the Andean region
Casilla Postal 271, Calle Washington 1642, Cochabamba BOLIVIA
Tel: +591-4-4404501
Email: tdha.cr@acelerate.com

TdH Italy
National Coordination for Colombia
Avenida Cra.24 No. 40-69 Of. 501, Bogota COLOMBIA
Tel: +57 1 3686605
E-mail: tdhitalia@tdhitcolombia.org

Southeast Europe

TdH Foundation
Regional Office for SE Europe
Budapest, Vamhaz Korut, 8. 1/5 - 1053 HUNGARY
Tel: +36 12665922
Website: www.tdh-childprotection.org/

Southeast Asia

TdH Netherlands
Regional Office for SE Asia
Jl. Terusan Hang Lekir I No. 14C, Jakarta 12222 INDONESIA
Tel: +62 21 722 0202
Website: www.tdhnl.org/

Appendix 2. The Questionnaire

Project Activities

1. What have been the main activities you have completed so far under the 4 objectives of the project:
   (a) Capacity-building of NGOs and media;
   (b) Awareness-raising and empowerment (of communities) at local level;
   (c) Advocacy at national and regional level;
   (d) and Establishing networks.
2. What are the main activities which remain to be started or completed?
3. In what ways have children participated in the project activities?

Results

4. What has been the most important achievement so far?
5. What have been main results of the project achieved so far under each of the 4 headings?

The next 5 questions are about the project's impact on 5 target groups. In each case the question is the same: "Is there evidence of any impact of the project's activities on this target audience"?

6. Is there evidence of any impact of the project's activities on victims (children) or potential victims of traffickers?
7. Is there evidence of any impact of on other NGOs?
8. Is there evidence of any impact on the media?
9. Is there evidence of any impact on government policies and practices?
10. Is there evidence of any impact on local communities?
11. Has the way that the various people or organisations responsible for child protection at local level take action changed in any way as a result of the project activities?
12. Have you developed any other links or alliances to address the issue of child trafficking or exploitation?
13. Did the project have any unexpected or unplanned results (positive or negative)? If so, what were these?
14. What have been the main disappointments?
15. Are there any ways in which you think children are better protected now than at the beginning of the project?

Methods used

16. Which of the activities or methods used during the project proved especially effective?
17. To what extent have there been synergies between the project and other initiatives in your country?
18. Have any unexpected risks or opportunities or other external factors had an impact on the project's progress?
19. What are the strengths in the way the project has been implemented?
20. What are the weaknesses in the way the project has been implemented?
21. What other factors have helped or hindered the project from achieving its objectives?
22. Did you feel you had ample leeway to innovate or redesign the activities to meet the needs in your country?
23. How did you find out about the results or impact of the project's activities?
24. Did you monitor any indicators to assess the project's results? If so, what were the indicators and were they helpful?

Project management

25. Are there major administrative or management issues which have come up?
26. How easy or difficult was it for your organisation to coordinate with Claire or with the other organisations taking part in this project?

Lessons learnt

NB 'lessons learnt' are generalizations 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.

27. What lessons have been learned since the project started, which you would apply in the future?
28. Should the project or particular activities be changed before the end of the project in 2010? If so, why and how?
29. Should the project or particular activities be continued in the future (after the end of the current project)? If so, which particular activities should continue and why?
30. Have you discovered anything that you would call a "good practice" in the course of this project? If so, what? And what criteria do you think should be used to identify a good practice?

Appendix 3. Activities initially planned in the project

The activities planned for the project came under four headings:

1. Capacity-building of NGOs and media;
2. Awareness-raising and empowerment at local level;
3. Advocacy at national and regional level; and
4. Networking.

Each of the boxes below specifies the activities that were undertaken in relation to each of the headings.

1. Capacity-building of NGOs and media

Activity 1.1 Press review, observation, analysis of press coverage on child trafficking and monitoring
Activity 1.2 Sensitization and training of journalists on trafficking and child rights
Activity 1.3 Promotion of regional networking among specialized journalists
Activity 1.4 Training of NGOs in building advocacy files on child rights' violations
Activity 1.5 Awareness-raising by NGOs in cooperation with the media to step up human-rights based coverage on child trafficking

2. Awareness-raising and empowerment at local level

Activity 2.1 Community training to raise awareness of vulnerable groups and strengthen families and community protective mechanisms
Activity 2.2 Training of civil society and community members to improve local child protection systems
Activity 2.3 Sensitization and training of child duty bearers [i.e., duty bearers relating to child protection & rights] and local governments' stakeholders on child trafficking and protection needs at community level
Activity 2.4 Meetings with relevant stakeholders to promote local networking and enhanced, coordinated protection mechanisms against child trafficking

3. Advocacy at national and regional level

Activity 3.1 Promotion of the guidelines and human rights standards through awareness-raising activities
Activity 3.2 Training sessions about the guidelines and protection standards among NGO and child duty bearers
Activity 3.3 Advocacy through networking for improvements in legal and social policy measures integrating minimum human rights standards for the treatment of trafficked persons

4. Networking

Activity 4.1 Inter-regional workshop at the beginning of the project
Activity 4.2 Networking at regional level
Activity 4.3 Regional workshops for experience-sharing and ongoing assessment
Activity 4.4 Inter-regional conference for experience-sharing and evaluation
Activity 4.5 Development and dissemination of a study on inter-regional good practices

Appendix 4. UNICEF's Principles for ethical reporting on children

The following six Principles for ethical reporting on children were prepared by UNICEF for journalists and other media professionals. They can be found at http://www.unicef.org/media/media_tools_guidelines.html

1. The dignity and rights of every child are to be respected in every circumstance.
2. In interviewing and reporting on children, special attention is to be paid to each child's right to privacy and confidentiality, to have their opinions heard, to participate in decisions affecting them and to be protected from harm and retribution, including the potential of harm and retribution.
3. The best interests of each child are to be protected over any other consideration, including over advocacy for children's issues and the promotion of child rights.
4. When trying to determine the best interests of a child, the child's right to have their views taken into account are to be given due weight in accordance with their age and maturity.
5. Those closest to the child's situation and best able to assess it are to be consulted about the political, social and cultural ramifications of any reportage.
6. Do not publish a story or an image which might put the child, siblings or peers at risk even when identities are changed, obscured or not used.

Appendix 5. Contents of UNICEF's Guidelines for the protection of child victims of trafficking (2006)

INTRODUCTION
1. DEFINITION

2. GENERAL PRINCIPLES
    1. Rights of the Child
    2. Best Interests of the Child
    3. Right to Non-Discrimination
    4. Respect for the Views of the Child
    5. Right to Information
    6. Right to Confidentiality
    7. Right to be protected
    8. Definition of roles and steps
    9. Coordination/Cooperation

3. Identification
    1. Pro-active identification measures
    2. Presumption of age

4. Appointment of a Guardian
    1. Appointment process
    2. Responsibilities of the guardian

5. Registration and Documentation
    1. Initial questioning
    2. Initial action
    3. Interviewing the child victims about their experience

6. Regularization of Status

7. Interim Care and Protection
    1. Care and protection
    2. Accommodation in a safe place

8. Individual Case Assessment
    1. Tracing
    2. Risk Assessment
    3. Best interest determination

9. Implementation of Durable Solution
    1. Local integration
    2. Return to the country or place of origin
    Reception and reintegration
    3. Resettlement and integration in a third country
    4. Follow up

10. Access to Justice
    1. Criminal Proceedings
    2. Civil Proceedings
    3. Prevention of deprivation of liberty
    4. Victim/Witness Security and Protection

11. Cost of proceedings, financial assistance, reparation, compensation

12. Research and data collection
    1. Ethical principles
    2. Ethical questions
    3. Misinformation as a coping strategy

BIBLIOGRAPHY
    Applicable International Conventions
    Other Selected Human Rights Instruments and Guidelines
    Other Publications

Appendix 6. Contents of the Philippine Guidelines (2008)

The Philippine Guidelines for the Protection of Trafficked Children contain the following headings in Section 2 about General Principles:

2.2 Rights of the Trafficked Child
2.3 Best interests of the child
2.4 Right to non-discrimination
2.5 Respect for the views of the Trafficked Child
2.6 Right to Information
2.7 Right to Confidentiality
2.8 Respect for the Child's Ethnic, Cultural, Faith and Religious identity
2.9 Responsibility of the State

Section 3 on specific guidelines specifies procedures on:

3.1 Detection and Identification of a Trafficked Child (Presumption of Age and Pro-active identification measures)
3.2 Initial Contact (Initial Action; Law Enforcement procedures; Medico-legal Examination; and Other Interviews)
3.3 System of referral, Coordination and Cooperation (International and regional Mechanisms; National Mechanisms)
3.4 Interim Care and Protection (Safe places for children; Support services; Legalization of status)
3.5 Social case Management of Trafficking Children (Individual case assessment; Identification of a Long-Term Solution; Implementation of a Long-Term Solution; Monitoring and Evaluation of a Long-Term Solution)
3.6 Access to Justice (Criminal Proceedings; Civil Proceedings; Victim/Witness Security and Protection)
3.7 Care and Protection for Service Providers (Compensation; Legal Assistance; Support System)
3.8 Capacity building (Service providers; Communities)

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