

Combating trafficking in children for labour exploitation

A resource kit for policy-makers and practitioners

Book 1: Understanding what child trafficking is

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

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

Contents of Book 1

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

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

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

Target Audience

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

1.1 INTRODUCTION

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

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



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

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

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

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

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



Resource 1.1 (on CD ROM)

United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989

1.3 MIGRATION CONTEXT

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



Resource 1.2

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

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

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

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

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



Resource 1.3

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

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



Resource 1.4

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

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

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



Resource 1.5.

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



Resource 1.6

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

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

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



Resource 1.7.

ILO Multilateral framework on labour migration, 2005



Resource 1.8.

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

An overview of international labour standards.

1.4 MIGRATION AND SMUGGLING OF PEOPLE ARE NOT TRAFFICKING

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

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

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

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

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

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

1.5 CHILD TRAFFICKING IS A WORST FORM OF CHILD LABOUR

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

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



Resource 1.9

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

1.6 THE CORE ELEMENTS OF CHILD TRAFFICKING

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

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

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

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



Resource 1.10

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

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

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

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

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



Resource 1.11

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

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



Resource 1.12

Visual illustration of differences between child and adult trafficking

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

1.6.1 Child trafficking begins with recruitment

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

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

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



Resource 1.13

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

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

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

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

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

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

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



Resource 1.14

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

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

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

1.6.2 Child trafficking involves movement

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

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

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

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

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

1.6.3 The result of child trafficking is exploitation

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

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

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



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

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

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

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

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



Resource 1.15

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

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

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

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



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

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

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

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

**Resource 1.16**

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

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

1.7

RISK FACTORS AND VULNERABILITY

Poverty alone cannot explain why:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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



Resource 1.17

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Resource 1.18**

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

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

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

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

**Resource 1.19**

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

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

1.8 TRAFFICKING IS OFTEN A LOOP, NOT A STRAIGHT LINE

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

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

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



1.9 WHO ARE THE TRAFFICKERS?

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



Resource 1.20

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

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



Resource 1.21

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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



Resource 1.22

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

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

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



Resource 1.23

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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



Resource 1.24

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

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

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

1.10 WHAT IS DEMAND?

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

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

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

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

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

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

1.11 THE IMPACT OF TRAFFICKING

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

1.11.1 The impact of trafficking on children and families

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

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

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

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

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

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

1.11.2 The impact of trafficking on society

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

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

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

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

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

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

RESOURCES REFERRED TO IN BOOK 1

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

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

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

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