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# PROMISING APPROACHES — ADDRESSING CHILD TRAFFICKING IN EUROPE AND EURASIA

FINAL REPORT

**FEBRUARY, 2013**

This report was produced for the United States Agency for International Development Europe and Eurasia Bureau's Social Transition Team, Office of Democracy, Governance and Social Transition (USAID/E&E/DGST) by the Aguirre Division of JBS International, Inc. Its author is Ruth Rosenberg.

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The author's views expressed in this publication do not necessarily reflect the views of the United States Agency for International Development or the United States Government.



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## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I want to thank the many people throughout the region who gave generously of their time and insights into child trafficking, with special thanks to: Irena Taga, Danjela Shkalla, Zini Kore, Klara Simoni, and Mariana Meshi in Albania; Ovsanna Babayan and Nazeli Asriyan in Armenia; Tatiana Ivanyuk, in Ukraine; Olga Kolpakova in Russia; Antigona Dajakaj in Kosovo; and Ivana Radovic, in Serbia. I would like to give special thanks to Valbona Lenja who undertook field research on child trafficking in Albania. Her inputs into the report have been invaluable. Special thanks also to Anvar Serojtdinov for the significant time he spent extracting and sharing data from the IOM Global Counter-Trafficking Database. I want to thank USAID, especially Cathy Cozzarelli, as well as the staff of the Aguirre Division of JBS International, especially Nicole Zdrojewski and Joseph Belarmino for their research assistance and support while I was drafting this report. Special thanks go to David Dunn for his careful editing of the report. Please note that any mistakes contained in this report are fully mine.

I hope that readers of this report will find it a useful tool for designing programs to address child trafficking.

Ruth Rosenberg

## TERMINOLOGY

**Child:** For the purposes of this report the term child refers to any person under the age of 18, as defined by the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, Article One. Please note, however, that some persons under the age of 18 are given the status of adults under the law for various reasons in different countries.

**Minor:** This term is used interchangeably with child to refer to someone under the age of 18.

**Youth:** Youth refers to the transition phase between childhood and adulthood. Both the United Nations and the World Bank define youth as young men and women aged 15 to 24 years old (United Nations, 2010; World Bank, *n.d.*).

**Minority:** The term minority refers to persons whose ethnicity, religion, language or cultural identity is distinct from the majority of persons living in their country of origin or the country in which they reside. (For a detailed discussion of the term, its history and usage see Carter, 2001.) Although there are many different minorities in the Europe and Eurasia region, there is far more information available about the Roma, who are also widely present in the region.

**Child Labor:** The term child labor is used to distinguish harmful forms from acceptable forms of children’s work or employment. The ILO defines child labor as “work that deprives children of their childhood, their potential and their dignity, and that is harmful to physical and mental development.” The ILO further clarifies this as referring to work that is “mentally, physically, socially, or morally dangerous or harmful” or work that disrupts a child’s education (ILO, *What is Child Labour?*). (For an in-depth discussion of child labor terminology, see Edmonds, 2009.)

### Distinguishing between acceptable and unacceptable child work.

Not all work done by children should be classified as child labor and targeted for elimination. Children’s or adolescents’ participation in work that does not affect their health and personal development or interfere with their schooling is generally regarded positively. This includes activities such as helping their parents around the home, assisting in a family business, or earning money outside school hours and during school holidays. These kinds of activities contribute to children’s development and to the welfare of their families. They provide children with skills and experience and help prepare them to be productive adult members of society.

**Child Trafficking:** The internationally accepted definition of child trafficking, quoted below, is taken from the “Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking In Persons, Especially Women and Children, Supplementing The United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime.”

- (a) “Trafficking in persons” shall mean the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs;
- (b) The consent of a victim of trafficking in persons to the intended exploitation set forth in subparagraph (a) of this article shall be irrelevant where any of the means set forth in subparagraph (a) have been used;
- (c) The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of a child for the purpose of exploitation shall be considered “trafficking in persons” even if this does not involve any of the means set forth in subparagraph (a) of this article;
- (d) “Child” shall mean any person under eighteen years of age.

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Child trafficking affects all of the countries of the Europe and Eurasia (E&E) region. This report is written specifically for USAID Missions in the region, where funding for addressing trafficking has been declining for some time. Because this decline in funding is expected to continue in the coming years, this report briefly discusses child trafficking issues and then suggests how USAID might address these issues within the scope of ongoing or planned programming. The report's findings, analysis, and recommendations are based on information from three sources: (a) data on child trafficking extracted from the International Organization for Migration's Global Counter-Trafficking Database (IOM GCT Database); (b) documentation from research, evaluations, and other reports on child trafficking and related issues; and (c) interviews with people involved in managing counter-trafficking programs in the region.

### SCOPE OF TRAFFICKING OF CHILDREN IN THE REGION

Comprehensive and reliable data on the scope of human trafficking in general and child trafficking in particular are almost non-existent, making it impossible to report the actual number of child victims of trafficking in the region. There are several trends, however, that can help direct anti-trafficking efforts to areas with the greatest need:

- An increase in the percentage of children among the identified victims of trafficking (Hartl, 2010; Republic of Serbia, n.d.; State Coordinator for Combating THB and Illegal Migration in Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2011; UNODC, 2009).
- An increase in the number of males (boys and men) being identified as trafficked (Ćopić & Dimitrijević, 2009; IOM, 2012; Rusu & Fomina, 2010).
- More children are being exploited within their own countries of origin (Milovanovic, 2011; National Committee for Combating Trafficking in Persons, 2011; Republic of Serbia, n.d.; Rusu and Fomina, 2010; Save the Children, 2011b; State Coordinator for Combating THB and Illegal Migration in Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2011; UNODC, 2009).

These changes in reported numbers of identified child victims of trafficking and child exploitation may reflect increased vigilance and recognition of particular forms of exploitation. The trend of increasing numbers points to a need for continued or perhaps increased vigilance.

### WHO ARE THE VICTIMS: DEMOGRAPHICS AND VULNERABILITY FACTORS

Child victims of trafficking are not a homogenous group, and one cannot describe a typical victim of trafficking. However, information available on trafficked children that were assisted point to vulnerability factors and demographic characteristics that many child victims have in common.

**Age.** Although children of any age can be and are trafficked for all forms of exploitation, there are general age-related trends: younger children tend to be trafficked for begging and street work, while older children tend to be trafficked for other forms of labor and sexual exploitation.

**Family Life.** Many trafficked children report experiences of domestic violence, substance abuse, and family crisis resulting from changes in family dynamics as well as troubled relationships with their parents (Cozzarelli, 2011; Delap, 2009; Dottridge, 2006; Kane, 2005; Rusu & Fomina, 2010; Wolfensohn, 2004). However, children with close and supportive families who leave home seeking work to supplement their family's income can also end up being trafficked. Also, because they lack maturity, life skills, and family support, children in institutional care are vulnerable to trafficking when they leave the institution to establish independent lives. Children, whose parents migrate, leaving them on their own, with relatives, or in institutional care, are a special concern in countries with extremely high levels of out-migration, such as Moldova, Romania, and Ukraine (ILO-IPEC, 2007; Kontula & Saaristo, 2009).

**Education.** Statistics on identified victims in the region suggest that children with little or no schooling may be more vulnerable to some forms of trafficking and that enrollment in school provides some protection against trafficking (Delap, 2009; IOM CT Database; Save the Children, 2011a; Save the Children, 2011b).

**Economic Status.** Poverty is linked with vulnerability to trafficking. Most of the trafficked children interviewed in studies conducted in the region—both those exploited for begging and those trafficked for sexual exploitation—were from poor families (Kane, 2005; Rusu & Fomina, 2010). Data from IOM’s GCT Database corroborate this finding: 82 percent of assisted child victims from the region, whose economic status was known, came from poor or very poor families.

**Discrimination / Social Exclusion.** Trafficking appears to disproportionately affect both ethnic minority children, especially Roma<sup>1</sup> (U.S. Department of State, 2011; ERRC, 2011), and children with disabilities. Areas in which vulnerable groups find themselves at a disadvantage relative to majority populations include: access to education, poverty, and early marriage. There is also cause for concern that some forms of trafficking may not be as comprehensively addressed because they are thought to affect primarily Roma or other minority children, such as trafficking for begging purposes.

## **HOW CHILDREN ARE TRAFFICKED IN THE REGION**

**Source and Destination Countries.** Nearly all of the countries of the region are to some extent countries of origin, destination, and transit for child victims of trafficking. Most children from the region are trafficked internally, within the region, or to Western Europe. However, cases have also been recorded of trafficking to Turkey, the Middle East, Southeast Asia, and the United States (U.S. Department of State, 2011). While Russia is the most common country of destination, children are often trafficked within their own country or to neighboring countries. There are also reported cases of trafficking of children from outside the E&E region into the region (Dottridge 2006).

**Recruitment.** Children are recruited by strangers as well as by persons known to them or their family, such as a friend, boyfriend, close relative, or neighbor (Dottridge 2006; IOM GCT Database; Kane, 2005; Rusu & Fomina, 2010). Children are also exploited by their parents or legal guardians.

**Forms of Trafficking / Type of Exploitation.** Children are trafficked for a wide range of purposes. Although there are gender differences in the types of exploitation typically experienced by boys and girls, there is much crossover. While trafficked girls are most often exploited in prostitution, begging, or domestic work, they are also sometimes exploited in construction or agriculture. While boys are most often exploited in begging, construction and agriculture, they are also exploited in prostitution and domestic work (Dottridge, 2006; ERRC, 2011; Kane, 2005; Rusu & Fomina, 2010; U.S. Department of Labor, 2011; U.S. Department of State, 2011).

**Abuse and Control Mechanisms.** Mechanisms used to control children who were trafficked include: violence and threats of violence, physical confinement or constant surveillance, withholding of identity documents, forced addiction to drugs and alcohol, emotional manipulation and exploitation of a position of authority (Dottridge, 2008b; Rusu & Fomina, 2010; Kapoor, 2007). Children are subjected to a wide range of abuse while trafficked, including: long working hours, exposure to harsh weather; poor as well as unsanitary living conditions; harassment by authorities; withholding of all or part of their earnings; sexual abuse, violence and harassment; adverse health consequences from exposure to toxic substances, dangerous machinery, and forced drug and alcohol addiction (Anti-Slavery International, n.d.; Delap, 2009; ILO-IPEC, 2006; ILO-IPEC, 2007; ILO-IPEC, 2009; Kane, 2005; Rusu & Fomina, 2010; Save the Children, 2011a; U.S. Department of Labor, 2011).

## **HOW TRAFFICKED CHILDREN ARE PROTECTED IN THE REGION**

**Identification:** The ability to provide direct, protective assistance to trafficked children depends first on properly identifying them. The primary actors who identify victims include law enforcement (police as well as border guards), a wide range of community-based governmental and non-

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1. While Roma are one of the largest minorities in the region, there are many other minority groups, including ethnic groups that may be the majority in one country but are minorities in others (Carter 2001). However, the Roma have been the most studied and the most targeted for programmatic interventions. As a result, this report relies heavily on reports about the Roma minorities in the region. Whether or not these findings are equally applicable to other minorities is not entirely clear (See Carter, 2001, for a more detailed discussion of the minorities in the region and the discrimination they face).

governmental offices and organizations, and labor inspectors. Hotlines, and to a lesser extent, outreach, are mechanisms that help with identification. While countries in the region have worked to improve identification of trafficked children, more work is needed.

**Direct Protective Services.** Trafficked children access many of the same kinds of services as adult victims of trafficking, such as counseling, safe accommodation, education, skills training, and job placement services. These services need to be appropriate for a child's age and circumstances, not just copied from adult service models. Children also need services that adults may not require, such as assistance returning to school or appointment of a guardian. They should be consulted about decisions affecting their lives and should be escorted by a responsible adult when they are repatriated or transferred to a new location. Service provision differs throughout the region. Services may be provided by State actors, non-governmental organizations or local community groups and in shelter-based or community-based settings.

**Interaction with the Justice System.** Some countries in the region have made efforts to prevent further harm to child victims of crime by making their criminal justice procedures more child-friendly. However, corruption and a lack of trust in the judicial system affect prosecution. Available criminal justice statistics on trafficking in the region indicate that only a few of the cases of trafficking that are reported and investigated result in prosecutions and convictions. (The data are available in Appendix V). Failure to effectively prosecute trafficking cases thwarts meaningful justice for victims and may discourage police officers from pursuing human trafficking cases (UNICEF, 2005).

## **HOW CHILD TRAFFICKING IS PREVENTED IN THE REGION**

Prevention strategies that address child trafficking include raising awareness to change the behavior of adults and children, reducing demand, improving child protection mechanisms, and addressing risk and vulnerability factors. Prevention is critical to the long-term eradication of trafficking and since knowledge of trafficking alone cannot guarantee either changed behaviors or reduced vulnerability, the best approach in the near term is likely a combination of strategies.

**Raising Awareness.** Numerous awareness-raising campaigns have taken place throughout the region using mass media, printed materials, theater productions, contests, and many other social marketing tools (c.f. Warnath, 2009). Raising awareness in schools by incorporating trafficking prevention education into curricula appears to be effective in increasing students' understanding of trafficking and knowledge of ways to protect themselves. This is a sustainable approach that does not rely on continuous external funding once the curriculum is in place (Rosenberg, 2006a).

**Education.** As noted above, there are indications that children with lower levels of education face a greater risk of being trafficked. Keeping children in school longer not only provides a better foundation for their future, but also ensures the regular contact between children and school authorities that provides some level of protection. There have been many civil society and government initiatives that encourage children to stay in or return to school, including monetary and non-monetary incentives and social assistance schemes. In many countries of the region, especially in Southeastern Europe, programming has focused on improving the education of Roma children. Several of these interventions have improved attendance and school performance in primary, secondary, and tertiary education (UNICEF, 2010b).

**Safe Migration.** Migration can provide valuable opportunities for youth, and those who are knowledgeable about trafficking can still have dreams that include migration. In coming to understand that trafficking prevention need not be synonymous with preventing migration, organizations and governments learned that it is important to encourage youth to migrate safely rather than imposing restrictions or trying to frighten them out of their desire to migrate. It has proven essential to provide youth with effective tools for migrating safely.

**Improving Child Protection Mechanisms.** Because vulnerability to trafficking is closely associated with other child protection issues, it is important to identify and protect children whose families are in crisis or impoverished, are in homes beset by violence or substance abuse, or whose family composition is changing through death, divorce, re-marriage or migration, and supporting

these children and their families and helping to address their immediate needs. There have been many efforts, by USAID and other organizations, to build community resources to identify and protect at-risk children and their families, including training, the development of protocols or standard operating procedures, and the establishment of community-based response units. USAID has also funded youth centers designed to support children and reduce their vulnerability to being trafficked. These centers provide activities for children, counseling, and education and are reported to be successful in keeping children in school, instilling confidence and pride, as well as teaching important life skills (Delap, 2009; ILO-IPEC, 2007; Wolfensohn, 2004).

**Economic Empowerment.** Poverty is linked with vulnerability to trafficking as families' efforts to counter it often place children at risk because their income is critical to the family's survival (ILO-IPEC, 2007). If working children are exploited, simply removing them from that situation does not diminish this vulnerability because the root problem of family poverty is not addressed. Programs addressing family poverty have included efforts assisting families of at-risk children to access social services and benefits in order to help reduce vulnerability to trafficking (Wargan & Dershem, 2009; World Bank, 2009). Economic development programming in the region aimed at reducing human trafficking also includes micro-credit and training that helps families and youths start small businesses in order to keep children at home and in school (Dottridge, 2008; Delap, 2009; Institute for Development and Social Initiatives "Viitorul," 2009).

**Reducing Demand.** A few programs in the region have targeted the demand-side of child trafficking, primarily trafficking for begging and sexual exploitation. One program focused on reducing donations from the public to discourage exploitation of children in begging. While the program reduced donations and increased public understanding and compassion, it is not clear whether it reduced the number of begging children (Statistical Research Center & Information and Technology, 2007). Although there are no conclusive findings related to trafficking for sexual exploitation, studies indicate that a combination of stricter law enforcement responses toward customers and interventions to change attitudes and behavior toward the use of prostitution may reduce demand (Rosenberg, 2011).

## **RECOMMENDATIONS**

In most countries in the region, USAID support of stand-alone trafficking projects has been declining. While this trend is expected to continue, many options are available to USAID for incorporating anti-trafficking efforts into other projects.

**Perform Due Diligence.** USAID Missions should evaluate implementing partners, grantees, and beneficiary organizations to ensure that they comply with USAID's *Counter-Trafficking in Persons and Contractor/Recipient Compliance Agency-Wide Standard Operating Procedure* and U.S. Government rules and regulations related to child labor and human trafficking. In addition, USAID projects could assist enterprises and firms to develop supply chain management systems to ensure that their suppliers do not exploit child laborers or victims of trafficking.

**Improve Identification of Child Victims of Trafficking and Children in Need of Protection.** USAID support for integrating training on the identification of child victims of trafficking in the standard curricula of relevant professional disciplines in the social work, health, and rule of law sectors would help ensure the sustainability of anti-trafficking interventions. Three types of training are critical for those whose mission is to identify and assist child victims of trafficking: (a) help with developing protocols and standard operating procedures, and (b) coaching on the use of collaborative practices, and (c) developing organizational strategies for addressing child trafficking. In addition, it is also important to address children's capacity to recognize trafficking. Primary and secondary school curricula development efforts supported by USAID could integrate lessons using multiple modalities for learning (i.e., reading, interactive media, group activities) that help children recognize when they or another child are being trafficked and whom to alert.

**Increase the Effectiveness of Social Services and Assistance.** Social services are not only important for providing assistance to victims of trafficking, they are also important for preventing trafficking. Effective social services can identify children at risk and take actions to improve their lives before they are victimized by traffickers. For social services and assistance to be effective, it is necessary to strengthen the social work profession and reform social benefits systems.

**Strengthen the Social Work Profession.** In order to bolster the protection of child victims of trafficking and prevent trafficking, the field of social work needs support to: develop standard procedures and protocols, train social workers, strengthen social work education, and measure performance. For example, USAID could support efforts to develop standard procedures and protocols to respond to child trafficking, improve data collection systems, and update ethical codes that define the preferred response to trafficking.

**Reform Social Assistance and Benefits Systems.** All of the countries in the region already have social benefits or cash transfer programs (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011), and adding conditionality (to require school attendance, for example) has the potential to improve children's prospects for their future and prevent trafficking by delaying youth employment. Addressing these issues in the E&E region would require research and analysis to determine the areas in which USAID programming could have the most impact. For example, efforts could include strengthening the capacity of statistical agencies to capture data or applying lessons learned from conditional cash transfer programs through linking them with savings and financial products supported by USAID.

**Address Discrimination against Ethnic Minorities.** Some ethnic minorities (especially Roma and Egyptian<sup>2</sup> children) are uniquely vulnerable to trafficking (ERRC, 2011; U.S. Department of State, 2011), and actions should be taken to address the discrimination they face in all facets of society. Continuing efforts to enroll Roma and other minority children in school, such as those undertaken by USAID in Republic of Macedonia, is necessary. USAID could also support replication of these models in other countries. Sensitivity training is critically needed for various professionals throughout the region. USAID could incorporate discussions about the rights of ethnic minorities as well as the impact of discrimination on minorities and the society at large as well as economic growth in all relevant training for USAID staff and project beneficiaries. For example, sensitivity training for teachers benefitting from USAID-funded training could help keep minority children in school. USAID-supported democracy and governance programs could encourage cooperation, peaceful and vibrant multi-ethnic dialogue, and respect for human rights.

**Improve Economic Prospects for Vulnerable Populations.** Unemployment is a continuing problem throughout the region and efforts to improve employment prospects, especially for youth, are vital to decreasing children's vulnerability to trafficking. Relevant activities include advising on vocational education reform, encouraging public-private partnerships for workforce development, integrating life and workforce readiness skills training into programming where possible, including vulnerable populations<sup>3</sup> in workforce development and entrepreneurship projects, and supporting partnerships between majority and minority-owned population producers. Making the business case for increased diversity in the workplace could be included as a part of entrepreneurship or business management training. In order to ensure that efforts targeting small businesses do not inadvertently increase children's risk of trafficking, care should be taken to ensure that support does not result in children being pulled from school to work in family-based businesses.<sup>4</sup>

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2. The Egyptians, also known as Jevgits or Jevgs, are an ethnic minority living primarily in Albania.

3. Such populations include at-risk adolescents and former VOTs as well as their families.

4. An evaluation of a Bosnian microfinance institution's intervention showed that children aged 16-19 were most affected by enterprise growth, working more and attending school less (Augsburg, De Haas, Harmgart, Meghir, 2012). Caution should be taken, but as such efforts have not been researched in other E&E countries it is not entirely clear if other similar interventions would have the same impact.

**Increase the Sustainability of Victim Service Providers through Social Enterprise**

**Creation.** Many of the services accessed by child victims of trafficking in the region are provided by local NGOs. Decreasing donor funding makes it especially important for civil society to become self-sustaining so that these services will not be discontinued. While encouraging state funding of their operations is important, it is equally important to help organizations build their own fund-raising skills and develop social enterprises. The support needed to encourage social entrepreneurship ranges from start-up capital and capacity building, to legislative reforms that foster social enterprises and tax reforms that mobilize charitable giving. Efforts could also be made to promote knowledge sharing among Missions in the region, especially those that have supported work with social enterprises, such as Albania, Serbia, Moldova and Ukraine.

**Support Research and Evaluation on Vulnerable Populations and Approaches to**

**Preventing Child Trafficking and Protecting Child VOTs.** Research on vulnerable groups and evaluation of the impact of interventions that play a role in preventing child trafficking and protecting victims are important for forging a sustainable path forward. In order to design projects based on facts, targeted research is needed on populations considered especially vulnerable to trafficking as well as former VOTs. Areas for inquiry include access to education, social services and benefits, and employment, as well as participation in politics and public administration and peace-building efforts. Learning more about these issues would help USAID Missions better integrate the prevention of child trafficking and protection of VOTs across their portfolios. Evaluations of interventions are also needed to determine their effectiveness as well as their specific impacts on child trafficking or protecting VOTs. Evaluating the different components might show that different combinations and amounts of components are more or less effective together.

# I. INTRODUCTION

## PURPOSE OF REPORT

This report is written for USAID Missions in the Europe and Eurasia (E&E) region, where funds for addressing trafficking have been declining for some time. The report focuses on child trafficking and suggests how USAID Missions with and without stand-alone anti-trafficking programs can integrate activities that address child trafficking issues into their portfolios.

While it is generally recognized that child trafficking affects all of the countries of the region, little emphasis has been placed on programming focusing specifically on child trafficking. There are important exceptions that will be discussed in the report, but for the most part, child trafficking has been addressed only tangentially within the larger context of anti-trafficking programming. Thus, services for victims of trafficking (VOTs) have tended to focus on adult victims and have not been tailored to address the special needs of children. Further, certain forms of trafficking, such as begging and petty crime, to which children (especially boys) are more susceptible than adults, have not been adequately researched or comprehensively addressed.

Child trafficking involves complex issues that vary in each of the countries of the region. Although a country-by-country in-depth review was beyond the scope of this report, the report's general overview of child trafficking creates a context for further fact-finding and analysis. It provides an overview of child trafficking, highlights promising interventions, and suggests measures that USAID and its partners can take to address the issue in the region and to integrate these activities into USAID's other programmatic areas. The report's broad recommendations are not a prescription for all of the countries in such a large and diverse region, but they provide a range of approaches to be explored in depth when Mission's design programming.

## METHODOLOGY

This report is based primarily on secondary research that included available written documents on child trafficking and extensive Internet searches on related topics. The author conducted telephone interviews and submitted written inquiries to several informants in the region to get more detailed information about their programs. In addition, an anti-trafficking specialist, Valbona Lenja, was hired to conduct field research in Albania.

Additionally, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) generously extracted and shared data on child victims of trafficking from the region from its extensive Global Counter-Trafficking Database (GCT Database). The data analyzed for this report include the years 2000 through 2011, although the 2011 data are limited, as not all IOM field offices had uploaded their data for the full year and some of the data were extracted prior to the year's end. In total, the report analyzes 1,150 cases of child trafficking in the region.

The report covers the following countries: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Russia, Serbia, Montenegro, and Ukraine. Although Bulgaria and Romania no longer receive USAID assistance, they also were included in the report because of their relatively high levels of child trafficking. Where distinctions are made between Eurasia and Europe, Eurasia includes: Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Georgia, Moldova, Russia and Ukraine, and Europe (also referred to in the report as Southeastern Europe<sup>5</sup>) includes: Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Montenegro, Romania, and Serbia.

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5. In order not to confuse readers into thinking that this refers to the entire European continent or European Union member states.

## LIMITATIONS

The data available on trafficked children in the region tend to be based on small populations of assisted victims. Some of this research provides interesting insights into the lives and circumstances of trafficked children, but readers must use caution when drawing conclusions about at-risk children based on these limited data.

While the IOM GCT Database contains arguably the most extensive collection of data on victims of trafficking in the region,<sup>6</sup> the generalizations that can be appropriately drawn from this data set are limited. The GCT Database provides useful information on the demographics of assisted child victims of trafficking, but includes only victims who were assisted by IOM or by IOM's partner organizations. Although IOM has been working to ensure sustainability by building the capacity of its local actors throughout the region to identify and assist victims of trafficking, their increased capacity may not be reflected in the numbers contained in the GCT Database. IOM's data protection principles do not require local actors to provide IOM with access to personal information about victims of trafficking. In several countries, therefore, data from certain types of cases handled by other organizations may not be registered in the GCT Database. In Albania, for example, children trafficked for begging, illicit activities, or labor are more often assisted by Terre des Hommes and its partners. These children are not registered in the IOM GCT Database, so it does not contain accurate information on the actual number of such cases.

Two additional factors make it difficult to document comprehensively the impact of counter-trafficking programming. First, few evaluations of counter-trafficking initiatives have been undertaken in the region and not all of these are publicly available. However, many similar initiatives have been implemented in multiple countries and the report uses the known outcomes from several such initiatives to draw conclusions about the relative effectiveness of different approaches. Second, while there are many minorities in Europe and Eurasia, many of which face discrimination and are liable to be at risk for trafficking, the Roma have been the most studied and the most targeted for programmatic interventions. As a result, this report relies heavily on reports about the Roma minorities in the region. Whether or not these findings are equally applicable to other minorities is not entirely clear (See Carter, 2001, for a more detailed discussion of the minorities in the region and the discrimination they face).

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6. The IOM GCT Database includes data on human trafficking on a global scale. However, only data for the region was accessed for this report.

## II. SCOPE OF TRAFFICKING OF CHILDREN IN THE REGION

### CHILD TRAFFICKING VERSUS OTHER FORMS OF EXPLOITATION, CHILD LABOR, AND ABUSE OF CHILDREN

Distinguishing between child trafficking and other forms of exploitation, child labor and abuse of children can be quite complicated. Each case must be analyzed individually to see if it contains all of the elements necessary to be categorized as a case of trafficking. However, even with such an analysis, different organizations and individuals may categorize the same case differently.

One issue of debate is movement. Does the definition of trafficking imply that the child must be moved from his or her home in order to be considered trafficked? The United States Government's online Human Trafficking Training course says that movement is not a necessary component of human trafficking.<sup>7</sup> The U.S. Department of State agrees (2011). The website, The Palermo Protocol confirms this view (Human Trafficking Misunderstood, n.d.). However, other sources believe that movement is a necessary component of human trafficking (Dottridge & Jordan, 2012; Andrees, 2008), such that children who are exploited without such movement are not victims of trafficking but rather victims of child labor, sexual exploitation, or some other form of child abuse or exploitation. While some experts believe that making this distinction is critically important, the distinction tends to obscure the essential findings of this report:

1. Among the many children who face similar forms of exploitation and abuse, some have been categorized as trafficked and others have not.
2. Regardless of how cases are categorized, the children are being exploited and their rights are being violated.
3. Interventions to prevent this exploitation and to assist the children are necessary, no matter how the cases are categorized.
4. Measures to address trafficking can and should be applied to other related forms of child exploitation.

Because existing data on child trafficking does not adequately reflect either the extent or the complexity of child exploitation and the distinction between exploitation and trafficking, this report will sometimes refer to children who have been “trafficked or exploited.”

(See Dottridge & Jordan, 2012, for an in-depth and thought provoking discussion of this debate about relevance of “movement” to the definition of trafficking.)

### AVAILABILITY AND RELIABILITY OF DATA

Comprehensive and reliable data on the scope of human trafficking in general and child trafficking in particular are almost non-existent. While there have been efforts in recent years to develop national databases that conform to international standards, there are still problems with data collection in general and information systems in particular. These mechanisms can only collect data on the relatively small number of identified victims of trafficking and therefore cannot reflect the many victims who remain unidentified.<sup>8</sup> In some situations, statistics may actually double-count victims who have been assisted by more than one service provider.

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7. The training program can be accessed at [http://www.dhs.gov/xlibrary/training/dhs\\_awareness\\_training\\_fy12/launchPage.htm](http://www.dhs.gov/xlibrary/training/dhs_awareness_training_fy12/launchPage.htm).

8. The Government of Moldova indicates that the number of cases of trafficking identified may represent only 20–50 percent of the actual number of victims (National Committee for Combating Trafficking in Persons, 2011).

Undercounting is far more common than over-counting and for a variety of reasons, even identified victims can be undercounted. There are disagreements about who qualifies as a victim of trafficking. In some countries, only those who are determined to be victims of trafficking by law enforcement structures are included in national statistics. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, for example, it is the prosecutors' office which makes the determination and only those deemed by them to be victims of trafficking are included in the national statistics (Rosenberg, 2006b). Government statistics often do not include all victims identified by civil society. In Albania, for example, the government generally includes only those who are assisted by a handful of organizations providing primarily shelter-based services. This restriction results in the exclusion of victims who do not seek or need shelter, including very young children, who are generally assisted by non-shelter-based services, as well as older boys and men, for whom shelter services are not generally available.<sup>9</sup>

National governments and regional organizations do not consolidate and analyze national data from sending and receiving countries. This practice contributes to undercounting and thereby affects perceptions of the amount of trafficking that occurs. Countries of origin may gather statistics on victims who were assisted there, but fail to include trafficked citizens who were identified abroad, but either did not repatriate or returned unassisted (Rosenberg, 2008). Table 1 illustrates how national statistics are believed to underestimate the number of victims of trafficking from the country of origin. Romanian and Bulgarian national statistics reported two and four victims respectively trafficked to the Netherlands in 2003, while national statistics from the Netherlands reported 31 Romanian and 48 Bulgarian victims identified in the same year.

**Table 1: A Comparison of the Number of Romanian and Bulgarian Victims Trafficked to the Netherlands Reported by the Country of Origin and the Country of Destination**

Reporting Authority	2003	2004
Number of Romanian VOTs <sup>a</sup> exploited in the Netherlands reported by the Dutch Rapporteur	31	45
Number of Romanian VOTs <sup>b</sup> exploited in the Netherlands reported by the Regional Clearing Point	2	1
Number of Bulgarian VOTs <sup>c</sup> exploited in the Netherlands reported by the Dutch Rapporteur	48	55
Number of Bulgarian VOTs <sup>d</sup> exploited in the Netherlands reported by the Regional Clearing Point <sup>e</sup>	4	6

The Regional Clearing Point was established to contribute to improved policy and practice in combating human trafficking through broadening the knowledge and understanding of human trafficking in Southeastern Europe. In 2004 and 2005, with funding from USAID, they collected and analyzed data on human trafficking throughout Southeastern Europe cross-referencing and validating data from a multitude of sources, including government, intergovernmental organizations and non-governmental organizations (c.f. Surtees, 2005). The RCP data included here are believed to represent data from countries of origin because data from other sources are difficult to obtain.

Note: Table from Rosenberg, 2008, p. 35. Sources: <sup>a</sup> Dettmeijer-Vermeulen et al., 2008, p. 255. <sup>b</sup> Surtees, 2005, p. 453. <sup>c</sup> Dettmeijer-Vermeulen et al., 2008, p. 253. <sup>d</sup> Surtees, 2005, p. 180.

Absent a single, central repository of trafficking data, however, it is impossible to arrive at a realistic total of known and registered cases of trafficking, let alone a comprehensive total of all VOTs. Even a single, central repository would be limited to registered cases of trafficking. Data collection is further complicated by legal classifications. Many of the official statistics gathered by states are based on legal proceedings and include victims only in cases when perpetrators were both charged and prosecuted under trafficking statutes. Differences across the region in how cases are categorized and recorded

9. Interviews with anti-trafficking actors in Albania.

mean that similar cases can be categorized in more than one way—as trafficking, exploitation, or some other violation. Many officially recognized cases of trafficking may be filed under other charges and never show up in official statistics on VOTs (ERRC, 2011).<sup>10</sup>

Both children and adults can also be simultaneously classified under multiple categories. Distinguishing different types of migrants and different types of exploitation, even for children who never leave their country, can lead to misidentification of children who are subject to abuse and exploitation (Davidson and Farrow, 2007). A person, for example, may be counted as a refugee, and despite being trafficked and subjected to labor exploitation may not be statistically noticed as such.

## **ESTIMATED NUMBERS OF CHILD VICTIMS**

When authorities become aware of a certain form of trafficking, they are more likely to identify its victims. In the beginning of this century, primarily women were being identified as trafficked for sexual exploitation. But with a growing awareness of the trafficking of men for labor, this form of trafficking is being identified more frequently. The same appears to be true for children. Increased attention to the newly recognized forms of trafficking to which children are vulnerable and to changing victim demographics increases the number of victims being identified (Rosenberg, 2008). Identifying more child victims as a proportion of the total number of identified victims is now a trend in many countries of the region (Hartl, 2010; Republic of Serbia, n.d.; State Coordinator for Combating THB and Illegal Migration in Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2011; UNODC, 2009). In Bosnia and Herzegovina, while the total number of identified VOTs has declined, the number of minor victims has increased (State Coordinator for Combating THB and Illegal Migration in Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2011). There is also a regional trend of increasing numbers of children being exploited within their own country of origin (Milovanovic, 2011; National Committee for Combating Trafficking in Persons, 2011; Republic of Serbia, n.d.; Rusu and Fomina, 2010; Save the Children, 2011b; State Coordinator for Combating THB and Illegal Migration in Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2011; UNODC, 2009). Save the Children (2011b) reported that since 2004, 50 percent of identified victims of trafficking in Southeastern Europe are children, the vast majority of whom are victims of internal trafficking. In some countries, the number of boys identified as trafficked has increased (Ćopić & Dimitrijević, 2009; IOM, 2011; Rusu & Fomina, 2010) which likely reflects increased attention to the forms of trafficking for which boys are more likely to be trafficked.

The data collection issues noted in the previous section mean that the reported number of victims of child trafficking in one country may not reflect exploited children who *would be* categorized and reported as trafficked in other countries. In Albania, for example, in cases whose particular details suggest that children should be categorized as both exploited and trafficked, many are categorized as exploited alone.

Table 2 illustrates the severe data limitations for a recent year. Not only do different sources report different data, but also the absence of data cannot be taken to indicate that no child victims were identified. Where no cases of child trafficking were reported, it is most likely because data disaggregating children from adult victims of trafficking was not available. IOM data cannot provide an accurate picture of trafficking in a particular country or region, because IOM data only reflect IOM-assisted cases. The lack of data in the IOM column below may reflect the discontinuation of IOM counter-trafficking projects in countries where IOM is operationally present.

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10. In Romania, for example, an evaluation indicated that the same acts may sometimes be charged as trafficking crimes and other times as procurement of prostitution (UNICEF, n.d.)

**Table 2: The Number of Children Trafficked in 2010 as Reported by Three Sources**

Country of Origin	U.S. Department of Labor <sup>a</sup>	U.S. Department of State <sup>b</sup>	IOM <sup>c</sup>
Albania		14	0
Armenia		3	0
Azerbaijan		3	0
Belarus			9
Bosnia and Herzegovina	24		0
Bulgaria		89	0
Georgia			0
Kosovo			0
Macedonia, Republic of			0
Moldova			1
Montenegro			0
Romania			0
Russia Federation			0
Serbia	42		0
Ukraine	123	123	54
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>189</b>	<b>232</b>	<b>64</b>

Note: Blanks in the table indicate that no child-specific data were available from that source.

Sources: <sup>a</sup> Data from U.S. Department of Labor, 2011. <sup>b</sup> Data from U.S. Department of State, 2011. <sup>c</sup> Data provided by IOM, extracted from the IOM GCT Database.

Table 3 (below) presents data from the IOM GCT Database for the years 2000–2011, sorted by children’s country of citizenship, which is as close as it is possible to get to a comprehensive overview of child trafficking in the region: IOM assisted 1,150 children who were trafficked from 2000 through 2011. Additional data from Albania help put the IOM data into perspective. While IOM assisted 100 Albanian child victims during this 11-year period, ARSIS, an Albanian organization that focuses on children, assisted 530 exploited children in less than three years, from January 2009 through September 2011.<sup>11</sup>

11. ARSIS states that an exploited child is one whose earnings (from working or begging) are taken either by his/her parents or others. According to informants of ARSIS, authorities recognized only 12 of the 530 exploited children as trafficked. There were others who ARSIS believed to be trafficked, but whom the authorities did not recognize as such, possibly because they had not crossed state borders and were “exploited internally.” It is not clear how ARSIS staff members distinguish situations of exploitation from those of trafficking: The distinction may depend on whether the child has been moved or not, but this was not clear from the interviews (personal communication with ARSIS, Albania).

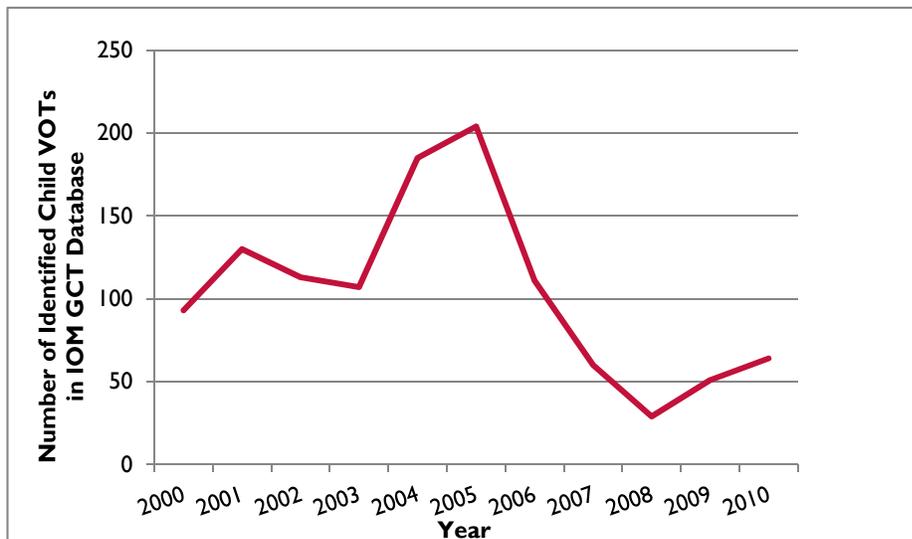
**Table 3: Number of Child Victims by Country in IOM’s Global Counter-Trafficking Database from 2000 through 2011**

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2000 - 2011
Albania	3	13	10	15	25	20	10	1	2	1			100
Armenia													0
Azerbaijan						1	2	1	1	1			6
Belarus	1		1	6	29	24	6	9	12	21	9	1	119
Bosnia and Herzegovina				2	4	8	7	3					24
Bulgaria	3	18	51	9	18	1							100
Georgia	1												1
Kosovo	2	3	4	4	2	4	16	8	1				44
Republic of Macedonia			1		1	1	3	3	2				11
Moldova	37	27	13	34	46	98	13	2	1		1		272
Montenegro													0
Romania	45	60	30	28	21	3	1	4	3				195
Russia Federation	1	2	0	1	2	7	2	2	5	1			23
Serbia		1		1	1	1		3					7
Ukraine		6	3	7	36	36	51	24	2	27	54	2	248
TOTAL	93	130	113	107	185	204	111	60	29	51	64	3	1150

Source: IOM GCT Database

Figure 1 (below) graphically depicts the yearly total number of child victims of trafficking enumerated for the years 2000-2010 in Table 3 (above). Prior to 2007, IOM and its partners identified and/or assisted over 100 child victims of trafficking annually. The decline in the numbers of victims registered in the GCT Database in recent years largely reflects IOM’s success in handing off direct victim assistance roles to local actors. As IOM devolves case management to local actors, it reduces its ability to collect data and present an accurate regional picture of the extent of child trafficking. The rising and falling line may be reflective of the extent of initiatives in response to child trafficking, which only assist a subset of trafficking victims in the region. That IOM data underrepresent the depth of the problem of trafficking in children reinforces both the importance of more local programming and the urgent need for accurate national information systems.

**Figure 1: Number of Child VOTs from the Region Registered in IOM’s Global Counter-Trafficking Database from 2000 through 2010**



### III. WHO ARE THE VICTIMS: DEMOGRAPHICS AND VULNERABILITY FACTORS

Child victims of trafficking are not a homogenous group. Yet while one cannot describe a typical victim of trafficking, studies of assisted, trafficked children point to vulnerability factors and demographic characteristics that many child victims have in common. Table 4 lists the vulnerability factors identified by researchers (ERRC, 2011; Davidson & Farrow, 2007; Kane, 2005).<sup>12</sup>

**Table 4: Vulnerability Factors**

**Age and Family Life**

- Disintegration of the family
- Alcohol and drug abuse
- Domestic violence
- Institutional care and lack of family support

**Education and Employment**

- Poverty and unemployment
- Family Indebtedness
- Lack of social support
- Lack of social safety net
- Low education levels

**Discrimination and Social Exclusion**

Research also indicates that it is the combination of multiple demographic characteristics that makes some children more vulnerable to being trafficked than others. Children are the most vulnerable when they decide to leave home. There are many reasons why children wish to leave home. Interviews with trafficked children indicate that a combination of poverty, parental alcohol abuse, and domestic violence led many of them to leave home and into the hands of traffickers (Dottridge, 2008b; Delap, 2009; Kane, 2005; Rusu & Fomina, 2010). Often a child's decision to leave home was precipitated by a specific life-changing event such as the death, divorce, or remarriage of a parent, or a family move (Dottridge, 2008b; Rusu & Fomina, 2010). In other cases, even children from stable, loving families without abuse may be encouraged to leave home or choose to leave by their own desire to help meet a real family need (Kane, 2005).

The subsections that follow describe these factors in depth, along with the range of broader societal circumstances that support child trafficking, such as the existence of organized crime, corruption, poor border controls, restricted immigration regimes, lack of economic opportunities, and the like.

#### **AGE & FAMILY LIFE**

Children of all ages can be trafficked and tend to be trafficked for different forms of exploitation at different ages. The youngest children are often trafficked for forced begging. Older children tend to be trafficked for labor or sexual exploitation. One study found that children are exploited for begging as young as four or five years of age and stop when they reach puberty. Researchers propose two reasons for this: (a) younger children evoke more pity and therefore induce more generous giving, and (b) older children experience more shame and are therefore more resistant to begging (Delap, 2009).

Family relations can affect a child's vulnerability to being trafficked. Parental substance abuse and domestic violence are often cited as factors contributing to children's vulnerability to being trafficked (Cozzarelli, 2011; Delap, 2009; Dottridge, 2006; Rusu & Fomina, 2010; Wolfensohn,

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12. Sex. Where data on child trafficking cases could be found, they were rarely sex-disaggregated. Therefore, no firm conclusions can be drawn about the relative vulnerability of boys and girls to being trafficked. What is clear is that both boys and girls can and do become victims of trafficking. While both boys and girls are trafficked for all forms of exploitation, there are some forms of exploitation to which girls are more susceptible and others for which boys are more likely to be trafficked. This is discussed in brief in section IV, below.

2004). A survey of child victims of trafficking in Albania, Moldova, Romania and Ukraine found that a large number of the children cite poor family relations as a reason for leaving home (Kane, 2005, p. 18). In a separate study of trafficked Moldovan children, only seven percent described their relationships with their parents as good (Rusu & Fomina, 2010, p. 37). Some NGOs in Moldova state that nearly 100 percent of the child and adult victims of trafficking they assist previously experienced domestic violence (Cozzarelli, 2011). This is certainly not the case for all trafficked children, however. Some trafficked children indicate that they have very positive family relations and that one reason for leaving home was to earn money to help their family (Kane, 2005).

Children whose parents migrate, leaving them with relatives, on their own, or in institutional care are a special concern in countries with extremely high levels of out-migration, such as Moldova, Romania, and Ukraine (ILO-IPEC, 2007; Kontula & Saaristo, 2009). In Moldova, a 2006 report estimated that 40,000 children were left without either parent at home (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011, p. 503).<sup>13</sup>

### **CHILDREN IN INSTITUTIONAL CARE**

Institutional care exists throughout the region, but is particularly prevalent in Belarus, Moldova, Romania, the Russian Federation, and Ukraine (Eurochild, 2009; ILO-IPEC, 2007; Transmonee Database – see Appendix II; UNICEF, 2010a). Throughout the region, children with disabilities, minority children, and Roma children in particular, are over represented among children in state institutions (Carter, 2001; ERRC, 2011; Sammon, 2001; UNICEF, 2010a). In many countries of the region, children in institutional care are identified as a group that is especially vulnerable to being trafficked (AASW, 2010; Carter, 2005; Dottridge, 2006; ILO-IPEC, 2007; U.S. Department of Labor, 2011; Wolfensohn, 2004). Of particular concern are the countries of Southeast Europe that have generally lower rates of residential care than Eurasia, but where rates of residential care are increasing (UNICEF, 2010a).

While institutional care is often cited as a vulnerability factor, the majority of identified child victims of trafficking do not tend to come from institutional settings. While it is not possible to establish a trend for the region, studies of Moldova point to what could be considered the actual source of vulnerability. For example, the Child Rights Information Centre in Moldova estimated that young women raised, but no longer residing in, institutional settings in Moldova were 10 times more likely to become victims of trafficking than their numbers in the general population would suggest (Dottridge, 2008a, p. 30). Other research in Moldova indicates that only three percent of the assisted child victims of trafficking were living independently or in institutions at the time of being trafficked (Rusu & Fomina, 2010). It appears that children become more at risk of being trafficked upon their departure from institutions. Growing up in residential care becomes a vulnerability factor for emancipated young adults because they often do not have the life skills or family support they need to establish an independent life. Since this latent risk begins in childhood, it must be addressed in childhood and is therefore included in this discussion.

It appears that some children are vulnerable to being trafficked and exploited while in institutional care—by the adults in charge. The deputy director of a school for children with special needs in Armenia, for example, was convicted and sentenced to nine years in prison for forcing two students to beg (U.S. Department of State, 2011). Further research is needed to determine the extent of this phenomenon.

### **EDUCATION**

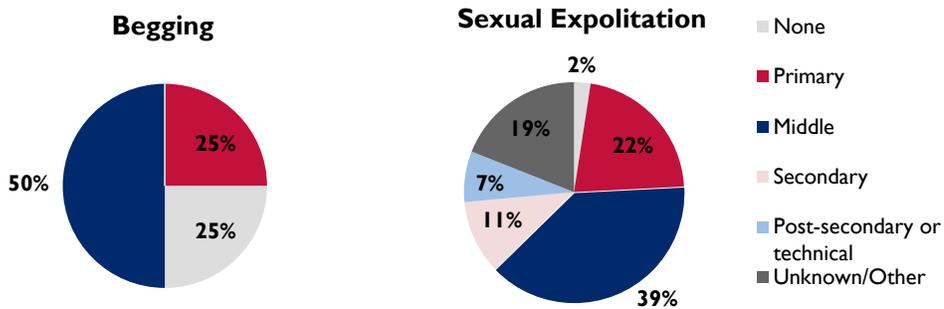
While education does not protect children from being trafficked, lower education levels do appear to increase vulnerability. Figure 2 presents types of exploitation encountered by grade level and shows that a majority of the child victims of trafficking from this region assisted by IOM have only a

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13. At the time of writing this report, it was not possible to find studies dealing with this issue.

primary or middle school education despite education throughout the region being free and compulsory, generally to 14–16 years of age (UNESCO, 2011).<sup>14</sup>

**Figure 2: Highest Level of Education Achieved by Identified Child VOTs in IOM’s GCT Database by Type of Exploitation**

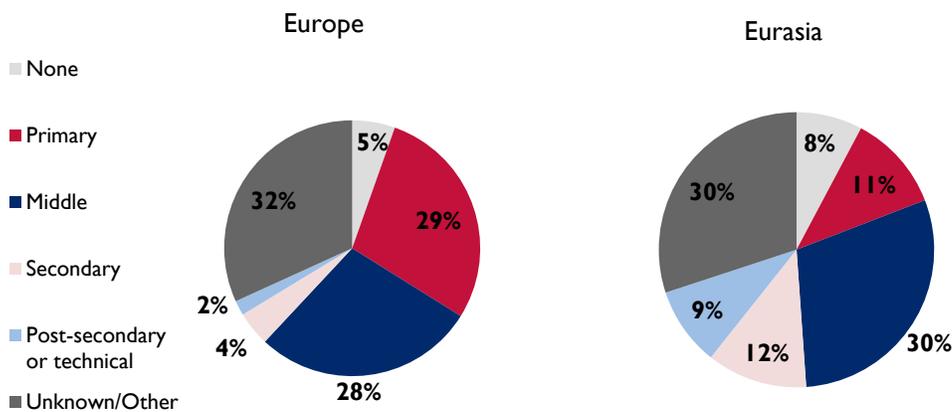


Note. Data from the IOM GCT Database

Education levels of child VOTs appear to vary depending on what population of trafficked children is being studied. The children assisted by IOM who were trafficked for begging had lower levels of education than those trafficked for sexual exploitation. While the number of children trafficked for begging registered in IOM’s GCT Database is quite small, a fuller picture of their educational attainment is created by looking at other research. Begging children interviewed for studies in Southeastern Europe had received almost no education at all or attended school only erratically (Delap, 2009; Save the Children, 2011a). In Bosnia and Herzegovina in 2007, 75 percent of the 1,022 children registered as begging were 7–16 years old, and were not attending school; 25 percent were illiterate (Save the Children, 2011b). Prevention efforts aimed at addressing trafficking need to take into account these differences in children’s education and school attendance.

Education levels also vary by country of origin. Trafficked children from Southeastern Europe assisted by IOM show lower levels of education than children trafficked from Eurasia (see Figure 3). Because many of the cases registered in IOM’s GCT Database did not include data on the child’s educational attainment, one cannot draw firm conclusions about these differences.

**Figure 3: Education Levels of Child VOTs in Southeast Europe and Eurasia in 1,150 cases from 2000–2011**



14. Exceptions: Albania, age 13; Georgia, age 12; Ukraine, age 17.

Note: Data from the IOM GCT Database.

While no direct causality can be identified between declines in education enrollment or quality and human trafficking, it would appear from statistics on identified victims in the region that secondary education provides some protection against child trafficking and that children with little or no schooling may be more vulnerable to some forms of trafficking. However, there is a large gap in information owing to a lack of data. For example, the IOM GCT Database categorizes at least 30 percent of assisted victims as having an unknown or other level of education. The possible correlation between no or interrupted education and trafficking requires further research and triangulation with other vulnerability factors, such as being an ethnic minority and living in poverty. However, it appears that trends in public financial support for education and the professional development of teachers could be increasing children's vulnerability to trafficking by negatively affecting enrollment in some E&E countries.<sup>15</sup>

Although primary school enrollment rates in the region are still high and recent studies indicate a slight increase in these rates overall (Tietjen, 2010; UNICEF, 2011), several countries in the region still have declining rates of enrollment and declining student outcomes (Transmonee Database, see Appendix IV). The countries found to have vulnerabilities vis-à-vis their basic education participation rates and student achievement include Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Georgia, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Romania, and Russia (Tietjen, 2010). This trend is notable especially among poor children, children from ethnic minorities, children with disabilities, and children in institutional care (ILO-IPEC, 2007). Enrollment of Roma still remains far below average in most of the countries of the region, indicating continued vulnerability of Roma children to poverty and exploitation. (See Section D below and Appendix III for more detail.)

### **ECONOMIC STATUS**

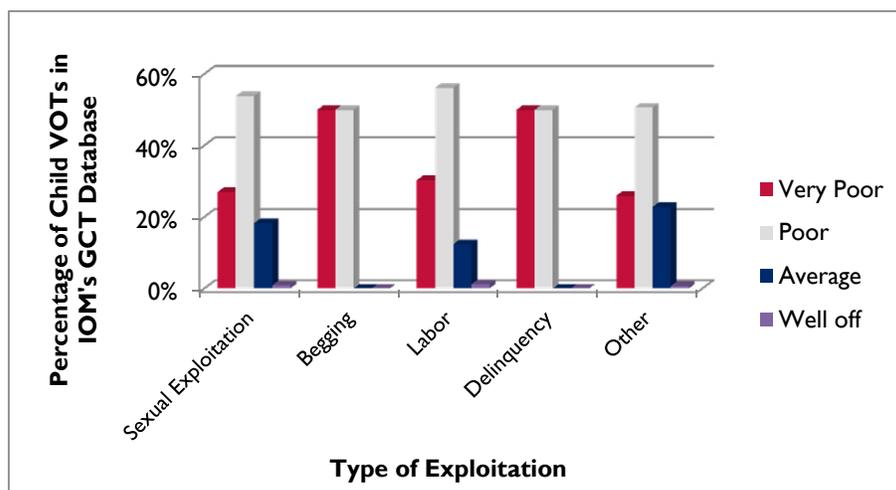
Poverty is linked with vulnerability to trafficking (IOM GCT Database; Kane, 2005; National Committee for Combating Trafficking in Persons, 2011; Rusu & Fomina, 2010). Most of the trafficked children interviewed in studies conducted in the region—both those exploited for begging and those trafficked for sexual exploitation—were from poor families. In surveys covering Albania, Moldova, Romania, and Ukraine, nearly all of the trafficked children surveyed were very poor. A large percentage indicated that their families lacked enough food and often went without proper clothing or shoes (Kane, 2005; Rusu & Fomina, 2010).

IOM data confirm this finding: 82 percent of all assisted child victims whose economic status was known declared themselves to be from poor or very poor families. As Figure 4 illustrates, there are some small differences seen across types of exploitation, with a small percentage of children exploited sexually or for labor coming from average income households and children trafficked for begging or illicit activities almost never indicate that they come from average income households.

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15. During the early years of the transition to market economies and democratic governance in the E&E region, which began in 1991, education systems declined in many countries due to a lack of public investment. While many have long since begun to improve, systems in several countries have not fully recovered to their former levels (Tietjen, 2010). Many schools have fewer resources, teachers' skills have declined, schools no longer support social activities, and families have to pay for books and other costs (ILO-IPEC, 2007; Kane, 2005).

**Figure 4: Economic Status of Child VOTs by Type of Exploitation in 1,150 cases from 2000–2011**



Note: Delinquency is a low-level criminal task that can take various forms, such as petty crime, theft, robbery, pimping, and drug dealing (Surtees, 2005). Source: Data from the IOM GCT Database.

Poverty, however, is not the only factor contributing to children’s exploitation (Dottridge, 2008b; Delap, 2009; Rusu & Fomina, 2010). The facts that the vast majority of impoverished children are not trafficked and that some trafficked children are not from poor households, support the supposition that a combination of poverty and other factors contributes to vulnerability to trafficking.

### **DISCRIMINATION / SOCIAL EXCLUSION**

There are indications that trafficking disproportionately affects minority children,<sup>16</sup> especially Roma (U.S. Department of State, 2011), and children with disabilities (ERRC, 2011; Save the Children, 2007).

### **ROMA AND EGYPTIANS**

In one study, experts estimated that while Roma actually made up just 10 percent of the population in Bulgaria, they constituted from 50–80 percent of the victims of human trafficking. Similarly in Romania, where Roma made up just 9 percent of the population, experts estimated that 50 percent of the victims of trafficking were Roma (ERRC, 2011). Vulnerability of ethnic minorities is linked to discrimination in education and employment, poverty, and cultural traditions (ERRC, 2011).

There is also concern that some forms of trafficking may not be as comprehensively addressed because they are thought to affect primarily Roma or other minority children. This may be especially true when it comes to trafficking for begging or other street work, where there are widespread perceptions that children involved in begging and street work are primarily of Roma origin. For example, a study of child begging in Albania found that all of the 162 children interviewed were from Roma or Egyptian ethnic minorities (Delap, 2009); other studies present a slightly different picture.

16. While Roma are one of the largest minorities in the region, many other minority groups are present. There are people who are sometimes included as Roma but who do not self-identify as Roma, such as the Egyptians (also known as Jevgits or Jevgs) in Albania. Some ethnic groups that may be the majority in one country are a minority in others. This includes, for example, Albanians living in Macedonia, Russians living in other countries of the former Soviet Union, and people from other former Soviet States living outside their home country. Many, though not all of these groups, face discrimination in the countries in which they currently live (Carter, 2001). Whether or not these other minorities are also more vulnerable to being trafficked is not clear as less information was available in relation to these other minorities and trafficking.

A recent study using respondent-driven sampling techniques<sup>17</sup>, found that the majority of street children in Albania were ethnic Albanians, although, based on their share of the population Roma and Egyptian children were overly represented among street children (Johnson, et al. 2010). Similarly, an in-depth study of street children in Georgia found that the vast majority were Georgian (Wargan & Dershem, 2009), and staff from IOM Ukraine indicated that while many of the children identified as begging are Roma, many are also of Ukrainian ethnicity.

**Access to Education.** The linkage between little or access to education and a higher risk of trafficking suggests that minority children facing discrimination in education may be more vulnerable to being trafficked. While data are not available for minority groups in general, data from the World Bank and the Open Society Foundation show that Roma receive far less education and have poorer education outcomes than the general populations of the countries in which they reside (UNICEF, 2010b). Primary school enrollment rates for Roma in the region range from a low of 38 percent in Montenegro to a high of 77 percent in Bulgaria (see Appendix III), while for the region as a whole, primary school enrollment for the general population is quite high at 98.3 percent (Tietjen, 2010, p. 20). Similarly, Roma children have far lower secondary school enrollment and primary and secondary school completion rates than those of the general population (Open Society Foundations, 2008; Tietjen, 2010; World Bank, n.d.). Literacy rates for Roma in the region range from a low of 59 percent in Montenegro to 84 percent in the Republic of Macedonia, while for the general population throughout the region, literacy rates range from 96–100 percent (Open Society Foundations, 2008; World Bank, n.d.). Girls fare worse than boys. Researchers in the Republic of Macedonia have found the highest gender discrepancy in education amongst Roma and that Roma girls' enrollment in school has declined over the past decade (Ogden, 2011). (See Appendices III and IV for available data from each country in the region.) While there is far more data available on Roma, indications are that other minorities, especially those speaking a language different from the language of instruction in the country, also face obstacles to accessing education (Carter, 2001).

Both children and parents said that discrimination was a factor in why ethnic minority children in general and Roma children in particular, do not attend school (Amnesty International, 2006; Delap, 2009; ERRC, 2011; FIDH and Memorial, n.d.). In schools, Roma children face discrimination from teachers and classmates alike (ERRC, 2011; FIDH and Memorial; Ombudsman, Republic of Albania, 2009; UNICEF, 2010b). This is confirmed by interviews with Albanian organizations working with children who have dropped out of school.<sup>18</sup> The International Federation for Human Rights (FIDH) and Memorial Saint-Petersburg reported violence against Roma, even in schools (FIDH and Memorial, n.d.). Roma children may face severe discrimination and fear for their safety and security. One study cites an example in which a group of Russian children instigated a fight against a number of smaller Roma children in their school. As a result, the Roma children refused to return to school for six weeks, demonstrating the “atmosphere of fear and a feeling of constant danger and defencelessness [sic] felt by Roma children” in Russian schools (FIDH and Memorial, n.d., p. 3).

Research is available on the experiences of Central European Roma now living in the UK. Nearly all of the students interviewed had experienced “unequal, discriminatory treatment and humiliation by teachers and racist bullying by their non-Roma peers” in their countries of origin (Fremlova, 2011, p. 37). The research also found that the children performed well in British schools. Both parents and children specifically mentioned the fact that “they appreciated the overall atmosphere at school, their children’s feeling of being welcome and their experience of equal treatment, equal opportunities, and the absence of anti-Roma sentiments and racism expressed by their children’s non-Roma peers and teachers” (Fremlova, 2011, p. 41). They cite their children’s education and

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17. Respondent-driven sampling is a methodology for sampling hard-to-reach populations using peer-driven recruitment. It goes further than the snowball method by including both field and analytical procedures to account for non-random recruitment

18. Interviews with ARSIS, NPF and FBSH, Albania.

employment prospects as “one of the most powerful driving forces behind their decision to move to the UK” (Fremlova, 2011, p. 41).

Roma children in many countries of the region are sometimes provided with separate and unequal education. In Russia, they are often taught in separate classrooms or even separate buildings from Russian children (FIDH and Memorial, n.d.). A similar kind of separation occurs in Albania,<sup>19</sup> Republic of Macedonia (Ogden, 2011), and elsewhere in the region (UNICEF, 2010b). In Albania, while there are no official separate Roma schools or classrooms, some schools resist enrolling Roma children and others become known as schools for Roma children. One NGO described the response of school authorities to a child whom staff members were trying to assist in registering for school:

*We were assisting a very bright Roma child, 7 years old. In October 2010, we managed to register the child in a public school. Soon after, the school director said that we should take the child to another school because “Our school has values, it is not for these children.” We complained at the Ministry of Education and they also said that we should better move the child to another school.<sup>20</sup>*

Other factors hinder Roma and Egyptian children’s access to education:

- (a) The absence of birth registration and lack of official documents prevents school enrollment (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011; Ombudsman, Republic of Albania, 2009). In Albania, one NGO has found that 20 percent of the children assisted between 2009 and 2011 had not had their births registered.<sup>21</sup>
- (b) Family migration pulls children out of school and disrupts their education (Ombudsman, Republic of Albania, 2009).
- (c) The lack of Roma teachers in many countries in the region deprives Roma children of cultural or linguistic mediators at school (Ogden, 2011; Ombudsman, Republic of Albania, 2009).
- (d) Early marriage is cited as the main reason why young Roma girls drop out of school (Mickovska-Raleva, 2011; Gedeshi, 2011). In Republic of Macedonia, for example, 49 percent of Roma girls are married before the age of 18 and 11 percent are married before the age of 15 (Ogden, 2011, p. 35).

**Poverty.** Discrimination contributes to higher rates of poverty and unemployment among ethnic minorities and negatively affects their ability to access social services (ERRC, 2011; Kane, 2005). Data from Republic of Macedonia in 2008 show that while the average unemployment rate was 30 percent nationally, the unemployment rate among Roma was 75 percent (Ogden, 2011, p. 8–9). Data from Albania in 2005 show a similar picture: While the average unemployment rate was 22.6 percent nationally, unemployment was 67.2 percent among Roma and 64.3 percent among Egyptians—nearly three times the national average (Gedeshi, 2011). Roma children are considered to be the poorest in the Southeast Europe region (Save the Children, 2011b). In Albania, the per capita income of Roma is less than one third that of the general population: 80 percent of Roma live below the poverty line (Ombudsman’s Special Report No.4, 2009). In Romania, an estimated 80 percent of Roma children live in poverty and 43 percent live in severe poverty (ILO-IPEC, 2007). In Kosovo, while 48.6 percent of children in the general population live in poverty, 60.5 percent of children of ethnic minorities live in poverty (Stubbs & Nestic, 2010).

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19. Interview with ARSIS, Albania.

20. Interview with ARSIS, Albania

21. Interview with ARSIS, Albania. ARSIS assisted 887 children between January 2009 and September 2011, 530 of whom were exploited.

Family poverty increases children's vulnerability to exploitation. Because income from children may be a critical necessity for family survival, they may be pulled out of school in order to work or beg. Poverty may also lead ethnic minorities to take out loans from informal moneylenders at high rates of interest, which can result in children being trafficked to pay off debts (ERRC, 2011).

**Contact with Authorities.** Few of the Roma victims of trafficking researched by ERRC (2011) had been identified as such by authorities. In fact, many Roma victims had come into contact with authorities, who missed the critical opportunity to identify and assist them. While there are likely many reasons for this, discrimination may have played a role. In some cases these victims of crime were further abused or humiliated by authorities rather than provided with assistance. It is worth noting that Roma are also unlikely to seek out the police or other authorities to report wrong doing because of their fear and distrust of authorities based on a history of ill-treatment (ERRC, 2011; FIDH and Memorial).

### **CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES**

Studies indicate that children with disabilities are also vulnerable to being trafficked (ERRC, 2011; Save the Children, 2007), perhaps because some may have higher levels of dependency, lack both life skills and economic opportunities, and some, especially those with mental disabilities, may be more easily manipulated. Studies in Moldova have identified a slight increase in cases involving trafficked children with disabilities (Rusu & Fomina, 2010). This vulnerability of children with disabilities is also linked to discrimination in access to education, employment, and social services (ERRC, 2011).

Although education laws in a majority of countries state that all children have a right to education, access to education is limited for children with disabilities. While there are some inclusive classrooms, most countries rely on special schools, boarding schools, rehabilitation centers and other non-school environments to educate children with disabilities. "Extremely limited data are available on the learning achievement or school success of children with disabilities either in inclusive classrooms or in special schools and when found, indicate that children with disability generally receive a very restricted education" (Losert, 2011).

A recent report issued by the Social Transition Team in USAID's Europe and Eurasia Bureau delves into the issues faced by people (men, women, girls, and boys) with disabilities. Current statistics do not provide an accurate count of the number of people with disabilities living within each country, their participation in the education system, or their activity in the workforce. Findings from *Women with Disabilities in the Europe and Eurasia Region* (Phillips, 2012), which includes qualitative research findings, reveals the issues faced by children with disabilities with regard to institutionalization, education, workforce development, and access to social services as well as issues of violence and trafficking. Insights from the qualitative research include:

- Access to education is extremely problematic. Limited physical access to educational infrastructure and decreased educational expectations result in a decrease in educational achievement for children with disabilities.
- Youth with disabilities are often as a small percentage of those who benefit from workforce development initiatives.
- Girls with disabilities appear to be more isolated from society than boys with disabilities and are thought to experience abuse to a greater degree than boys with disabilities.
- Children with disabilities are thought to be most at risk of trafficking for the purpose of begging.

Although some research on children with disabilities in the E&E region exists, a current comprehensive picture of the current situation of children with disabilities is needed.

## IV. HOW CHILDREN ARE TRAFFICKED IN THE REGION

### SOURCE AND DESTINATION COUNTRIES

Most of the countries of the region are both countries of origin and destination, as well as transit countries, for child VOTs. Most children are trafficked within their own countries, within the region, or to Western Europe. For example, while many Moldovan children are trafficked to Russia, for example, some are trafficked to Ukraine and Romania (National Committee for Combating Trafficking in Persons, 2011). Russia is the largest country of destination for children from the region. There are also recorded cases of trafficking of children to Turkey, the Middle East, Southeast Asia, and the United States (U.S. Department of State, 2011) and from outside the region into the region (Dottridge, 2006).

### RECRUITMENT

IOM data on assisted child VOTs indicate that an equal number are recruited by strangers and by persons known to them, the vast majority of the latter being friends. Children can also be exploited by their parents or legal guardians, although this exploitation is not universally considered trafficking.<sup>22</sup> Children recruited for labor exploitation were more likely to be recruited by strangers (56 percent) than children recruited for all forms of trafficking combined (45 percent).<sup>23</sup> Other studies find that recruiters are more likely to be persons known to the child or the family, such as a friend, boyfriend, close relative, or neighbor (Dottridge 2006; Kane, 2005; Rusu & Fomina, 2010). As neither these studies nor the IOM data are representative of the larger population of child VOTs, we cannot draw definitive conclusions about children's relationships with their recruiters, only that children are recruited both by persons known to them and their families and by strangers.

### FORMS OF TRAFFICKING AND TYPES OF EXPLOITATION

It is in the informal economic sector that children are most often trafficked and exploited. Because it is more hidden and often not subject to inspection and regulation, the informal sector is linked to higher levels of vulnerability to abuses overall (Davidson & Farrow, 2007). Though more visible and regulated, the formal sector of a nation's economy is not immune to trafficking and exploitation. In addition to direct abuse, legitimate employers' subcontracting arrangements can involve them in child labor and trafficking without their knowledge (ILO-IPEC, 2007).

**Begging, Illicit Activities, and Street Work.** Children from the region are trafficked for begging and street work, including street sales, washing car windows, scavenging and busking (Dottridge, 2006; ERRC, 2011; ILO-IPEC, 2011; Kane, 2005; Rusu & Fomina, 2010; Save the Children, 2011a; U.S. Department of Labor, 2011; U.S. Department of State, 2011).<sup>24</sup> Children are also trafficked into drug dealing and drug cultivation, as well as theft and other petty crime (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011; Kane, 2005; Kapoor, 2007).

Whether begging, illicit activities, and street work constitute trafficking, especially when children are sent out by their parents and remain living at home, has been a matter of controversy. Not all children working on the streets are forced to do so by parents or third parties. Some children choose to beg or work on the streets themselves, without influence from their families or others, as the best and most viable option, either to escape harm at home or to earn income for themselves or their family (Johnson, et al., 2009; Thomas de Benitez, 2011; Wargan & Dershem, 2010). These

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22. This is sometimes categorized as trafficking and sometimes not. See the Terminology discussion at the beginning of this report.

23. These percentages include only cases for which the child's relationship with the recruiter was known. In 43 percent of the cases reported, the child's relationship with the recruiter was not known.

24. There is disagreement on the definition of begging and whether busking, doing small jobs (washing car windows, for example) or selling small items should be considered begging or labor (Save the Children, 2011a). For the purpose of this report, all will be considered under the rubric of street work. See the Terminology discussion at the beginning of this report.

are clearly not cases of trafficking, but in some cases, it can be difficult to distinguish free will from coercion.<sup>25</sup>

Save the Children in Southeastern Europe interviewed 41 children involved in street work: 75 percent gave their earnings to their parents, 17 percent gave their earnings to third parties, and only one of the 41 was allowed to keep the money (2011a, p. 17). Some research on children begging in Albania indicates that (a) the vast majority are either pushed into begging by circumstances or forced by their families, (b) third parties or criminal gangs are less often involved, and (c) those who stay with their families appear to be somewhat better off and feel a sense of belonging and pride in contributing to the family income (Delap, 2009).

**Sexual Exploitation.** Children, especially adolescents, are trafficked for a variety of forms of sexual exploitation, including pornography and prostitution, often in combination with bar tending and waitressing (Dottridge, 2006; ERRC, 2011; Kane, 2005; Rusu & Fomina, 2010; U.S. Department of Labor, 2011; U.S. Department of State, 2011). Child sex tourism rings have been identified in Moldova (Rusu & Fomina, 2010; U.S. Department of State, 2011).

While some very young children are trafficked into prostitution for the pedophilia “market,” the majority of trafficked children identified in prostitution are adolescents, often working alongside adults (Kane, 2005). While research indicates that the demand is primarily for young women and not specifically for minors (Rosenberg, 2011), adolescents are still subjected to physical violence, psychological trauma, and damage to reproductive health. Additionally, youth in prostitution frequently use—and are sometimes forced to use—narcotics and alcohol (Kapoor, 2007).

**Child Labor.** The problem of child labor exists throughout the region. Children in all of the countries in this region are involved in the worst forms of child labor, working long hours and being exposed to many hazards (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011). While not all of these children are trafficked, addressing the worst forms of child labor is as important as addressing trafficking. Sometimes one or the other falls through the cracks. A survey in Azerbaijan in 2005 found that two thirds of all working children between 5 and 17 years of age were working in hazardous labor. Efforts in that country to address the worst forms of child labor, however, that focused almost exclusively on human trafficking (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011), possibly resulted in neglect of other forms of exploitation. In Moldova, 105,000 children are involved in child labor—17.5 percent of all children and 59.1 percent of all working children—according to a report by the ILO and the Moldova National Bureau of Statistics (ILO-IPEC, 2010d). A study in Moldova in 2004 found that one third of 145 child workers interviewed in a rural child labor study stated that their parents forced them to work and two thirds stated that they faced punishment if they refused to work or did a bad job (ILO-IPEC, 2010a). A survey in Ukraine found 350,000 working children. On the average they had begun working at 12 years of age and were working over 40 hours a week at the time of the survey—longer than most adults in the country (ILO-IPEC, 2009). Children are working primarily in the following sectors:

1. **Construction.** Children have been identified working in construction in many countries of the region (Rusu & Fomina, 2010; U.S. Department of Labor, 2011; U.S. Department of State, 2011) and are being trafficked for work on construction sites (U.S. Department of State, 2011; Rusu & Fomina, 2010). While not all children working on construction sites are trafficked, these children often work long hours and are exposed to dangerous working conditions (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011). An Albanian trade union reports that 20 percent of construction workers in the country are under the age of 16 (ILO-IPEC, 2007).

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25. The fact that children may not be forced or coerced, however, does not negate the dangers they face. While there may be reasons why individual cases need to be analyzed to determine whether they meet the technical definition of trafficking, there is general agreement that begging and street work are detrimental to the development of children. The European Commission states that “all forms of begging by children represent a violation of children’s rights, depriving them from education, harmonious development, have heavy consequences for their health and social inclusion, and put children at serious risk of abuse” (ERRC, 2011, p. 69).

- 2. Domestic Work.** As with other forms of exploitation, not all children engaged in domestic work are trafficked, but the trafficking of children to be domestic workers is well documented (Dottridge, 2006; ERRC, 2011; Kane, 2005; Rusu & Fomina, 2010; U.S. Department of State, 2011). Domestic work can be particularly risky for children. They are often subjected to long hours, hard physical labor, and contact with harmful chemicals. A study by Antislavery International found that the most damaging impact of child domestic work is “emotional deprivation and lack of psycho-social care” (Black, 2002, p. 7).

*The child domestic is often deeply isolated and unhappy—which can be expressed in a sullenness and lack of co-operation which may itself excite the employer’s wrath... The experience of being persistently spoken down to, scolded and ordered about imparts to the child a sense of worthlessness as a human being and a lack of will or capacity to assert any independence of spirit (Black, 2002, p. 7).*

Such physical and psychological abuse is not uncommon, but their work in the home keeps them isolated and away from members of the public who might be able to intervene.

- 3. Agriculture.** According to the ILO, 60 percent of child workers—129 million girls and boys aged 5–17—work in agriculture worldwide (ILO, n.d.). Child labor in agriculture is common in Europe and Eurasia, and in many countries of the region children are trafficked for work in agriculture (Dottridge, 2006; ILO-IPEC, 2011; Kane, 2005; Rusu & Fomina, 2010; U.S. Department of Labor, 2011). In Ukraine, a survey concluded that 46 percent of working children were employed in agriculture (ILO-IPEC, 2009). In Moldova, 95.3 percent of all working children were involved in agriculture, the majority of whom were involved in work considered hazardous. A survey in Moldova in 2009–2010 estimated that 109,000 children were engaged in dangerous work and that schools had signed contracts with farms and cooperatives requiring children to work during the harvest (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011, p. 503).

Child employment in agriculture often consists of unpaid work on family farms and the ILO notes that not all children’s participation in agriculture is exploitative:

*...non-hazardous activities can be positive as it contributes to the inter-generational transfer of skills and children’s food security. It is important to distinguish between light duties that do no harm to the child and child labor, which is work that interferes with compulsory schooling and damages health and personal development, based on hours and conditions of work, child’s age, activities performed and hazards involved (ILO, n.d.).*

This caveat notwithstanding, agriculture is one of the most hazardous sectors in terms of work-related diseases, accidents, and fatalities (ILO, n.d.).

**Child Soldiers.** The Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers (2008) found few indications of children being used as soldiers in the region or being trafficked for such use. They wrote, however, that there were unconfirmed reports of children being recruited into armed separatist forces in Chechnya and the North Caucasus. Also, in Russia and Ukraine, children without parental care are encouraged to attend military academies as young children. The report indicates that it was not clear whether the children’s enrollment was voluntary or whether an independent, responsible adult was assigned to look after the children’s best interests. In Russia, once enrolled, a child cannot be withdrawn (Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers, 2008b; Coalition to Stop the use of Child Soldiers, 2008c).

**Adoption.** Some research indicates that there are cases of parents being coerced into giving up their children for adoption, especially for the lucrative international adoption market (Chou & Browne, 2008; Save the Children, 2009). While little information is available about trafficking of infants for the purpose of adoption, in 2012, Bulgarian and Greek police uncovered a criminal group that was trafficking pregnant Bulgarian women to Greece in order to sell their children for illegal

adoptions (Sofia Echo, 2012). This could indicate an emerging trend to which authorities throughout the region should be alert.

### **GENDER DIFFERENCES**

Although there are clear gender differences in the types of exploitation typically experienced by boys and girls, there is considerable crossover. While identified trafficked girls are most often exploited in prostitution, begging, or domestic work, they are sometimes exploited in construction or agriculture. While boys are most often exploited in begging, construction and agriculture, they are sometimes exploited in prostitution and domestic work (Dottridge, 2006; ERRC, 2011; Kane, 2005; Rusu & Fomina, 2010; U.S. Department of Labor, 2011; U.S. Department of State, 2011). One study found that while girls and boys are equally vulnerable to being forced to beg, boys may be more vulnerable than girls to being trafficked by third parties for begging (Delap, 2009).

### **CONTROL AND ABUSE OF VICTIMS**

Mechanisms used to control child victims of trafficking are similar to those used on adults: violence and threats of violence, physical confinement or constant surveillance, withholding of identity documents, forced addiction to drugs and alcohol, and emotional manipulation (Dottridge, 2008b; Rusu & Fomina, 2010; Kapoor, 2007). Traffickers also use their positions of authority over children. Some children stay simply because they believe that they have nowhere else to go (Dottridge, 2008b). Trafficked children are subjected to a number of abuses, all of which have serious consequences for their physical and psychological development.

**Long Working Hours.** Children in all forms of exploitation are required to work long hours. In Albania, children in street work report working an average of six hours per day (Delap, 2009). Children doing construction and agricultural work in Moldova report working 12 to 14 hours per day (Rusu & Fomina, 2010). In Ukraine, 13–14 year old children working primarily in agriculture, worked on average 41 hours per week, while 15–17 year old children worked over 56 hours per week (ILO-IPEC, 2009). Child live-in domestic workers are sometimes on call 24 hours per day (Anti-Slavery International, n.d.).

**Harsh Weather.** Children exploited in agriculture may experience excessive exposure to the sun and extreme heat, while children exploited in begging and prostitution may be forced to stand outside in sub-freezing temperatures with little or no warm clothing to protect them (ILO-IPEC, 2006; Rusu & Fomina, 2010; Save the Children, 2011a). Children are more susceptible than adults to heat stress which can lead to illness and death (HRW, 2000). Children are also more susceptible to illness from over-exposure to the cold, which can lead to hypothermia, frostbite and respiratory infections (WHO, 2012).

**Verbal Harassment and Physical Abuse.** Children in all forms of exploitation may be subjected to verbal harassment and physical assault from authorities or the public. Children engaged in street work in particular are subject to harassment and abuse from authorities such as police, as well as from other children and the general public (Delap, 2009).

**Little or No Income.** Children do not receive a living wage in exchange for their labor. Begging children report having little or no income. Most have little if any control over money and must turn what they earn over to others (Delap, 2009; Save the Children, 2011a). Some children, however, indicate that they are able to withhold part of their earnings to spend on small items for themselves, including snacks, games, and cigarettes (Delap, 2009; Save the Children, 2011a). In some cases, children are given some income in order to appease them and keep them working. Children exploited in construction and agriculture, as with adults (c.f. Rosenberg, 2010), are often told that they will be paid in full when the work is complete, but then never receive the full wages they are due (Rusu & Fomina, 2010).

**Violence.** Many child victims of trafficking are exposed to violence and threats of violence. Children involved in street work have been found to experience high levels of violence in their daily lives

*“If the children don’t earn this amount of money, the parents beat them or don’t give them anything to eat.”  
(Statement of a begging child’s mother, Delap, 2009, p. 10.)*

(Thomas de Benitez, 2011). Children forced to beg by third parties experience far higher levels of violence and abuse than those who are controlled by family members. However, children working for their families also experience violence. One-third of the 53 Albanian children forced into begging indicated in research interviews that they were manipulated through “violence and coercion by their parents” (Delap, 2009, p. 4).

**Sexual Abuse and Harassment.** The sexual exploitation of children is profoundly harmful to their physical as well as psychological development. Both boys and girls are at risk for HIV and other sexually transmitted diseases. Sexually exploited girls risk pregnancy, which can be very dangerous for their own and their newborn baby’s health. Children trafficked for other forms of exploitation, especially those engaged in domestic work and street work, may also be subjected to sexual abuse (Anti-Slavery International, n.d.; Delap, 2009; Kane, 2005).

**Living Conditions.** Many trafficked children live in very poor, overcrowded, unsanitary conditions while trafficked (Rusu & Fomina, 2010; Delap, 2009). Some, however, especially those trafficked for prostitution, may be housed in conditions far more favorable than those from which they came (Rusu & Fomina, 2010).

**Health.** Children are exposed to many things while trafficked that can negatively affect their health. Drugs and alcohol are used to control behavior and food may be withheld as punishment (Kane, 2005; Rusu & Fomina, 2010). Children working in agriculture and construction may be exposed to toxic substances and dangerous machinery (ILO-IPEC, 2007; U.S. Department of Labor, 2011).

## V. HOW CHILDREN ARE ASSISTED AND PROTECTED IN THE REGION

Identification of child victims of trafficking remains problematic throughout the region and some countries in the region still lack services tailored to meeting the needs of children. Trafficked children often return to the same conditions that pushed them to leave in the first place. Evidence from the region indicates that children may be more vulnerable to re-trafficking when these problems are not resolved, especially if they lack family support or come from troubled families (Dottridge, 2008a; Jobe, 2010; Kane, 2005). The subsections below briefly discuss the direct assistance needed by children and how these needs are being met.

The research did not find evidence that any special needs of the trafficked children are met during procedures for identification of the child's personality [sic], legal procedures, accommodation in crisis centers, education and provision of health care services...even the satisfaction of basic needs of the children who are accommodated in the centers seems to be a challenge (Kukova, 2008, p. 39).

### IDENTIFYING TRAFFICKED CHILDREN AND ESCAPE FROM TRAFFICKING

Surveyed children revealed a variety of ways they escaped their traffickers or the form of exploitation into which they were trafficked: (a) many are arrested and repatriated, often with their families (Kane, 2005); (b) many escape through police intervention or assistance (Dottridge, 2008b; Kane, 2005); (c) some escape on their own or with assistance from others (Dottridge, 2008b); (d) some had “bosses” who told them to leave; and (e) some in prostitution were helped by clients (Kane, 2005).<sup>26</sup> Countries around the region have worked to expand the mechanisms for identifying trafficked children, including more proactive engagement of border police and other law enforcement mechanisms, community-based efforts in which a wide range of governmental and nongovernmental service providers collaborate, engagement and empowerment of labor inspectors, and the use of hotlines.

Many national trafficking referral mechanisms in the region do reference children and provide specific guidelines for identification and assistance to child VOTs. The standard operating procedures associated with the referral mechanism developed by a USAID-funded grant to the International Centre for Migration Policy Development<sup>27</sup> (2009b) to facilitate transnational assistance for VOTs with funding includes guidelines for assisting children as do the UNICEF guidelines for instituting a mechanism that specifically addresses the protection of child victims of trafficking (UNICEF, 2006).

### LAW ENFORCEMENT

The vast majority of officially recognized and identified VOTs (both children and adults) are identified by law enforcement. Increased actions by law enforcement tend to result in increased identification and assistance to victims. Problems arise when law enforcement officials do not recognize child victims of trafficking and mistakenly treat a child victim as, for example, an irregular migrant or a criminal engaging in prostitution, theft, or drug trafficking. Encouraging cooperation between law enforcement and civil society organizations or government social workers can improve the likelihood of a correct identification and onward referral for assistance.

In an effort to address cross-border trafficking, immigration officials have been engaged to identify trafficked children. In Moldova, the increased vigilance of border officials resulted in the identification of 83 potential child victims of trafficking in 2010 (U.S. Department of State, 2011).

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26. While many children and other victims of trafficking exploited in prostitution are assisted by clients to escape, some clients are indifferent to the plight of the child and may even turn them in to their traffickers (Dottridge, 2008b; Rosenberg, 2011).

27. This project included Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Romania, and Serbia.

Some countries have focused on enforcing rules requiring children to have letters of permission from parents in order to cross borders. In Romania, this enforcement reportedly prevented a young Romanian girl from being trafficked for sexual exploitation into the European Union (Dottridge, 2006). In the United Kingdom, border guards record details about unaccompanied minors so that social workers can confirm their safe arrival in their destination community. Inability to locate an unaccompanied minor triggers a search (Dottridge, 2006).

Addressing the trafficking of children for begging can be particularly difficult for law enforcement. Begging may be legal, and it may not be obvious whether an adult is controlling the child. When children are working directly for their parents, it can be difficult for law enforcement to find legal avenues to address the situation. The impact of any action may also be short lived if the child's family is involved in the child's begging on the street. Taking a child away from his or her family could be more harmful to the child than exploitation in begging and is not a decision to be taken lightly. Fining parents can result in children being forced again to beg in order to pay for the fines (Save the Children, 2011a). Many efforts have been taken in recent years in the region to address this issue, but the impact of these efforts is not yet clear.

- Police in Bosnia and Herzegovina raided child begging rings and rescued ten children, whom they referred to local shelters (U.S. Department of State, 2011). The Bosnian government reported, however, that these measures have not led to a decline in child begging. A report from the State Coordinator for Combating Trafficking in Human Beings and Illegal Migration indicated that these actions had not been as effective as hoped in “resolving the begging situation” (2011, p. 2).
- In Montenegro, Roma adults have been prosecuted for forcing their young relatives to beg (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011).
- In Armenia, prosecutors successfully prosecuted a case of forced begging of children, and the perpetrator was sentenced to seven years in prison (AASW, 2010).
- In Ukraine, in the first eight months of 2010, 113 cases related to begging were brought to court (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011, p. 784).
- In the Republic of Macedonia, police have taken a different approach, though its effectiveness could not be assessed. Plainclothes officers engage street children and their families to encourage them to find alternatives to begging (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011).
- In Bulgaria, the Sofia Municipality used mobile teams to move children found begging on the streets by themselves to crisis centers and orphanages. In three months they identified 130 children, some as young as three years old. This approach is also flawed, however, and officials indicate that many children run away from the centers and return to the streets (Sofia News Agency, 2010).

Unfortunately, transnational referral mechanisms do not specially address how to identify and assist children working or begging on the streets. Experts in Albania believe that the most important approach to addressing the problem of children on the street is to develop and institute a standard set of protocols—a referral mechanism—analogue to those generally in place for handling human trafficking of adults. They do not believe that the protocols in place for trafficking deal specifically enough with street children or children begging on the streets. Frequently, neither the police nor social welfare service providers know what their roles should be in addressing these cases, nor do the relevant NGOs have the authority to take children off the street.

**Barriers to Law Enforcement Action.** While many children are helped to escape through the interventions of police or other authorities, many children still have repeated interactions with these authorities without ever being identified or assisted (Dottridge, 2008b). Some children are deported before an assessment can be made about whether or not they are victims of trafficking (U.S.

Department of State, 2011). This is both a missed opportunity for identification and assistance and may even violate national and international law if the deportation is made against the best interests of the child.

Conflicts can arise between the incentives for law enforcement to investigate trafficking cases and protect the rights of trafficked children. Some anti-trafficking advocates point to the fact that law enforcement officials are held accountable for the number of criminal cases they investigate and bring to trial, but are neither evaluated nor held accountable for the number of victims assisted or how they are treated. This can result in situations when a need to conduct criminal investigations could conflict with a desire to uphold the rights of the victims. There have been reports of officials, for example, who knowingly allow a child to remain in a trafficked situation while police collect evidence needed to bring about an arrest and conviction.<sup>28</sup>

### **COMMUNITY-BASED PROTECTION MECHANISMS**

In response to the problems of identifying victims and those at risk and providing services for victims in their communities, many countries have implemented community-based mechanisms to address child trafficking, child labor, and related issues. Most of the mechanisms use collaborative multi-disciplinary<sup>29</sup> approaches:

- Albania has two community-based protection systems in place: Child Protection Units (CPU) and Regional Anti-Trafficking Committees. Child Protection Units were first established in Albania in 2004 and expansion throughout the country continues with a wide range of government and nongovernmental actors such as municipal social services, schools, public health services, law enforcement agencies, community counseling groups, NGOs, social service providers (Terre des homes, n.d.). The units have a broad mandate to improve child protection in their communities by identifying and assisting child VOTs as well as children considered vulnerable to trafficking. The units have been supported by donors, including USAID, with training, equipment, and other assistance. During 2010, these local mechanisms assisted 109 vulnerable children with birth registration, school materials, and medical care. Unit staff members conducted family visits and provided rental subsidies to some families.

A recent assessment of social workers' capacity to address child trafficking in Albania, however, found that CPU staff had limited knowledge of trafficking, and the majority of staff members believed that it was not present in their communities. Only 7 of the 17 CPUs studied had identified a victim of human trafficking in the course of its work (World Vision, 2011). This limitation is also reflected in the U.S. Department of State (2011) report: "local level responders' lack of understanding and response likely resulted in a lack of proactive identification and referral of these [internal] victims of trafficking" (p. 64). This report also states that the Regional Anti-Trafficking Committees are not "fully functional" (p. 65). Local actors in Albania point out that multiple groups, such as CPUs and Regional Anti-Trafficking Committees, operate at the local level. Confusion and abdication of responsibilities results because these groups have overlapping functions and responsibilities, but report to different structures. Overlapping memberships can often result in participants losing interest and finding their obligations more burdensome than productive.<sup>30</sup>

- The National Referral System in Moldova includes local-level multidisciplinary teams (commissions) that not only include local government representatives, but also NGOs,

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28. Interviews with ARSIS and Different & Equal, Albania.

29. Including representatives from at risk communities can improve the effectiveness of community protection mechanisms (Dottridge, 2006; ERRC, 2011). It is not clear, however, whether any of the community-level structures designed to address trafficking include ethnic minorities considered at particular risk for trafficking.

30. Interviews with anti-trafficking actors in Albania

social workers, medical professionals, police, and prosecutors who meet on a regular basis and discuss both prevention and protection issues, including identification of victims and coordination of assistance. The system had been expanded to include 30 localities by 2009 and was to be expanded nationwide in 2011 (Kontula & Saaristo, 2009). Local organizations apparently praise the effectiveness of the system (U.S. Department of State, 2011).

- With USAID funding, IOM Ukraine piloted an approach led by partner NGOs that involved law enforcement, social services, and child affairs offices in multidisciplinary teams in several *rayons* (lower regional-level administrative units) of five *oblasts*<sup>31</sup> (regions) of the country. The approach emphasized case conference methodologies for prescribing and providing assistance to victims. The teams were structured informally, based on cooperation agreements with the NGOs. Identification of trafficked children began right away. Before the pilot began, five to six percent of identified victims were children. By the third year of the project, the rate of identifying trafficked children had doubled; during 2010 and 2011, 11 percent of identified VOTs were children. The absolute number of children being identified also increased from 56 children in 2008 and 47 in 2009, to 123 children in 2010. A total of 228 children (60 percent girls and 40 percent boys) were identified during the pilot phase, which ended in 2011. The children had been exploited in prostitution and pornography, labor, forced begging, and to a lesser extent other illicit activities.<sup>32</sup> According to the IOM representative responsible for the project, the partnerships and capacities developed through the pilot continue to deliver results. Local NGOs cooperate with local authorities to identify and assist child VOTs, and IOM contributes to their reintegration plans. Also, because a separate chapter on children is included in Ukraine's new law, "On Combatting Human Trafficking," IOM is considering additional possibilities for continuing to build the capacities of service providers to assist child VOTs that align with the new law and supplementary legislation (H. Antonova, personal communication, December 12, 2012).
- A new law calling for cooperation at the local level for identifying and assisting victims of trafficking will base the mechanisms for this cooperation on the outcomes of these pilots.
- Social workers, social welfare officers, school counselors, medical professionals, and others in the community can play an important role in identifying and assisting trafficked or at risk children, through organized community groups or independently. Many officials in these positions, however, may not be properly prepared for the task. Save the Children's research in Southeastern Europe found, for example, that social workers felt ill-equipped to deal with the problems of child begging (2011a).

There have been many efforts in the region to prepare social workers to address the issue of trafficking: providing training, developing protocols and guidelines, and establishing multi-agency task forces, as discussed above. Sustainable Interventions to Combat Trafficking in Persons in Bosnia and Herzegovina (SUSTAIN), a USAID-funded project in Bosnia and Herzegovina that ended in 2011 provided training for approximately 176 social workers on assisting victims of trafficking which included working with transnational referral mechanisms. In cooperation with the Office of the State Coordinator, the project ensured that all future social workers will receive this training by incorporating issues of human and child trafficking in the curricula of the faculties of social work at the national universities (State Coordinator for Combating THB and Illegal Migration in Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2011; U.S. Department of Labor, 2011).

Over the past decade, various state agencies throughout the region have received a substantial amount of training (ILO-IPEC, 2007; U.S. Department of State, 2011). While it is not possible to

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31. Interview with Tatiana Ivanyuk, Counter-Trafficking Programme Specialist, IOM Ukraine

32. Interview with Tatiana Ivanyuk, Counter-Trafficking Programme Specialist, IOM Ukraine

comment on best approaches because few trainings have been evaluated or evaluations are not publicly available, there is evidence that these trainings have had an impact. Some programs, for example, indicate that following training, professionals witnessed an increase in the number of trafficking incidents reported and children referred for assistance (ILO-IPEC, 2007).

**Promising Practice  
E&E Region**

ILO-IPEC has worked with several countries in the region to implement Child Labor Monitoring Systems to identify and remove children working in the worst forms of child labor and to identify and assist children at risk. The system is integrated into existing social welfare mechanisms run by state and local authorities (ILO-IPEC, 2011). The system improves targeting of the informal sector, expands communities' capabilities to reach out to vulnerable children and their families, improves child protection mechanisms, and standardizes services to exploited and vulnerable children. A critical element is the establishment of Local Action Committees comprising a wide range of local actors from government and civil society, who commit to identifying and supporting exploited children (ILO-IPEC, 2007). The integration of the Child Labor Monitoring System into existing social welfare and other national mechanisms, combined with written commitments and cooperation agreements, makes this a sustainable mechanism, when the political will and commitment to address child labor issues are present. The system has been integrated into relevant legislation in Romania, Bulgaria and Ukraine and numerous state and non-state actors were trained in its use between 2004 and 2010. Use of the system contributed to the provision of services to over 19,000 children in those countries (ILO, Project of Technical Assistance for the Elimination of Child Labour, including Trafficking, in countries of Central and Eastern Europe).

## **LABOR INSPECTORS**

Labor inspectors have an important role in identifying exploited children. Most countries in the region have labor inspectorates and labor laws that regulate the employment of children and criminalize many forms of child labor. Most also have sanctions that can be utilized to punish and fine abusive employers. In Russia, for example, the federal Labor and Employment Service in 2008

**Promising Practice  
Ukraine**

While labor inspectors in Ukraine are not officially charged with inspecting informal workplaces, child labor inspectors were able to observe these places as ordinary citizens. They used their expertise to assess the working conditions and children's ages and then reported their findings to the police or other authorities that are officially tasked with responding (ILO-IPEC, 2007). During the first ten months of 2010, Ukraine's child labor inspectors identified 1,195 working children, most of whom were under the age 14 and working in agriculture (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011).

reported 10,000 violations of child labor laws involving children working in hazardous conditions in a variety of sectors. Employers paid a total of U.S. \$49,600 in fines (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011, p. 630). In many countries, however, these mechanisms are not yet being used to their full potential.

The U.S. Department of Labor (2011) found four countries in the region—Albania, Armenia, Georgia, and Kosovo—with labor inspection systems that are not able to protect children against exploitative labor practices. These systems have too few inspectors for the territory covered, and are hampered by insufficient funding, poor collaboration with other agencies, and poor monitoring and data collection processes. However, because inspections usually cover only the formal employment sector and much of the child labor in the region is in the informal sector, even an efficient inspection system may not be effective in addressing forced child labor or exploitative child labor practices. Moldova addressed this issue by establishing a Child Labor Monitoring Unit authorized to inspect both formal and non-formal workplaces, though not to sanction employers (p. 504). In 2010, the unit recorded 440 child labor violations and removed 40 children from the worst forms of child labor.

## **HOTLINES**

Many children escape exploitation with the help of family members or friends back home, and hotlines make it easier for family, friends, and the public at large to report trafficking cases. Hotlines require close collaboration between hotline operators and police who know (a) how to handle reports and (b) how to safely locate and assist trafficked children, especially in international cases.

Through a partially USAID-funded program in Ukraine, IOM worked with local officials to launch a campaign to inform the public about child exploitation for labor, begging, and sexual exploitation. All of the materials included the social service office telephone number to call to report incidents of suspected trafficking. While the materials seem very powerful, at the time of this report's publication, information was not yet available on the number of calls received and children assisted, or how well the social service officers were able to handle the calls. A similar campaign, launched in Romania by the National Authority for the Protection of Child Rights, reported a 15 percent increase in the number of cases of child labor reported following the campaign (ILO-IPEC, 2007).

In Bulgaria, a hotline for children has received numerous reports of child trafficking for a variety of types of exploitation, including labor, prostitution, and begging (Venelinova, 2010). Hotlines in other parts of the world have proven to be effective tools for the identification of child VOTs (Aradau, 2005; Rosenberg, 2008).

### **Promising Practice Albania**

UNODC and IOM worked with the Albanian government to launch an anti-trafficking help line in 2005. The international organizations provided material and capacity building support while the Albanian government provided space and frontline operators who divert calls to the police, local NGOs, or international organizations, depending on the nature of the call (Rosenberg, 2008). The government took over funding the hotline (Albanian National Coordinator on Combating Trafficking in Human Beings, 2008), which is still in operation.

## **OUTREACH**

Outreach is another method of identifying victims and providing services. To date, outreach has been used primarily in relation to street prostitution but has the potential to be expanded to other forms of trafficking (Aradau, 2005). A report by the Danish Red Cross (as cited in Aradau, 2005), found that cultural mediation is an important element of effective outreach. Cultural mediators are outreach workers who share a common nationality, language, or experience with the target group. They provide information, referrals, and assistance in accessing services, and assistance in leaving exploitative situations. Outreach is seen as particularly effective because it is based on building trust slowly over time, not through regulatory or law enforcement action, which can have unintended consequences, such as driving vulnerable children underground, making them less visible and more difficult to access, or violating their individual rights. Outreach has also been used with begging and street children (Wolfensohn, 2004) and shows potential for other forms of child trafficking, such as child labor in construction and agriculture.

## **CHALLENGES PROVIDING SERVICES TO TRAFFICKED CHILDREN**

This section will briefly discuss issues related to assisting child VOTs in the region. Practitioners working directly with potential VOTs can find in-depth discussions of these and related issues in UNICEF's *Guidelines on the Protection of Child Victims of Trafficking* (UNICEF, 2006) and the USAID-

funded *Guidelines for the Development of a Transnational Referral Mechanism for Trafficked Persons: Southeast Europe* (ICMPD, 2009b).<sup>33</sup>

### **SELF DETERMINATION AND GUARDIANSHIP**

Research indicates that many trafficked children who are assisted in destination countries are given very few opportunities to participate in making decisions that affect their lives. Many were not given an opportunity to telephone home; they were given little information about their situation, their rights, or what would happen to them next; and few had access to attorneys or had guardians appointed to look after their best interests (Dottridge, 2008b). It is important for trafficked children to have access to an adult who is legally responsible for looking after their best interests, including ensuring that their wishes are taken into account. For children who are not returned to their families, however, guardianship remains an ongoing issue. National regulations on guardianship can be complicated and may result in a child staying with people or organizations without official guardian status or guardianship being assigned to state social workers who have limited contact with their charge (Dottridge, 2010).

### **RETURNING HOME**

Most trafficked children are returned to their families. Among a range of responses, some parents are indifferent, some fail to understand the abuse their child has suffered, and some blame the child for not bringing home promised earnings (Kane, 2005). Though it is now standard practice to conduct a family assessment before returning a child home (IOM, 2007), some research has shown that many children are returned home without being counseled about whether that is their desire and without their families being contacted or assessed in advance (Dottridge, 2008b).

While it is also standard practice for children to be returned to their home country and their own home escorted by a responsible adult (IOM, 2007), reports indicate that this is not always consistently practiced by all actors. In fact, some authorities have been known to repatriate children across international borders alone, without any assistance. One child victim of trafficking reported:

*At the police station, a colonel gave me [the equivalent of about one Euro] for a soda and a pretzel and also a note to the attention of the railway police to send me back to my hometown. He said, "You go to the police in your town and solve your problems there" (Dottridge, 2008b, p. 32).*

Even children who desire to return home and who have supportive families may lack needed support services in their home communities, especially in rural areas. Children from ethnic minorities may also face discrimination in accessing services (ERRC, 2011).

### **COUNSELING**

Child VOTs who have been interviewed about the assistance they received indicate that counseling and meetings with psychologists were very helpful in reducing their levels of anxiety and stress, and helping them learn new coping skills (Dottridge, 2008b). Unfortunately, counseling services are not always available to trafficked children, especially those returning to families in rural communities, as noted above.

### **ACCOMMODATION**

For many children, returning to their families is the best option, especially if support services are available within the community. Some children, however, have reasons why they cannot or prefer not to return to their family: (a) the family may not be supportive, (b) the community may stigmatize them, (c) the traffickers may live in the community and may have threatened them, (d) the problems

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33. See also: *The IOM Handbook on Direct Assistance for Victims of Trafficking*, Anti-Slavery International's *Protocol for Identification and Assistance to Trafficked Persons and Training Kit* and ILO's *Psycho-Social Rehabilitation of Children Withdrawn from Trafficking and Other Worst Forms of Child Labour*.

they tried to escape before being trafficked may remain unresolved and might have become worse, or (e) they have other personal reasons for preferring to be somewhere else (Dottridge, 2008b).

In some countries in the region there are few options for housing child VOTs, especially long-term options for children who cannot or prefer not to return to their families (U.S. Department of State, 2011). A variety of arrangements for accommodating child VOTs have been used throughout the region. Unfortunately, many of these options involve staff that do not have specialized experience in dealing with VOTs or involve integrating child victims of crime with children in conflict with the law.

**Table 5: Accommodations for Child Victims of Trafficking in Six Countries**

<b>Country</b>	<b>Accommodation</b>
Albania	Adolescent female VOTs are accommodated alongside adult women in shelters designed specifically for victims of trafficking. Younger children and boys are accommodated in short-term crisis centers with specialized staff. Long-term solutions include placement in orphanages and foster care, which is piloted in Albania. <sup>a</sup>
Armenia	Children are accommodated in short-term crisis centers with specialized staff. Children are referred to orphanages for long-term care. Foster care is only used occasionally. <sup>b</sup>
Azerbaijan	Children have been placed in foster care and in boarding schools. <sup>c</sup>
Kosovo	Children are accommodated in short-term crisis centers with specialized staff. Children are referred to orphanages for long-term care. <sup>f</sup>
Republic of Macedonia	Shelters for victims of trafficking include adults and children in the same shelter, with separate sleeping areas but other rooms in common. <sup>c</sup>
Montenegro	Child victims of trafficking and begging are placed in a shelter financed and run by the government. <sup>c</sup>
Russia	Child victims of trafficking may be placed either in governmental social protection institutions or in crisis centers run by NGOs. Children over 16 years of age may be placed in pre-trial detention facilities for children in conflict with the law. When returning child victims of trafficking to their own family is not possible, long-term solutions include state orphanages or foster families in the region/country of origin. <sup>d</sup>
Serbia	Children may be placed in orphanages, juvenile detention centers, and foster families. <sup>c, f</sup>
Ukraine	Children may be placed in shelters for homeless children or in juvenile detention facilities. <sup>c</sup>

Sources. <sup>a</sup> Rosenberg, R. & Lenja, V., co-researcher. <sup>b</sup> Communication with OSCE staff in Armenia. <sup>c</sup> U.S. Department of State, 2011. <sup>d</sup> Interview with Olga Kolpakova, Head of Prevention Programs, NGO “Stellit.” <sup>e</sup> Communication with Antigona Dajakaj, Anti-Trafficking Specialist, Kosovo. <sup>f</sup> Gioffre, 2010.

Staying at shelters needs to be voluntary for children: Forcible detention has not been proven to be effective and may even be detrimental. Directors of crisis centers for children in Bulgaria report that many children are re-trafficked almost immediately upon their release (Kukova, 2008). Juvenile detention facilities—designed for children in conflict with the law and often with punitive rather than supportive approaches to their child residents—are also inappropriate (Kukova, 2008).

### **EDUCATION, SKILLS TRAINING AND JOB PLACEMENT SERVICES**

Many trafficked children have not completed compulsory education and continuation of their education is an important element of their successful reintegration into the community and future prospects. For children who completed primary and secondary education, enrollment in tertiary education or in vocational education may be preferred options. Many trafficked children, however, have had significant disruptions to their education, and although assisting them to reintegrate into schools is a part of many assistance programs in the region, there are many obstacles. Schools may be unwilling or unable to integrate children who have significant gaps in their basic education. In the Republic of Macedonia, for example, children between 10 and 14 years of age cannot enter the formal education system for the first time<sup>34</sup> (Ogden, 2011). In Bulgaria, a large percentage of the children held in crisis centers were unable to enroll in school (Kukova, 2008). Romania has erected

34. The laws stipulate that children over 9 years of age cannot be enrolled for the first time in primary school and children under 15 years of age cannot be enrolled in adult education programs (Ogden, 2011).

serious administrative obstacles, including discrimination by school authorities that prevented trafficked children from being enrolled in school (UNICEF, 2005). As a result, many programs resort to informal education, even though completion of informal education programs often does not result in an accepted certificate and can leave these children with few employment prospects.

Youth who were trafficked as children indicated that the support they received in learning job skills and in finding employment was critical to their wellbeing (Dottridge, 2008b). However, there are barriers to enrolling trafficked children in formal vocational education. In Romania, for example, service providers indicated that while they can enroll beneficiaries in vocational education, these young people will not receive diplomas and cannot be employed until they complete a requirement for primary education, even though they do not need this education to do their jobs competently (UNICEF, 2005).

In spite of the barriers, many organizations have been successful in providing trafficked youth with vocational skills and job placements. For example, in Albania, 76 percent of attendees at jobs skills courses provided by organizations serving victims of trafficking found jobs or self-employment in a related field during the 12-month period from October 2009 to September 2010 (Lenja, V. forthcoming).<sup>35</sup> In Bulgaria, 24 out of 32 trafficked Roma girls in a job skills training program were able to find employment after the training (ERRC, 2011).

## CHILD VICTIMS OF TRAFFICKING AND THE JUSTICE SYSTEM

### LEGISLATION

Human trafficking is a criminal offense in all of the countries in the region and there are more severe penalties for trafficking of children in six countries (Ionescu & Fusu-Plăiașu, 2008; Kukova, 2008; U.S. Department of Labor, 2011).<sup>36</sup> Some countries, like Albania, have expressly designated forced begging as a criminal offense (Delap, E., 2009). Authorities in Albania amended the criminal code in 2008 to specifically include forcing a child to beg as a separate offense. Authorities hoped that the amendment would be an additional tool for law enforcement because it criminalized parents or guardians who force children to beg. Many experts in Albania, however, believe that the new article, which requires proof that a child was forced or coerced into begging in order to convict the offender, has undermined implementation of the statute on trafficking children (which does not require proof that force or coercion was involved in child trafficking in order to convict the offender).<sup>37</sup> The amendment was not written in accordance with the international standard specified in the Palermo Protocol, which states that a child cannot consent to be exploited and therefore the presence or absence of coercion or force is irrelevant to the definition, identification, and prosecution of child trafficking.

### PROSECUTION

In many countries in the region, available criminal justice statistics on trafficking are not disaggregated by the age of the victims (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011), making it difficult, if not impossible, to isolate data on child trafficking cases. These general criminal justice data indicate that few of

*One of the latest adopted measures in the fight against all forms of discrimination is the addition to article 144/b, 24 "Maltreatment of Minors" to the Penal Code. This provision punishes with prison terms "from three months to two years" the physical or psychological maltreatment of minors by person entrusted to look after them; meanwhile, the obligation of minors to work in order to gain incomes, to beg or make actions harmful to its development is punished with prison terms to four years and with a fine from 50.000 to 1 Million Lekë. If this criminal offence causes serious injury to the health or the death of the minor, the degree of punishment is 10–20 years. (Republic of Albania, 2010)*

35. Seventy-five beneficiaries received professional courses: While 12 were still taking courses, 63 had completed the courses during the specified time frame. 48 of these 63 had found jobs or were self-employed in a related field. No information was available about the remaining 15 (Lenja, V., forthcoming).

36. Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Montenegro, the Russian Federation, and Ukraine (Ionescu & Fusu-Plăiașu, 2008; Kukova, 2008; U.S. Department of Labor, 2011)

37. Interviews with anti-trafficking actors in Albania.

the cases of trafficking that are reported and investigated result in prosecutions and convictions. (See Appendix V) This fact blocks meaningful justice for the victims and may discourage police officers from pursuing human trafficking cases (UNICEF, 2005).

Trafficking cases are sometimes prosecuted using statutes related to other offenses. While this may be seen as necessary in order to secure a conviction when the evidence does not support trafficking charges, there are negative consequences. Reporting fewer cases of trafficking than occur distorts trafficking statistics and can result in the perception that the crime does not occur very often. The prosecution of perpetrators for lesser crimes with less severe penalties can affect victims by decreasing their access to services and protection as well as the size of compensatory damages they are awarded (ERRC, 2011). This approach can also result in victims being charged with crimes committed while they were trafficked. In several countries of the region, minors have been arrested for prostitution rather than being treated as victims of trafficking (U.S. Department of State, 2011).

**Corruption.** Although corruption continues to be an obstacle to effective prosecution of trafficking cases, there have been efforts in the region to investigate and prosecute officials involved in trafficking of children. The Republic of Macedonia successfully prosecuted and sentenced a police officer involved in the prostitution of two minors to eight and a half years in prison (U.S. Department of State, 2011). Police in Montenegro have been arrested and charged with involvement in the prostitution of minors (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011; U.S. Department of State, 2011).

Corruption is an obstacle to the effective investigation and prosecution of trafficking cases because it undermines witnesses' and victims' willingness to come forward with information or to report cases to the authorities. In many countries in the region, confidence in the justice sector is low due to perceptions of widespread corruption (Cozzarelli, 2011; European Commission, *In the dock: Justice in the Balkans*; USAID, 2011a; USAID, 2011b). One survey in Moldova found that only 48.1 percent of surveyed youth would report to the police if they had been the victim of a crime (Institute for Development and Social Initiatives "Viitorul," 2009).

This lack of confidence in the justice systems of the region likely has both a direct and an indirect effect on VOTs. The direct effect is that VOTs may not report their cases to authorities because they are reluctant to appeal to the courts for justice. Indirectly, courts that are unable to satisfactorily resolve non-trafficking cases may put children at more risk of being trafficked. If domestic abuse cases are not resolved, for example, children may run away from home into the hands of traffickers in a desperate attempt to escape violence.

**Treatment of Child Victims during Criminal Procedures.** Some countries in the region have made efforts to prevent further harm to child victims of crime by making their criminal justice procedures more child-friendly. The Moldovan Government has clearly increased its focus on children in its fight against trafficking. Its 2010 activity report highlighted significant efforts to improve the capacity of law enforcement to handle child victims and witnesses of abuse (National Committee for Combating Trafficking in Persons, 2011). NGOs in Moldova reported improved treatment of child VOTs by law enforcement through the use of child-friendly techniques and involvement of NGO service providers to support children throughout the criminal justice process (U.S. Department of State, 2011). However, in the region there are also reported cases of child victims of trafficking being treated as criminals for crimes committed while trafficked or as a means to pressure them to cooperate with law enforcement against their traffickers (EERC, 2011; Kukova, 2008). Children are provided with free legal assistance in some countries (Ionescu & Fusu-Plăiașu, 2008) but denied the legal representation to which they are entitled by law in other countries (Kukova, 2008). Trials involving child victims are often closed to the public to protect their privacy (UNICEF, 2005).

UNICEF, among others, indicates that there is still much to be done in this region to improve the criminal justice system's handling of cases involving children:

*Only a few justice systems in the region have child-sensitive procedures for dealing with child victims and witnesses of crime. In general, police, prosecutors, judges, lawyers, social*

*services and health professionals have not been trained in how to guarantee children's rights. The court environment is rarely adapted to children's needs; it is often intimidating and can be dangerous (e.g. requiring a child victim to directly confront the accused). Access to justice for children whose rights have been violated also remains a challenge due to legal, social, cultural and practical constraints (UNICEF, 2011, p. 3).*

**Compensation.** There is little data on compensation paid to victims of trafficking (ERRC, 2011). Some countries have made efforts to ensure that victims receive some compensation, even though the amounts are usually quite small. Romanian law, for example, allows the prosecutor in criminal proceedings to claim damages and compensation for child VOTs. Several cases have resulted in awards of approximately 5,000 Euros for “moral damages” for adolescents forced into prostitution (Ionescu & Fusu-Plăiașu 2008). In Bulgaria, victims of trafficking can apply for compensation from the state. Awards are decided by an expert commission within the Ministry of Justice Council and range from 125–2,500 Euros per person (Kukova, 2008).

**Knowledge of the Age of the Victim.** Adults who abuse children may claim ignorance of the child's age in order to avoid prosecution or reduce sanctions. In several cases of children trafficked into prostitution in Romania, a court allowed statements from persons who had used the adolescents' sexual services to be used as evidence. They said that the victims neither appeared to be minors nor showed any signs of force or abuse. Acceptance of the statements resulted in some defendants' acquittal of the crime of trafficking in children, and in some cases, their conviction of the lesser charge of procurement of prostitution (Ionescu & Fusu-Plăiașu, 2008).

## VI. HOW TRAFFICKING OF CHILDREN IS BEING PREVENTED

### OVERVIEW

Prevention is critical to the long-term eradication of human trafficking in general and child trafficking in particular. A 2004 report identified groups that had been neglected by prevention interventions, and they included children in general, children who are ethnic minorities, and children trafficked for purposes other than sexual exploitation (Rosenberg, 2004). Since that time, USAID has funded a wide range of interventions throughout the region to prevent trafficking of children: (a) awareness-raising activities, (b) expanding access to basic education and improving education outcomes, (c) improving child protection mechanisms, and (d) economically empowering children and families (c.f. Warnath, 2009).

It is important to know how the most promising practices are identified from among the variety of prevention approaches included in this report. It is not possible to directly measure the impact of prevention programs—the number of children who were not trafficked, but would have been without the intervention. In this case, program impact must be indirectly measured using proxies such as changes in knowledge and understanding of trafficking, improvement in families' income, and increased rates of school attendance.

This section discusses prevention interventions to which USAID has contributed during the last eight years and highlights promising practices identified by the indirect measures just described.

### RAISING AWARENESS

Raising awareness about child trafficking can have many objectives and a wide variety of strategies can be used to achieve these objectives.<sup>38</sup> Strategies include:

- Informing children and their families about trafficking.
- Teaching children skills to avoid being trafficked or to help them seek assistance if trafficked.
- Informing adults in contact with children (police, social workers, teachers, labor inspectors, etc.) about trafficking and their responsibilities to protect children at risk.
- Informing the general public about child trafficking, to highlight prevention and to increase empathy and understanding toward victims.
- Informing potential users or consumers of trafficked children's labor or services in order to reduce demand.

**School-based Awareness Raising.** Schools throughout the region have conducted awareness-raising activities (Ionescu & Fusu-Plăiașu, 2008; Kukova, 2008; Rosenberg, 2006a; U.S. Department of Labor, 2011; Warnath, 2009). Approaches have included integration of trafficking prevention information and activities into the existing school curriculum; obligatory and optional special curricula on trafficking; ad hoc workshops conducted by NGOs, police, or other officials; and peer-to-peer mechanisms (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011).

In an IOM-managed program in Southeastern Europe, training was provided to help teachers integrate trafficking prevention into existing curricula and to help organizations incorporate trafficking prevention into their work with children who do not attend school (Rosenberg, 2006a). Pre- and post-training tests indicated that the training substantially increased teachers' understanding of trafficking. Children taught by participating teachers demonstrated a significantly better understanding of human trafficking than the control groups from the same areas. Children from both groups, however, expressed interest in suspicious offers for jobs or marriage abroad, although the groups whose teachers participated in the training showed somewhat more caution (Rosenberg,

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38. c.f. Wolfensohn, 2004

2006a). An evaluation of anti-trafficking education programs in Romania (UNICEF, 2005) showed similar findings. Although students demonstrated significant knowledge of trafficking, a NGO Manager quoted in the evaluation reported that their proposed future actions had not changed:

*I applied before and after questionnaires to see what was the result: nothing! I've been all over the country, I applied hundreds and hundreds of questionnaires. 64 or 67 percent of these children said yes, I know what trafficking is, but they will still apply for a job abroad, because, otherwise, they will starve in Romania. And I'll be careful, I'll keep my eyes open.*  
(p. 70)

When integrated into school curricula, trafficking prevention education provides a sustainable method of increasing teachers' and students' understanding of trafficking. Because knowledge of trafficking does not reduce students' interest in attractive offers of work at home or abroad, for classes to be effective, teachers need to emphasize both decision-making skills and safe migration information with students in order to increase children's abilities to protect themselves. (See the section on encouraging safe migration below.)

Following the IOM-managed regional education project referenced above, the Albanian Ministry of Education issued guidelines to all schools emphasizing that schools must address gender, trafficking, and domestic violence issues in the classroom by integrating human trafficking content into the curricula of gender and social education classes (Albanian National Coordinator on Combating Trafficking in Human Beings, 2008). With USAID funding, a similar program in Bosnia and Herzegovina has been expanded throughout the country (State Coordinator for Combating THB and Illegal Migration in Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2011).

Ad hoc awareness-raising sessions in schools reach fewer children, may be less effective, and are less sustainable. Because they are not integrated into school curricula, they are usually discontinued when project funding ends. Their impact is limited because they generally do not reach all of the schools in the country. One assessment of ad hoc awareness-raising workshops held in schools in Albania found that they met with limited success (Dottridge, 2006), and to be effective, needed to be combined with financial support to families (Dottridge, 2006; ILO-IPEC, 2011; Delap, 2009; Dottridge, 2008a).

**Awareness Raising among Children Who Do Not Attend School.** Prevention programs in schools miss children who do not attend schools. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, The USAID-funded SUSTAIN project supported the development of non-formal educational materials and tools on human trafficking. The implementer held a training of trainers for educators with extensive experience working with street children from 14 organizations (State Coordinator for Combating THB and Illegal Migration in Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2011).

**Promising Practice  
E&E Region**

In Romania, ILO-IPEC and Save the Children piloted a mobile school to reach out to street children. The mobile school used interactive participatory techniques, addressed traditional school subjects and life skills, and provided children with support services, including counseling, health care, food, clothing, school uniforms, and hygiene products. Among the 45 children who participated, 21 were prevented from exploitation and the other 24 were removed from exploitive situations and trafficking (ILO-IPEC, 2010c).

**Outreach to segregated schools for minority populations.** Prevention programs often miss children who do not attend school or who attend segregated schools – exactly the situation of many of the children most vulnerable to trafficking. Roma and Egyptians as well as refugee children are likely to attend schools that are segregated from the mainstream education system. Bulgarian authorities, for example,

*...organize lectures in schools with police and NGOs to raise awareness among students about trafficking as a preventative measure. However, authorities reported that this is not done in segregated Roma-only schools, leaving the most vulnerable group without access to anti-trafficking prevention activities. (ERRC, 2011)*

The SUSTAIN project in Bosnia and Herzegovina also funded the adaptation of anti-trafficking educational materials and tools for work with children in institutions and Roma children and translated booklets into the Romani language (State Coordinator for Combating THB and Illegal Migration in Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2011).

**Annual Events.** A variety of national day- or week-long events have been dedicated to specific issues such as child trafficking, child labor, and child rights. The events have included a wide range of anti-trafficking activities, from national campaigns to local initiatives like marches, debates, art exhibitions, and contests. Children themselves have often been substantially involved in planning, organizing, and participating in these events. The ILO has found these activities to be sustainable and adaptable to existing budgets (ILO-IPEC, 2007). In Moldova, activities like these have resulted in increased reporting of child labor cases to the national hotline (ILO-IPEC, 2007).

**Working with the Media.** Journalists throughout the region have been given training and support to encourage accurate reporting on child trafficking and child labor, and several reports have documented results. In Armenia, articles on trafficking increased after the training and reflected a deeper understanding of the issues (AASW, 2010). In the Republic of Macedonia, prizes were awarded to the best stories written in response to a weeklong national anti-trafficking campaign (Dottridge, 2010). While there have been positive impacts on journalists, organizations found it very difficult to influence media decision makers—the editors and managers of media outlets—to report more responsibly on trafficking issues (Dottridge, 2010).

Media monitoring is a tool for protecting children’s rights by: (a) ensuring that media do not reveal identifying information about child victims of trafficking, and (b) assessing whether media accurately and constructively report information about trafficking issues. A Terre des Hommes project in Southeastern Europe developed a more systematic, standardized method and scorecard for monitoring and assessing media reporting on child trafficking issues that was cited as a good practice by a recent assessment of the project (Dottridge, 2010).

**Limitations of Awareness Raising with Children and Their Families.** Numerous awareness-raising campaigns have taken place throughout the region using mass media, printed materials, theater productions, contests and many other social marketing tools. However, studies of trafficked children have indicated that they had little knowledge of trafficking, migration, or the problems that children can encounter prior to being trafficked (Dottridge, 2008b; Rusu & Fomina, 2010). One Romanian NGO tried distributing leaflets to children and their parents about the difficult conditions and abuses faced by Romanian children in France, but found that this had little impact (Dottridge, 2008a, p. 29). Efforts in Albania to change the attitudes of minority communities toward child begging met with limited success (Delap, 2009).

#### **Children’s Voices**

“This poster looks very nice, but it wouldn’t have made any difference to me” (teenage survivor of trafficking, Romania, Wolfensohn, 2004, p. 54).

“I was so sure of myself. I never believed that something bad would happen to me though I have heard previously that bad things might happen” (Child victim of trafficking, Dottridge, 2008b, p. 16).

“I read about this in papers, saw it on TV, but I never thought it is so simple to sell and cheat people” (Child victim of trafficking, Dottridge, 2008b, p. 16).

“OK, you come here and give us posters and information, but what are you really going to do for us and our communities? We need you do something substantial [sic] – to develop interventions that address unemployment, that address the poverty of our community” (16 year old boy, Montenegro, Wolfensohn, 2004, p. 61).

Knowledge of trafficking *per se* does not necessarily reduce vulnerability to being trafficked and information alone does not necessarily change behaviors or reduce other vulnerabilities. A student in Moldova, who was told about the violence and abuse facing trafficked persons, commented that since this was a part of normal life in Moldova, one would naturally want to risk going abroad (Kontula & Saaristo, 2009). A false sense of security can result from misunderstanding a seemingly clear message and care must be taken to test messages to be sure that they are understood correctly. A young Moldovan woman knew that Turkey could be a risky destination, but had not heard similar cautions about Russia. When she accepted a job offer in Moscow, assuming it would be real and safe, turned out to be neither, and she ended up under the control of traffickers (Dottridge, 2006).

These limitations do not mean that information campaigns are not useful. The impact of information campaigns alone is limited, and they must be combined with other interventions in order to address the factors that make children vulnerable to being trafficked. But when a population is unaware of trafficking or is misinformed, such campaigns can play an important role.

**Limitations of Awareness Raising in Reducing Donations to Begging Children.** The BKTF Coalition, a group of NGOs working with children in Albania, ran a campaign partially funded by USAID to discourage the public from giving donations to children on the street. The organizers reasoned that if children did not earn money from begging for their parents or handlers, they would no longer be exploited in begging. They might instead be allowed to go to school and their parents might find other ways of earning a living (Danaj, 2009).<sup>39</sup> The campaign had three objectives: (a) increase public understanding of the circumstances of children who beg and the harm it can cause them, (b) help the public develop a more responsive attitude toward child begging, and (c) increase public awareness of services that address the needs of child beggars. The campaign used leaflets, posters, billboards, bus advertisements, and broadcast TV spots and radio jingles during July and August of 2007. An independent survey to assess its impact was conducted in October, two months after the end of the campaign. The survey found that:

- The campaign had excellent coverage: 85 percent of the people interviewed had heard about forced child begging, most through the television spots, bus advertisements, and billboards.
- The public had indeed understood the message that child begging violates the rights of children and has a negative impact on their development.
- While more people in this survey (29.5 percent) indicated that they would not give money to the children than in a previous survey (19.0 percent), more people also indicated less avoidance of begging children, perhaps indicating that after the campaign there was a greater level of compassion and recognition of the children as members of the greater community.<sup>40</sup>
- The daily income reported from begging children, their relatives or handlers had decreased by 100–200 Albanian Lek (0.96–1.92 U.S. Dollars) since the campaign began. The authors noted that this was a 7 to 18 percent decrease compared to previous studies.
- Few of the respondents knew of places to refer children for assistance (Statistical Research Center & Information and Technology, 2007).

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39. While on its face this reasoning seems logical, it is highly idealistic. Parents may not be able to find other means of supporting their families and their children could be transferred to more harmful forms of exploitation. The point is not that this kind of campaign is not useful or cannot be successful, but that it needs to be studied in-depth, with close attention to the outcomes for the children involved.

40. The previous survey was not conducted by the same organization and its results were not publicly available. Though it is not clear whether the same methodology and questions were used, or whether comparisons are strictly applicable, the organization that conducted the impact survey had access to the original unpublished survey data and made these comparisons in its analysis.

Anti-trafficking actors in Albania, including members of the sponsoring coalition, had mixed responses to the campaign. Some people felt that the message was not to give to children and that it increased children’s potential for more hardship and violence at home if heeding it were to result in a loss of income and not meeting their parents’ expectations. People also felt that not enough emphasis had been placed on providing alternative forms of assistance to the children.<sup>41</sup> The campaign was successful in changing public attitudes toward the children, but did not result in referrals for assistance. The impact of the campaign on the children was not clear and there were no indications that it had a direct impact on reducing the number of children begging on the streets.

### **Limitations of Awareness Raising in Reducing Demand for Children in Prostitution.**

Pedophiles—persons who specifically seek to exploit pre-adolescent children—are driven by a psychiatric disorder that cannot be addressed through typical demand reduction interventions and will not be discussed in this report. Buyers who are not specifically seeking to exploit pre-adolescent children and may not even be seeking minors might be addressed through demand reduction strategies, which could involve awareness-raising activities.

Research indicates that the earlier a man is when he first purchases sex, the more likely he is to continue purchasing sex during his lifetime (Anderson & O’Connell Davidson, 2002). This buying behavior can be both abetted and discouraged by peer pressure and societal attitudes. Efforts to change societal attitudes towards paying for sex, particularly the attitudes of young men, and to increase young men’s resistance to peer pressure to buy sex may be effective tools for reducing demand (c.f. Rosenberg, 2011).

Many studies indicate that criminalizing and prosecuting buyers of prostitution can have a deterrent effect when buyers believe that the laws will be enforced. Too often there is little deterrence, because buyers have little reason to believe that they will be punished (Rosenberg 2011). While some countries have laws that specifically sanction those who knowingly buy sex from minors or from someone who has been trafficked, these laws may require that prosecutors prove that the buyer knew the person was a minor or had been trafficked. This high burden of proof makes prosecutions nearly impossible (Rosenberg 2011). In spite of its limitations, raising awareness is an essential tool for supporting the rule of law and effective enforcement.

### **EXPANDING ACCESS TO EDUCATION AND IMPROVING OUTCOMES**

There are indications that children with lower levels of education are more at risk of being trafficked. Keeping children in school longer provides not only a better foundation for their future, but also surer protection in the present, through regular contact with school authorities.

**Encouraging Children and their Parents to Keep Children in School.** There have been many initiatives encouraging children to stay in school or to return to school, including civil society programs, government initiatives in schools, government incentives, and social assistance schemes with school attendance as a condition that must be met for benefits to be received.

“My father doesn’t let me go to school. He says I know enough now and that I should stay home and wait to get married” (12-year-old girl, Albania, Wolfensohn, 2004, p. 57).

**Civil Society Approaches.** In Ukraine, the Donetsk Youth Debate Center used a creative approach to encourage attendance in vocational education that could equally be applied to regular school. Children received a card entitling them to an hour at the computer lab for every week of uninterrupted attendance. Access to the computer lab was considered a good prize for the children because they had no other access to computers and liked the chance to play games or use the Internet. As a result, most of the children had a perfect attendance record in vocational education (ILO-IPEC, 2007).

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41. Interviews with anti-trafficking actors in Albania.

With partial funding from USAID, NGOs in Albania provided weekly food baskets to families in need on the condition that they keep their children in school.<sup>42</sup> The purpose of the food basket was to compensate families for the loss of essential income the child would otherwise have contributed to the family's survival. Delivery of the food baskets also gave social workers a chance to regularly interact with the family (ILO-IPEC, 2007).

**Promising Practice  
Albania**

The Government of Albania launched a new initiative called "Second Chance," based on the work of NGOs in the region, which gives children who have dropped of school an opportunity to catch up with their peers. The program was implemented in schools with high dropout rates during the 2009–2010 school year, with 513 children participating and was expanded to 34 schools during the 2010–2011 school year with 626 children participating. The school dropout rate declined from 0.8 percent in 2009–2010 to 0.39 percent in 2010–2011 (Deputy Minister National Anti-Trafficking Coordinator, 2011).

**Improving Access for Minority Children.** Three elements common in many programs for minority students are known to increase student enrollment and improve academic performance: (a) integrating assistant teachers or mediators fluent in minority student languages, (b) providing academic support and tutoring for children, and (c) encouraging an inclusive, non-discriminatory climate in schools (Carter, 2001; Gedeshi, 2011; Mickovska-Raleva, 2011).

In many countries of the region, especially in Southeastern Europe, programming has focused on improving the education of Roma children. Egyptian children have been a similar focus of attention in Albania. Interventions have improved attendance and school performance in primary, secondary, and tertiary education (UNICEF, 2010b). The most successful models combine the participation of Roma communities, the education of teachers, and the introduction of child-centered education techniques, with supplemental education and transition programs for children, and the use of Roma teaching assistants in the classrooms. Some programs also included optional courses in Roma culture, language, and history (UNICEF, 2010b). A program for primary school children in Albania resulted in a 50 percent decline in dropouts and steadily increasing academic performance in all schools involved in the program (Gedeshi, 2011).

USAID has been particularly supportive of similar activities in Republic of Macedonia (UNICEF, 2010b). An evaluation of a program that provided scholarships and tutoring for secondary education found that the Roma students in the program had high rates of completion and transition to the next grade that equaled or surpassed the school's average. Indeed, of those who completed the fourth year of secondary school, 97 percent passed their exams and nearly 40 percent went on to enroll in university (Mickovska-Raleva, 2011, p. 39). Students and teachers alike indicated that tutoring was even more important than the scholarship in promoting student success especially by helping them meet higher academic expectations during the first year of their transition from primary school into secondary school (Mickovska-Raleva, 2011). A separate assessment of Roma education in the Republic of Macedonia acknowledged that this and similar programs have led to improvements in Roma education, especially enrollment and completion rates, but that some of the approaches had the unintended negative consequence of creating an expectation that teachers should be given additional compensation for providing instruction to Roma students (Ogden, 2011).

USAID/Macedonia also supported primary education through Roma Education Centers that provide pre-school education to support children's transition to primary school and after-school support for primary school children. These centers have been very successful: over 90 percent of pre-school children enrolled in primary school and 94 percent of primary school children transitioned to the next grade (USAID/Macedonia, 2012).

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42. Interviews with anti-trafficking actors in Albania.

**State Incentives to Encourage School Attendance.** Governments in the region have implemented incentive schemes to encourage school attendance of children from Roma families in particular and from impoverished families in general. The U.S. Department of Labor (2011) reported examples of the incentives used in local initiatives in the region: textbooks in Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Georgia; free meals in Bosnia and Herzegovina and Ukraine; transportation in Bosnia and Herzegovina; and financial support in Croatia and Moldova. While it is not clear how effective these specific programs have been, the fact that international experience has shown that incentive programs can increase children's school attendance suggests the value of replicating these kinds of local initiatives.

**Promising Practice  
Serbia**

Serbia funds several cash entitlements for poor families, including a child allowance program. This allowance is conditional on enrolling children 7 years old and above in school. Because they are unable to provide evidence that their children are enrolled in school, around 20 percent of the families who are enrolled in other assistance programs and should be eligible for this child allowance, do not receive it. It is not entirely clear why they cannot provide evidence, but it is reported that the poorest (internally displaced persons and Roma) do not collect the benefit for reasons including family migration and a lack of awareness about the benefits and the process to obtain them. While the World Bank (2009) found that needs-tested social programs in Serbia are well targeted to the poor, there are still eligible families, often Roma among the poorest of the poor who are not receiving benefits. A method that might remedy this discrepancy is outreach that alerts vulnerable families to these programs and advises them on how to apply for benefits (World Bank, 2009).

**Vocational Education.** Some children who have been absent from school for a long time may not wish to return. Offering vocational education to children without a complete primary education may offer them an alternative to mainstream school and provide them better and safer economic opportunities for the future.

ILO-IPEC programs in the region provided children with opportunities to see and understand better what vocational education is like and the types of jobs to which it could lead. Local partners in Albania and Moldova organized field trips for at-risk youth to a variety of vocational education centers and to employers (ILO-IPEC, 2007). In many of the vocational courses offered to at-risk youth, vocational education was combined in a creative way with additional subjects such as family communication, volunteerism, life skills, and awareness-raising on trafficking and exploitation (ILO-IPEC, 2007).

**Career Counseling.** In some of the counties of the region, school psychologists and counselors have been trained in education and job counseling to better help children plan their school-to-work transitions (ILO-IPEC, 2007). The ILO-IPEC program in Moldova trained school personnel to act as career counselors, to build linkages with employment agencies, and to help youth find jobs near their homes (Dottridge, 2006). With USAID funding, a new, soon to be tested, school curriculum has been developed in Ukraine that will help children plan their future careers and professions.<sup>43</sup>

## **ENCOURAGING SAFE MIGRATION**

In some countries, anti-trafficking policies have been designed specifically to prevent child migration (UNICEF, 2005). Child migration should not be confused with trafficking of children. Some children experience very positive outcomes from migration, whether undertaken independently or with family members (Davidson & Farrow, 2007; Thomas de Benitez, 2011). This is not to encourage very young children to migrate independently, but rather to recognize that for some adolescents and youth, migration may be viewed and can become in fact, the best option for securing their future. Thus, prevention strategies should not focus on preventing child migration, but rather on making migration safe.

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43. Interview with Tatiana Ivanyuk, Counter-Trafficking Programme Specialist, IOM Ukraine

When “child trafficking” is confused with independent child migration and framed as a criminal justice issue, anti-trafficking measures are often indistinguishable from measures to prevent migration per se, and so can actually make child migrants more, rather than less, vulnerable to abuses and exploitation (Davidson & Farrow, 2007, p. 10).

While migration is sometimes undertaken in response to crisis, it is often undertaken after considering a variety of alternatives. It can be a well thought-out strategy “...for improving living standards and attaining goals that appears realistic on the basis of the resources and information available” (Davidson and Farrow, 2007, p. 17). The possibility that migration offers the best chance for a better future is just as true for children as for adults (ILO-IPEC, 2010b). Efforts to combat trafficking that restrict children’s migration can actually make children more vulnerable to exploitation and abuse and worsen

their health outcomes (Buszra, Castle, & Diarra, 2004).

The World Bank notes that youth migration can be widely beneficial, for the individual migrant, for his or her family, and for both the sending and receiving countries. Youth are more likely to migrate than older members of the population. In many countries in the region a majority of youth (91% of Albanian youth and 88% of Romanian youth, for example) express a desire to migrate temporarily and return home (World Bank, 2007, p. 196). Youth are also likely to return to their countries of origin while still young. Young Albanian migrants spend an average of only seven months abroad and return by age 25 to invest their new skills and income at home (World Bank, 2007, p. 192). In Moldova, 57.6 percent of surveyed youth wished to go abroad for work: 53.4 percent of these intended to remain abroad for six months to one year, while only 10.3 percent intended to migrate permanently (Institute for Development and Social Initiatives “Viitorul,” 2009).

Given wage differentials, labor shortages in Western Europe and Russia (World Bank, 2007) and continued high levels of youth unemployment in the region (Cozzarelli, 2011; ILO, 2012; National Bureau of Statistics of the Republic of Moldova, 2009) both push and pull factors are likely to result in increasing labor migration in the foreseeable future. In view of these trends, it makes more sense to encourage safe migration than to try restricting or frightening youth out of their desire to migrate. While some fear that safe migration messages might encourage migration rather than prevent trafficking, research indicates that children who received anti-trafficking training were no more likely to migrate than those who had not. Raising awareness of trafficking and providing safe migration information does not seem to encourage migration (Rosenberg, 2004).

## DECREASING THE VULNERABILITY OF CHILDREN RAISED IN INSTITUTIONS

### Life Skills Training.

Wolfensohn (2004) found that life skills programs that focus on trafficking aim to:

- Build confidence and self-esteem.
- Raise awareness and teach children how to assess risks.
- Learn how to escape from exploitive situations and where to seek help.
- Learn about healthy relationships and how to recognize and escape from abusive relationships.

I became friendlier in the relationship with the children. The interactive activities changed us, the adults, and the children too. We are closer; the distance between us cannot be perceived any longer. I started observing all children. It gave me the possibility to discover special qualities and capacities in all the children. (Teacher at a Residential School for Children, Child Rights Information Center Moldova, 2004, p. 33).

I noticed some positive changes in children. They became more communicative, more sociable, more organized, and neat. They started feeling like children, started seeing life in a different way... The older supervised the younger and taught them, they were organizing different activities with them. It made them look better in the eyes of children and gave them self-confidence and confidence in the future. Director of Residential School for Children (Child Rights Information Center Moldova, 2004, p. 33).

In response to the perceived vulnerability to trafficking of children raised in institutions, UNICEF funded a life skills training course for children in institutional care in Moldova. Similar courses have been introduced in other countries of the region and to other groups of vulnerable children (Dottridge, 2006).

While the extent to which such life skills training protects children in the E&E region against trafficking is not clear, (Dottridge, 2008a), it can benefit children in other ways. Children from residential institutions who received life skills training in Moldova reported; (a) feeling more open, communicative, and confident; (b) having better relationships with each other and with teachers; and (c) being better able to resolve conflicts. The students' personal experiences were confirmed by their teachers' perceptions (Child Rights Information Center Moldova, 2004).

### **IMPROVING CHILD PROTECTION MECHANISMS**

Because vulnerability to trafficking is closely associated with wider child protection issues, addressing the vulnerabilities of children and families more generally can indirectly protect children from trafficking. Identifying vulnerable families is the first step in providing support that helps parents meet their immediate needs and find durable solutions to their problems. Intervention may be appropriate when families are impoverished, in crisis because of violence or substance abuse, or when their composition is changing through death, divorce, or re-marriage. The section on protecting children above has discussed a variety of community resources, strategies, and interventions. Two additional child protection strategies and their limitations are discussed here.

**Social Assistance and Benefits.** Because family poverty places children at risk for trafficking, poverty reduction is an important protective measure. While most countries in the region have cash assistance programs for the poorest families, these programs are sometimes criticized for providing benefits too low to meet the economic, education, and health needs of children.<sup>44</sup>

Studies in some countries in the region find that while these programs are well targeted to the poor, they reach only a small percentage of families in need (Gassmann & Roelen, 2009; World Bank, 2009; The Commission on Labor, Social Affairs and Health, 2011). Multiple barriers prevent families and children from accessing social services and benefits: lack of program information, lack of a permanent address and registration or identity documents, complicated procedures, application costs, and requirements for frequent reapplication<sup>45</sup> (Wargan & Dershem, 2009; World Bank, 2009; personal communications from anti-trafficking actors in Albania). In some countries, eligibility criteria actually put children at greater risk. Families in Kosovo, for example, are only eligible if they have children under the age of five (Gassmann & Roelen, 2009). The ineligibility of school-age children creates an incentive for families to have additional children and increases the likelihood that children will drop out of school because they need to work to help the family financially.

**Youth Centers and Drop-in Facilities.** Youth centers provide activities for children, counseling, and education services that include non-formal education, vocational training, or assistance re-entering regular school. They often also work with and encourage the participation of parents. Drop-in centers in Albania, for example, many of which are or were funded by USAID, provide children who are already begging on the street with services including non-formal education, leisure activities, life skills training, and assistance in returning to mainstream schools. They may work to reduce discrimination and make schools more welcoming environments for minority children (Delap, 2009). According to drop-in center staff in Albania, the children who attend gain

“We feel free [at the youth centre] because it is made specifically for us. We are part of the centre... We are the centre” (15-year-old girl, Albania, Wolfensohn, 2004, p. 69).

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44. The Commission on Labor, Social Affairs and Health, Hearing Session on Child Rights, 31 October 2011. Interview with anti-trafficking actor, Serbia

45. In Kosovo, families must spend valuable time and incur additional costs to reapply every six months (Gassmann & Roelen, 2009).

confidence, become more communicative with staff and other children, and even take on leadership roles and peer mentoring (Wolfensohn, 2004).

Youth centers in Romania were opened within the schools. The ILO found that children were the best outreach workers, identifying other children within their own communities who could benefit and encouraging them to attend. The centers recruited specialists such as teachers, social workers, and psychologists as volunteers and have successfully kept children in school and taught important life skills (ILO-IPEC, 2007).

Many drop-in facilities are funded by international donors and may not be sustainable when funding dries up. In Moldova, government funded victim assistance centers have recently been expanded to pilot test providing in-depth services to children at risk of being trafficked.<sup>46</sup> While the Government of Moldova asserts that its program was very effective (although no evidence is given to document its effectiveness), they also note that the program cannot be expanded on a large scale and that the approach is, in their own words, “limited in a country where [risk] factors like poverty, domestic violence, gender inequality, unemployment are rampant” (National Committee for Combating Trafficking in Persons, 2011, p. 9).

### **EMPOWERING CHILDREN AND FAMILIES ECONOMICALLY**

Working children often make critical financial contributions to their family’s income and survival (ILO-IPEC, 2007) and simply removing children from exploitive situations fails to address the causes of family poverty. Programs that focus on keeping children at home and in school have relied on subsidies or economic support, such as micro-credit for families (Dottridge, 2008; Delap, 2009) that can be both expensive and labor intensive. In principle, programs that focus on improving the income of adults should result in less need to exploit children for the income they can contribute to the family.

In Albania, the *Sectorial Strategy on Employment and Vocational Training 2007-2013* specifically called for the establishment of a public works program to employ Roma (Government of Albania, n.d.). Such policies could have a positive impact on reducing the trafficking and exploitation of children. However, organizations cite anecdotal evidence that unemployment of Roma is increasing rather than decreasing.<sup>47</sup>

Other countries have focused on improving the income of youth. Organizations have tested income generation schemes that encourage children to stay at home and continue in school while meeting some of their economic aspirations (c.f. Dottridge, 2008). In Moldova, the government funded a special program to provide support and credit to youth to open small businesses. In 2008, 3,245 youth received consultations, 262 received training, and 181 businesses were opened. Though the success of these businesses and the impact of the program on reducing the exploitation of youth are not yet known, additional funding was dedicated for the program for 2009 and 2010 (Institute for Development and Social Initiatives “Viitorul,” 2009).

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46. It was not clear from the report on what criteria their risk or eligibility for the program was determined.

47. Interviews with anti-trafficking actors in Albania.

## **VII. RECOMMENDATIONS**

In most countries in the region, USAID support for stand-alone trafficking projects has been declining. While this trend is expected to continue, there are things that USAID can do to incorporate anti-trafficking efforts into other projects. The following sections highlight needs identified in the discussion above and recommend ways to address them by integrating child trafficking-related efforts into USAID's other program areas.

### **PERFORM DUE DILIGENCE**

USAID Missions should evaluate implementing partners, grantees, and beneficiary organizations to ensure that they comply with USAID's *Counter-Trafficking in Persons and Contractor/Recipient Compliance Agency-Wide Standard Operating Procedure* and U.S. Government rules and regulations related to child labor and human trafficking. In addition, USAID projects could assist enterprises and firms to develop supply chain management systems to ensure that their suppliers do not exploit child laborers or victims of trafficking. The agricultural, manufacturing, and service sectors could be targeted. Companies such as Hewlett Packard, Coca Cola, Microsoft, Macy's and Nike as well as the Global Business Coalition Against Human Trafficking (gBCAT) could be approached to provide information on preventing and eradicating trafficked labor within supply chains and operations.

### **IMPROVE IDENTIFICATION OF CHILD VICTIMS OF TRAFFICKING AND CHILDREN VULNERABLE TO TRAFFICKING**

In order to improve the identification of child victims of trafficking and children in need of protection, training and awareness raising specific to identification is needed for those who interact with children. Such efforts could be built into a variety of USAID activities targeting the civil society, rule of law, and health sectors. Also, helping education systems build identification into school curricula on human trafficking could help children better recognize their classmates at risk of trafficking.

The staff of community-based NGOs and service providers (teachers, social workers, doctors and nurses) needs identification-specific training that includes behaviors to look for, the characteristics of victims and traffickers, and how to report suspected child VOTs. Such training could be built into projects that deal with child welfare, democracy, governance, human rights, and crosscutting issues such as youth. Also, participants could extend the impact of training by utilizing their experiences to provide instruction to those who tend to keep watch in their communities, such as pensioners, small shopkeepers, and transit employees. Law enforcement actors (judges, prosecutors, lawyers, police, and border guards) might need training on identification and cross-border cooperation, as well as issues of child protection, child labor, and children's rights. Refresher training should be provided periodically and new staff should be trained when they come on board.

Three types of training are critical for those whose mission is to identify and assist child victims of trafficking: (a) help with developing protocols and standard operating procedures that clearly delineate their responsibilities and those of all of the actors with whom they work (e.g., social workers, psychologists, lawyers, teachers, police, etc.) as well as when and how to take action, (b) coaching on the use of collaborative practices, such as referral networks, and (c) assistance with developing appropriate organizational strategies for addressing child trafficking. Also, such organizations might find it useful to receive training on how to monitor law enforcement and judicial systems for interactions with juvenile criminals (calls to police, arrests, and court cases).

As noted earlier in the report, multidisciplinary teams (including, for example, social workers, health professionals, and lawyers) and cross-border cooperation are effective means to counter child trafficking and assist victims. Such efforts could continue to be supported, and researched to determine specific best practices, challenges to working across professions and borders, and keys to successful cooperation. Also, highlighting of the role of social workers in these efforts and encouraging the development of communities of practice could facilitate knowledge sharing and result in the elucidation of best practices and lessons learned for social work as well as provide

social workers in under-resourced areas with access to up-to-date information on current practices and resources available.

Finally, primary and secondary school anti-trafficking curricula development efforts supported by USAID could integrate lessons that help children recognize when they or another child are being trafficked and whom to alert. Including multiple modalities for learning (i.e., reading, interactive media, group activities) would help children with different learning styles absorb the information.

### **INCREASE THE EFFECTIVENESS OF SOCIAL SERVICES AND ASSISTANCE**

Effective social services and assistance are critically important for: (a) providing direct, protective assistance to victims of trafficking, (b) contributing to the prevention of trafficking by addressing the broader issues of child protection, (c) working to better the situation of specific children who are at risk, and (d) monitoring child trafficking cases to ensure that victims' rights are respected and they are supported in a child-friendly manner.<sup>48</sup>

“...from the point of view of social assistance at least, it is improper to attempt to make a distinction between the trafficked, exploited, neglected child or abused in any other ways, since the overall effect on the development of the child's personality is not sensibly different in all these cases” (UNICEF, p. 28).

For social services and assistance to be effective, it is necessary to strengthen the social work profession and reform social benefits systems.

### **STRENGTHENING THE SOCIAL WORK PROFESSION**

In order to bolster social workers' ability to protect child victims of trafficking and prevent trafficking, relevant support is needed in: developing standard procedures and protocols, training social workers, strengthening social work education, and measuring performance.

There are child protection mechanisms and institutions in most E&E countries, many of which have been built up during the last 10-15 years of donor assistance. With the exception of the countries of the former Yugoslavia, social work as a profession is relatively new to the region as most countries opened schools of social work in the 1990s (Rutgers University Center for International Social Work, 2008).

Concrete areas in which USAID could support the efforts of host governments and educational institutions to further the social work profession were laid out in the report *Social Work Education and the Practice Environment in Europe and Eurasia*, which was prepared by the Rutgers University Center for Social Work for the USAID E&E Bureau's Social Transition Team.<sup>49</sup> It is possible to integrate activities aimed at preventing trafficking and protecting VOTs into the recommendations proposed by the report. For example:

**Develop and Promulgate a Clearly Articulated Scope of Social Work Practice.** While social workers are employed in social welfare centers throughout the countries of the region, they are involved primarily in administering social benefits, not in providing family support and counseling (Rutgers University Center for International Social Work, 2008). The development and promulgation of model legislation that addresses social services in relationship to preventing trafficking and protecting victims could be helpful. Also, the completion of a literature review of

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48. It is important to keep in mind that because individual experiences may involve multiple violations of children's rights, a wide range of actors, and separate and distinct episodes of exploitation (Dottridge, 2008b), some exploitation may not prove to be related to trafficking. However, it is just as damaging to a child's development, and many vulnerability factors are the same for victims of trafficking and for victims of other forms of exploitation and abuse.

49. This report may be accessed at <http://socialtransitions.kdid.org/library/social-work-education-and-practice-environment-europe-and-eurasia> or [http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf\\_docs/PNADN298.pdf](http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PNADN298.pdf)

evidence of the effects of reformed social work legislation on children could provide suggestions for specific action items for governments to undertake.

**Focus on the Development of Ethical Codes and Standards for Professional Practice and Mechanisms for Accountability.** Social workers may not know how to act if they encounter trafficked children. Language defining the preferred response to trafficking should be included in ethical codes and codes of conduct. Also, developing standard procedures and protocols for action would help alleviate this problem.

**Develop Social Work Competencies.** Competencies are a set of behaviors, skills, and knowledge that enable a person to do a job properly. USAID projects addressing workforce development or higher education could help institutions develop competency models related to social work that address providing services to children at risk of human trafficking and child VOTs.

**Create or Revise Curriculum to Link Social Work Practice with Field Education.** Integrating topics related to the prevention of child trafficking, protection of child VOTs, child labor, and children's rights into curriculum development, practice courses, and experiential learning would better prepare social workers to deal with those issues. This would also apply to other fields, such as law, medicine, psychology, and criminal justice.

**Develop and Apply Indicators and Mechanisms for Measuring Performance.** Information management systems could be amended to store information related to trafficking that could be used to monitor children's vulnerabilities to trafficking as well as their recovery from being trafficked.

#### **REFORM SOCIAL BENEFITS SYSTEMS**

In order to address relative and absolute poverty, which are correlated with children's increased vulnerability to trafficking, support is needed to analyze existing social welfare mechanisms and develop recommendations for reform (in cooperation with other donors). Poverty and a lack of education are closely associated with vulnerability to being trafficked. Addressing these issues in the E&E region would require research and analysis to determine the areas in which USAID programming could have the most impact. For example, technical assistance on social benefit reform processes could be included as a part of efforts to improve lawmaking.

Additional efforts could include building the capacity of statistical agencies to capture and report data on the use of social benefits and improve the delivery and targeting of social assistance to child VOTs and children at high risk for trafficking. One method that could be used to address such issues is conditional cash transfer programs. These programs "provide cash payments to poor households that meet certain behavioral requirements, generally related to children's health care and education (World Bank, 2011)." They have been shown to help reduce educational gaps, increase participants' economic prospects, and improve health and nutrition amongst the poor and disenfranchised (González de la Rocha, Bañuelos, & López, 2008; Sanchíz & Rodríguez, 2008). All of the countries in the region already have cash transfer programs (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011) that could be reformed to address child protection issues and help prevent trafficking. The Government of Serbia has this kind of program in place (see page 37) and the Republic of Macedonia began a similar program in 2010 to encourage secondary school attendance (Ogden, 2011). USAID could play a role in evaluating or strengthening such programs. For example, the impact of such programs on reducing factors that increase a child's vulnerability to trafficking as well as the prevalence of trafficking among beneficiary families could be evaluated. Also, USAID could work to link those receiving conditional cash transfers with microfinance institutions and projects focusing on microenterprise development. Doing so could increase the impact of participation in conditional cash transfer programs on reducing poverty and eventually help beneficiaries graduate from income support to income generation activities.

It is worth noting that evaluators have found that providing effective social assistance in diverse populations requires program staff with "sufficient skills to act as linguistic and cultural interpreters" to assist potential beneficiaries obtain information and access to program benefits (Rodríguez, 2008,

p. 161). This would apply to efforts supporting minority inclusion in social benefit systems in the E&E region.

**Removing barriers to accessing social assistance** would lessen financial burdens on families and relieve pressures on children to contribute to the family income. In an advisory or technical assistance capacity, USAID could support efforts to:

- Promote birth registration.
- Develop simplified application processes and provide assistance for obtaining the necessary paperwork.
- Encourage hiring of ethnic minorities for positions in offices involved in the distribution of social assistance benefits so that they may act as cultural mediators.

### **ADDRESS DISCRIMINATION AGAINST ETHNIC MINORITIES**

Considering the increased vulnerability to being trafficked experienced by some ethnic minorities, especially Roma and Egyptian children, actions should be taken to address the discrimination they face in all facets of society. In particular, support is needed for: (1) improving minorities' access to and participation in education, and (2) increasing host government officials' and USAID partners' understanding of and capacity to protect ethnic minorities from discrimination, and (3) providing information necessary to USAID staff so that they may integrate attention to minorities in project design processes.

**Improve access to and participation in education systems.** A number of programs to increase access to education, especially for Roma and other minorities, have had a positive impact in the region. USAID/Macedonia has been particularly active in this area and similar programs could be developed in other countries. Such activities would be aligned with Goal I of the *USAID Education Strategy*, "Improved reading skills for 100 million children in primary grades by 2015" (USAID, 2011c). Financial support, such as providing scholarships that help children cover necessary school expenses (Mickovska, 2011), or providing meals and transport (Gedeshi, 2011), was also an important incentive for enrolling children in school. Once children are enrolled, specific actions may be taken to ensure their regular attendance. Most of the assessments and evaluations consulted for this study indicate the importance of multi-cultural sensitivity training for teachers and the engagement of parents in promoting education and supporting their children's efforts in school (Gedeshi, 2011; Mickovska, 2011). Also, the integration of minority culture, history, art, and literature into the curricula for all students, not just for minority students, encourages respect for diversity (Gedeshi, 2011; Ognen, 2011). USAID projects could review Result 3.2 of the *USAID Education Strategy*, "Crisis prevention efforts strengthened," for programming ideas that could increase ethnic minorities' access to and participation in education systems given the grievances that discourage attendance. For example, "fostering institutional and policy changes that can support crisis prevention, such as reforms in language policy, hiring policies, the location of education services, and patterns of resources allocations that often contribute to instability and grievances in the first place ..." (USAID, 2011c). Cooperation with host country governments would be essential to obtaining state support and the eventual integration of efforts evaluated as successful into national educational systems.

**Support the rights of ethnic minorities.** Sensitivity training and efforts to dispel stereotypes in society are critically needed throughout the region. Special emphasis is needed to ensure that teachers, social workers, and police respect and uphold the rights of ethnic minority communities. Content related to issues faced by ethnic minorities, methods to protect their rights, and the impact of discrimination on both ethnic minorities and society at large could be integrated into all relevant USAID-funded trainings and curricula for teachers, social workers, labor inspectors, judges, prosecutors, lawyers, police officers, and other law enforcement actors. Professionals in the growing field of human resources as well as small, medium and large enterprises and executives could also

benefit from such training as well as assistance in developing and implementing policies that protect minority rights in the workplace. USAID staff would also benefit from further comprehensive training on ethnic minorities and methods to analyze the effects of programming on them and vice-versa. Instances when public officials, such as educators, law enforcement, social workers, or others publicly discriminate against or violate the rights of ethnic minorities could be utilized as “teachable moments” that provide the opportunity to map the causes and impact of discrimination on society as well as on the sectors in which USAID works (eg. economic growth in the service sector).

Support for the democracy and governance sector could integrate the protection of minority rights into programming that strengthens civil society and inclusive governance, promotes respect for human rights, and facilitates public dialogue.<sup>50</sup> Efforts could target minority and majority civil society organizations, media, and political parties with interventions that encourage cooperation and peaceful and vibrant dialogue. Specific interventions could include media training on minority issues, the strengthening of independent minority media outlets, and community forums or “town halls.”

An example of a USAID-funded effort that addresses employment and human rights with the goal of integrating minorities into public life is the Minority Support Project in Kosovo, which supports Kosovo Serb, Turk, Roma, Ashkali, Egyptian, Bosnian and Gorani communities through a series of interventions that aim to generate employment opportunities, foster greater cooperation and engagement between all ethnic communities, and improve access to Government of Kosovo services and funds.<sup>51</sup> While it is not clear whether this program directly addresses risk of human trafficking, it deals with issues that are implicated in increasing minority children’s risk of being trafficked.

## **IMPROVE ECONOMIC PROSPECTS FOR VULNERABLE POPULATIONS**

Unemployment is a continuing problem throughout the region and efforts to improve employment prospects, especially for youth, are vital to decreasing children’s vulnerability to trafficking. Efforts would need to include the families of children at-risk of trafficking, target youth directly, and involve a collaborative approach that crosses sectors. The case for the economic benefit of employing and doing business with vulnerable populations would need to be made to business owners and entrepreneurs.

For example, the families of child and adolescent victims of trafficking and those at risk for being trafficked (such as children in institutions) could be connected with USAID-funded microcredit programs, entrepreneurship and workforce development training, supportive networks, and mentors. Involving such populations would require collaboration with NGOs, social workers, and other service providers that could refer families and individuals for participation. Interventions USAID could support that would increase the prospects for vulnerable populations (including youth) to find and succeed in formal and informal employment situations include:

- Revitalize vocational education systems by facilitating partnerships between educational institutions and employers to enable youth to leave institutions with marketable skills, practical experience, and links to potential employers. Also, encouraging partnerships between educational institutions and the private sector could help create a tangible path to employment for children and youth that inspires their families to keep them in school.
- Integrate workforce development interventions such as life and workforce readiness skills training,<sup>52</sup> mentoring, apprenticeships or on-the-job training, job matching assistance into

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50. A resource for Mission staff is USAID’s Center of Excellence on Democracy, Human Rights and Governance (DRG Center), which provides technical assistance to Missions that implement programs on democracy, governance, and human rights.

51. For more information, see [http://transition.usaid.gov/kosovo/eng/democracy\\_minority\\_support.html](http://transition.usaid.gov/kosovo/eng/democracy_minority_support.html)

52. These skills (sometimes known as soft skills) fall into three basic categories: (1) social or interpersonal skills (which may include communication, negotiation and refusal skills, assertiveness, cooperation and empathy); (2) cognitive skills (problem solving, understanding sequences, decision making, critical thinking, and self-evaluation); and (3) emotional coping skills (including positive sense of self) and self-control (managing stress, feelings and moods) (Naudeau, Cunningham, Lundberg, McGinnis, 2008, p. 81).

relevant USAID education and economic growth programming for youth, especially those who are out of school or living in crisis-affected areas (ex. Transnistria, Abkhazia, South Ossetia, or Nagorno-Karabakh). For informational purposes, USAID staff members may look into the growing body of evidence on the impact of different combinations of workforce development initiatives.<sup>53</sup>

- Integrate vouchers for services such as child care or transportation into relevant USAID-programming aiming to empower women from vulnerable populations.
- Include at-risk youth and former victims of trafficking in programs that provide micro-credit, access to youth-tailored loans, entrepreneurship training, and other business development services as well as livelihood and income-generation programming. Partnerships with social workers and other service providers would be needed to identify and reach out to potential participants.
- Make the business case for working with vulnerable populations through showing the concrete benefits of diversity. The case could be made through training or education on the benefits of diversity in the workplace in terms of (1) improved decision-making and innovation, and (2) increased access to new markets and supply chains.
- Facilitate joint ventures between majority and minority-owned producers and support to small businesses in targeted sectors. When supporting the growth of small enterprises, care should be taken to ensure that USAID assistance does not result in children being pulled from school to work in family-based businesses.<sup>54</sup>

For more information, documentation on the USAID Education Quality Improvement Program 3 (EQUIP3): Learning and Earning for Out-of-school Youth provides examples of projects targeted at increasing economic prospects for out of school and vulnerable youth. EQUIP3 activities in the E&E region were the Youth Employment Network in Republic of Macedonia, the Youth Employment and Participation Project in Kosovo, and the Europe and Eurasia Region Social Legacy Program. They provide examples of potential interventions in the areas of youth workforce development, labor markets and social services for vulnerable groups.<sup>55</sup> Another example is the Youth Competency Development Program, which was implemented in 10 Oblasts in Russia with the goal of helping youth to develop the skills, attitudes, and abilities they need to become successful adults and active citizens by engaging them in addressing community needs. Using a positive youth development approach as well as the community schools and youth-driven models of youth activity, the implementer engaged youth and helped them develop a number of competencies related to citizenship, creativity, social interactions, and workforce readiness. Among other activities, the project engaged youth-led organizations that were addressing the needs of rural, at-risk, and underprivileged youth (IREX, 2009; Social Impact, 2010).

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Evaluations show that employers value training in these skills more than that in technical skills because with those skills, a young person is more likely to succeed in the workplace than with purely technical skills (c.f. Olenik, C., & Fawcett, C., forthcoming).

53. A forthcoming comprehensive literature review for USAID E3/Education provides information on the latest research and evaluation of workforce development programming for youth. Olenik, C., & Fawcett, C. (Forthcoming). *Briefing paper: Examining the evidence in youth workforce development*. Washington, D.C.: USAID and JBS International.

54. An evaluation of a Bosnian microfinance institution's intervention which provided credit to applicants that a regular screening would have rejected showed that children aged 16-19 were most affected by the influx of credit, which resulted in them working more and attending school less (Augsburg, De Haas, Harmgart, Meghir, 2012). Caution should be taken, but as such efforts have not been researched in other E&E countries it is not entirely clear if other similar interventions would have the same impact.

55. For more information, see the EQUIP3 website: [http://www.equip123.net/equip3/index\\_new.html](http://www.equip123.net/equip3/index_new.html), and Education Development Center. (2012). *EQUIP3 Lessons Learned (2003-2012)*, Washington, D.C.: USAID. Retrieved from <http://idd.edc.org/resources/publications/equip3-lessons-learned-2003%E2%80%932012>

Such programs could integrate interventions aimed at preventing trafficking and helping rehabilitate child VOTs.

### **INCREASE THE SUSTAINABILITY OF VICTIM SERVICE PROVIDERS THROUGH SOCIAL ENTERPRISE CREATION**

Child VOTs need a wide range of services to support their recovery from abuse, reintegration into society, and long-term wellbeing. Where these services are provided in the region, it is often as the result of the initiative, leadership, and expertise of local NGOs. While encouraging state funding of their operations is important, it is equally important to help organizations build their fundraising skills and develop other methods for raising funds, including partnering with local businesses and operating social enterprises. In order to be sustainable, approaches to fundraising need to integrate policy reform, NGO capacity building, and strategic partnerships with the private sector.

In order to allow NGOs to develop sustainable funding resources, policy reform is needed. In particular, support is needed to reform or enact laws on social enterprises (businesses run by non-profit organizations that funnel profits into a social cause, such as anti-trafficking work, and are exempt from taxes), and to reform charitable contribution laws in order to provide tax incentives for businesses and individuals to make donations to nonprofit organizations. Such assistance could include help with amending tax codes and drafting legislation. It would also be useful to raise awareness of social enterprises among those working to counter child trafficking and protect child victims of trafficking and link them to USAID-funded social enterprise development programs that provide training, consultancy services, and access to financial resources. Training could include human resources, financial management and planning, marketing, market analysis, and regulatory compliance.

Several Missions have supported social enterprises through different programming modalities, including Albania, Serbia, Moldova, and Ukraine. Promoting information exchange on lessons learned, successes, challenges, and results among Missions in the region could provide useful advice to projects tailoring social enterprise activities to organizations or individuals interested in decreasing child trafficking. Additional assistance could include building the skills necessary to network, participate in trade shows, and form linkages with other international donors and organizations that promote and assist social enterprises, such as Ashoka, the East Europe Foundation (Ukraine), the Mozaik Foundation (Bosnia and Herzegovina), and the Centre for Institutional Development (Republic of Macedonia).

### **SUPPORT RESEARCH AND EVALUATION ON VULNERABLE POPULATIONS AND APPROACHES TO PREVENTING CHILD TIP AND PROTECTING CHILD VOTS**

While it is not currently possible to provide a road map for project design in the E&E region based on the results of impact evaluations, data is increasingly becoming available as a result of donors' increased emphasis on evidence-based solutions. Research on vulnerable groups and evaluation of the impact of interventions that play a role in preventing child trafficking and protecting victims are important for forging a sustainable path forward.

In order to design projects based on facts, targeted research is needed on populations considered especially vulnerable to trafficking as well as former VOTs. For example, additional research is needed to better target programming that would mitigate factors that put a child at risk of trafficking, such as out-of-school status or a lack of school attendance. It could be helpful to look into which children do and do not attend school and why, which could open up other potential areas of inquiry, such as vulnerable groups' access to healthcare and participation in the labor force, politics, public administration, and peace building as well as what happens to a child as he or she grows up in and ages out of state-supported institutional child care. Research could be shared with service providers and NGOs so that they may consider the effectiveness of their methods for delivering services, protecting human rights, and building societal cohesion.

Evaluations of interventions are also needed to determine their effectiveness as well as their impact on child trafficking and the protection of child VOTs. For example, a project might link the families of child and adolescent victims of trafficking, and families of children at risk for being trafficked, with microcredit programs, entrepreneurship and workforce development training, supportive networks, and mentors. Measuring the impact of this intervention would include collecting data on topics such as economic and educational status, life skill attainment, perceptions of self-efficacy, and vulnerability to being trafficked. Data that would need to be collected include qualitative and quantitative baseline, mid-point, and end-of-project data that includes mapping social networks formed during the course of the project. A project evaluation might show that different combinations and types of components are more effective, as well as elucidate their effects on child trafficking or the reintegration of child VOTs. Existing evaluations of projects focused on reducing child labor might provide some insight. The World Bank and UNICEF interagency research cooperation program, *Understanding Children's Work* provides information on child labor in E&E countries and impact evaluations of projects from other regions that are related to child labor and include interventions such as cash transfers, credit schemes, and vouchers.<sup>56</sup>

As a complement to evaluation research, more in-depth research and analysis of child trafficking is needed, particularly to determine the specific factors that made children vulnerable to being trafficked, demographic and other characteristics of trafficked children and their families, as well as why some children with similar demographics and risk factors are trafficked while others are not.

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56. For more information, see <http://www.ucw-project.org>.

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# APPENDIX I: RESOURCES FOR COMBATting CHILD TRAFFICKING

## ONLINE LIBRARIES

- Child Trends Research to Improve Children's Lives: <http://www.childtrends.org/index.cfm>
- Terre des Hommes Digital Library: <http://www.childtrafficking.com/>
- UNICEF, Innocenti Research Centre: <http://www.unicef-irc.org/>
- World Bank, Youth Employment Inventory, Europe and Central Asia: <http://www.youth-employment-inventory.org/inventory/browse/regions/3/>

## ASSISTANCE AND PROTECTION

- American Bar Association (ABA). *Meeting the Legal Needs of Child Trafficking Victims: An Introduction for Children's Attorneys & Advocates*. Retrieved from [http://www.americanbar.org/content/dam/aba/migrated/domviol/pdfs/Child\\_Trafficking.authcheckdam.pdf](http://www.americanbar.org/content/dam/aba/migrated/domviol/pdfs/Child_Trafficking.authcheckdam.pdf)
- Anti-Slavery International. *Protocol for Identification and Assistance to Trafficked Persons and Training Kit*. Retrieved from [http://www.antislavery.org/includes/documents/cm\\_docs/2009/p/protocoltraffickedpersonsokit2005.pdf](http://www.antislavery.org/includes/documents/cm_docs/2009/p/protocoltraffickedpersonsokit2005.pdf)
- Catholic Relief Services. OVC Wellbeing Tool. Retrieved from <http://www.crsprogramquality.org/ovcwt>
- Center for the Protection of Children's Rights Foundation. *Rehabilitation of the Victims of Child Trafficking: A Multidisciplinary Approach*. Retrieved from [http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/documents/publication/wcms\\_bk\\_pb\\_63\\_en.pdf](http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/documents/publication/wcms_bk_pb_63_en.pdf)
- Dottridge, M. *Exploring Methods to Protect Children on the Move. A handbook for organisations wanting to prevent child trafficking, exploitation and the worst forms of child labour*. Retrieved from [http://www.canee.net/files/1331\\_tdhif\\_11\\_exploring\\_methods\\_move\\_0911\\_original.pdf](http://www.canee.net/files/1331_tdhif_11_exploring_methods_move_0911_original.pdf)
- The International Centre for Migration Policy Development (ICMPD). *Guidelines for the Development of a Transnational Referral Mechanism for Trafficked Persons: Southeast Europe*. Available in several languages from: <http://www.icmpd.org/Guidelines-for-the-Development-of-a-Transnational-Referral-Mechanism-for-Trafficked-Persons-in-Europ.1846.0.html>
- ILO. *Child Friendly Standards & Guidelines for the Recovery and Integration of Trafficked Children*. Retrieved from [http://www.ilo.org/asia/whatwedo/publications/WCMS\\_BK\\_PB\\_75\\_EN/lang--en/index.htm](http://www.ilo.org/asia/whatwedo/publications/WCMS_BK_PB_75_EN/lang--en/index.htm)
- ILO. *Combatting Child Labor: A Handbook for Labour Inspectors*. Retrieved from [http://www.ilo.org/safework/info/instr/WCMS\\_110148/lang--en/index.htm](http://www.ilo.org/safework/info/instr/WCMS_110148/lang--en/index.htm)
- ILO. *Psycho-Social Rehabilitation of Children Withdrawn from Trafficking and Other Worst Forms of Child Labour*. Retrieved from <http://www.ilo.org/ipecinfo/product/download.do?type=document&id=14755>
- IOM. *Caring for Trafficked Persons: Guidance for Health Providers*. Retrieved from [http://publications.iom.int/bookstore/index.php?main\\_page=product\\_info&cPath=47&products\\_id=510](http://publications.iom.int/bookstore/index.php?main_page=product_info&cPath=47&products_id=510)
- IOM. *The IOM Handbook on Direct Assistance for Victims of Trafficking*. Available in several languages from: [http://publications.iom.int/bookstore/index.php?main\\_page=product\\_info&cPath=47&products\\_id=116](http://publications.iom.int/bookstore/index.php?main_page=product_info&cPath=47&products_id=116)
- London Safeguarding Children Board. *Safeguarding Trafficked Children Toolkit*. Retrieved from [http://www.londonscb.gov.uk/files/2010/trafficking/london\\_safeguarding\\_trafficked\\_children\\_tools\\_mar\\_2011.pdf](http://www.londonscb.gov.uk/files/2010/trafficking/london_safeguarding_trafficked_children_tools_mar_2011.pdf)

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- Weyler, S. *The Frail Chain—Support for Child Victims of Trafficking in the Baltic Sea Region*. Retrieved from <http://www.childcentre.info/projects/traffickin/dbaFile15589.pdf>

## CHILD BEGGING

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- Terre des Hommes. Kosovo new campaign “begging handicaps my future.” Retrieved from <http://tdh-childprotection.org/news/new-campaign-begging-handicaps-my-future>
- WHO. *Working with Street Children: A Training Package on Substance Use, Sexual and Reproductive Health including HIV/AIDS and STDs*. Retrieved from [http://www.who.int/substance\\_abuse/activities/street\\_children/en/index.html](http://www.who.int/substance_abuse/activities/street_children/en/index.html)

## CHILD DEVELOPMENT

- Lippman, L, Moore, K., & McIntosh, H. *Positive Indicators of Child Well-being: A Conceptual Framework, Measures and Methodological Issues*. Innocenti Working Papers 2009-21. Retrieved from <http://www.unicef-irc.org/publications/580>
- Search Institute. Developmental Assets Profile. Retrieved from: <http://www.search-institute.org/survey-services/surveys/developmental-assets-profile>

## CHILD LABOR

- ILO, UNICEF, World Bank. Inventory of Child Labor Impact Evaluations. Understanding Children’s Work: An InterAgency Research Cooperation Programme. Retrieved from <http://www.ucw-project.org/impact-evaluation/inventory-impact-evaluations.aspx>

## CHILD PARTICIPATION

- Feinstein, C. & O’Kane, C. *Children’s and Adolescents’ Participation and Protection from Sexual Abuse and Exploitation*. Retrieved from <http://www.unicef-irc.org/publications/556>
- Regional Working Group on Child Labour (RWG-CL). *Learning to Work Together: A Handbook for Managers on Facilitating Children’s Participation in Actions to Address Child Labour*. Retrieved from <http://resourcecentre.savethechildren.se/node/1767>

## LIFE SKILLS

- Associazione Amici dei Bambini (Ai.Bi.). *Young Care Leavers and Social Inclusion: Guidelines – Life After Institutional Care, Equal Opportunities and Social Inclusion for Young People. Identification and Promotion of Best Practices*. Retrieved from <http://www.crin.org/docs/Matrix.pdf>
- Jacobs Foundation. *Guidelines for Monitoring and Evaluating Life Skills for Youth Development*. Retrieved from: [http://www.jacobsfoundation.org/cms/fileadmin/jacobs/monitoring/Jacobs\\_ME\\_Guideline\\_e.pdf](http://www.jacobsfoundation.org/cms/fileadmin/jacobs/monitoring/Jacobs_ME_Guideline_e.pdf)
- U.S. Peace Corps. *Life Skills Manual*. Retrieved from [http://multimedia.peacecorps.gov/multimedia/pdf/library/M0063\\_lifeskillscomplete.pdf](http://multimedia.peacecorps.gov/multimedia/pdf/library/M0063_lifeskillscomplete.pdf)

## MEDIA

- Save the Children. *Guidelines on Child Trafficking and Media Coverage*. Retrieved from [http://www.childtrafficking.com/Docs/sc\\_2003\\_guidelines\\_on\\_child\\_trafficking\\_and\\_media\\_3.pdf](http://www.childtrafficking.com/Docs/sc_2003_guidelines_on_child_trafficking_and_media_3.pdf)
- UNDP. *Not Her Real Name: Reporting Trafficking in Persons. A Media Handbook*. Retrieved from [http://www.childtrafficking.com/Docs/undp%20rep\\_media\\_handbook\\_0108.pdf](http://www.childtrafficking.com/Docs/undp%20rep_media_handbook_0108.pdf)
- UNICEF. *Reporting Guidelines to Protect Children at Risk*. Retrieved from [http://www.unicef.org/media/media\\_tools\\_guidelines.html](http://www.unicef.org/media/media_tools_guidelines.html)

## PREVENTION

- Children not for Abuse, Belarus. Their website has tools and training information for children, parents, and teachers or others who work with children (in Russian). Retrieved from <http://nonviolence.iatp.by/english.htm>
- Dottridge, M. *A Handbook on Planning Projects to Prevent Child Trafficking*. Retrieved from [http://www.childtrafficking.com/Docs/prevent\\_child\\_tra\\_0607.pdf](http://www.childtrafficking.com/Docs/prevent_child_tra_0607.pdf)
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- ECPAT. *Countering Child Trafficking for Sexual Purposes* (in Russian). Retrieved from <http://www.soprotivlenie.org/?id=3&cid=207>
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- Rosenberg, R. *Best Practices for Programming to Prevent Trafficking in Human beings in Europe and Eurasia*. <http://socialtransitions.kdid.org/library/best-practices-programming-protect-and-assist-victims-trafficking-europe-and-eurasia>
- Warnath, S. (2009). *Best Practices in Trafficking Prevention in Europe and Eurasia*. Retrieved from <http://socialtransitions.kdid.org/library/best-practices-trafficking-prevention-europe-and-eurasia>

## APPENDIX II: CHILDREN IN INSTITUTIONAL CARE

**TABLE 6**

CHILDREN IN RESIDENTIAL CARE, AT THE END OF THE YEAR (IN 1,000s)

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	Trendline
Albania; j	0.67	0.68	0.70	0.69	0.64	0.84	0.93	1.00	1.15	0.89	
Armenia; o	6.02	4.85	4.76	5.17	7.28	8.31	7.60	5.42	5.27	4.94	
Azerbaijan; e l j	22.05	22.30	23.52	23.53	23.12	23.34	16.99	16.81	14.09	11.22	
Belarus; l	29.84	29.80	28.89	27.30	26.33	25.54	23.80	22.21	20.33	18.35	
Bosnia and Herzegovina; e	1.79	1.81	1.94	2.11	2.20	2.22	2.32	2.30	2.37	2.35	
Bulgaria; h	13.36	12.29	11.91	10.88	10.29	9.78	8.65	8.21	7.47	6.92	
Georgia; l	7.97	8.02	7.73	8.16	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Moldova, Republic of; m	12.14	11.96	11.96	11.94	12.50	12.12	11.55	10.15	9.84	8.41	
Montenegro; k	0.57	-	0.55	-	0.53	-	0.56	-	0.49	-	
Romania; i	58.39	51.02	44.14	38.23	33.14	29.15	26.31	25.26	24.63	23.82	
Russian Federation; l	423.48	424.71	421.62	403.64	398.16	372.84	360.98	334.40	323.52	345.63	
Serbia; e k	5.26	-	5.14	-	5.08	-	5.66	-	4.81	-	
Macedonia, Republic of; e j	0.97	0.90	0.86	0.86	0.89	0.90	0.88	0.87	0.83	0.77	
Ukraine; n	99.15	98.83	99.38	98.21	96.15	92.65	88.77	84.53	81.61	88.82	

Source: Transmonee Database, 2011

- Data include 18 years and older residing in child care institutions.
- Data include children living child care homes (including family type and temporary), general boarding/special schools and centers for special education; care groups in pre-school education institutions. Special correction care homes are included in Juvenile justice chapter.
- Data for the period until 2000 are not comparable with data for 2000–2009. Data since 2000 include children accommodated in specialized institutions under the regulations of the Law for Child Protection.
- Data for the period until 2000 are not comparable with data for 2000–2009, due to changes in the system. Data Include children 18 years and older.
- Data since 2005 include children in non-public residential care.
- Data are collected every second year.
- Data include children living in general boarding schools.
- Data since 2000 include boarding schools for orphans and children without parental care; data since 1992 do not include Transdniestr.
- Data for the period 1989–1990 do not include children in infant homes. Data since 2000 include children living in general boarding schools. Only public institutions.
- Data since 2004 include children living in general type boarding schools and children in temporary distribution centers.

## APPENDIX III: ROMA STATISTICS

TABLE 7

Country***	Total Population in Millions	Roma Pop. No. and % Total Pop. Official	Roma Pop. No. and % Total Pop. Unofficial	Poverty* % Roma Pop. Income-Based	Poverty* % Roma Pop. Expenditure-based	Extreme Poverty** % Roma Pop. Income-Based	Extreme Poverty** % Roma Pop. Expenditure-based	Unemployment Rate % Roma Pop.	Literacy Rate % Roma Pop.	Literacy Rate % General Pop.	Primary Education Enrollment Rate % Roma Pop.	Primary Education Enrollment Rate % General Pop.	Primary Education Completion Rate % Roma Pop.	Secondary Education Enrollment Rate % Roma Pop.	Secondary Education Completion Rate % Roma Pop.
Albania	3.07	1,261 (0.04%)	90,000-100,000 (2.9%-3.2%)	72	78	29	39	45	68	96	48	85	24.2	12	4.3
Armenia										100		93			
Azerbaijan										100		86			
Belarus										100		95			
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3.83	8,864 (0.23%)	40,000-50,000 (1%-1.3%)	26	27	7	6	52	72	98	50	87	32.6	20	9.6
Bulgaria	7.93	370,000 (4.68%)	700,000-800,000 (9%-10.4%)	49	46	13	12	60	81	98	77	98	46.2	6	7.2
Georgia										100		100			
Kosovo	2	34,000 (1.7%)	36,000-40,000 (1.8%-2%)	79	59	47	17	NA	65		63		32.4	3.4 - 4.4	4.5
Republic of Macedonia	2.02	53,879 (2.69%)	220,000-260,000 (10.7%-12.7%)	52	33	22	9	71	84	97	76	93	50.8	5.9 - 11.5	11.6
Moldova	3.59	12,900 (0.38%)	100,000-200,000 (4.18%)							98	NA	90	NA	NA	NA

Country***	Total Population in Millions	Roma Pop. No. and % Total Pop. Official	Roma Pop. No. and % Total Pop. Unofficial	Poverty* % Roma Pop. Income-Based	Poverty* % Roma Pop. Expenditure-based	Extreme Poverty** % Roma Pop. Income-Based	Extreme Poverty** % Roma Pop. Expenditure-based	Unemployment Rate % Roma Pop.	Literacy Rate % Roma Pop.	Literacy Rate % General Pop.	Primary Education Enrollment Rate % Roma Pop.	Primary Education Enrollment Rate % General Pop.	Primary Education Completion Rate % Roma Pop.	Secondary Education Enrollment Rate % Roma Pop.	Secondary Education Completion Rate % Roma Pop.
Montenegro	0.67	2,601 (0.43%)	20,000 (3.2%)	33	27	7	4	53	59	...	38	83	19.8		3.7
Romania	21.7	535,140 (2.5%)	1,800,000-2,000,000 (8.3%-11.5%)	67	66	22	20	44	69	98	76	96	31.7		9.6
Russia										100		94			
Serbia	7.5	108,400 (1.44%)	450,000-500,000 (6%-6.7%)	58	57	30	26	51	86	98	74	96	36.1	10.2	9
Ukraine	46.5	47,600 (0.1%)	400,000 (0.86%)							100	NA	89	NA	NA	NA

Data Sources: Carter, 2001; World Bank (n.d.); Roma at a Glance; Open Society Foundations, 2008.

\* Defined as living in households with less than \$4.30 a day

\*\* Defined as living in households with less than \$2.15 a day

## APPENDIX IV: ACCESS TO EDUCATION STATISTICS

### ENROLLMENT

**TABLE 8**  
Basic Education (Lsced 1 And 2) Gross Enrollment Ratio (Percent of Relevant Population)

Country	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	2010	Trendline
Albania; a h	-	-	-	-	-	102.40	-	-	97.10	96.59	96.59	
Armenia; b	95.45	92.55	90.47	89.60	90.51	92.10	95.39	95.93	95.45	90.51	90.51	
Azerbaijan; a	91.31	92.93	92.17	93.32	95.42	97.70	98.63	100.84	102.64	103.65	103.65	
Belarus; l	91.84	92.27	93.30	93.57	93.60	93.39	92.54	98.08	100.58	99.63	99.63	
Bosnia and Herzegovina; i	96.49	94.34	95.02	98.08	98.46	96.37	-	-	-	-	-	
Bulgaria; b	95.55	97.36	98.71	98.78	98.71	98.84	98.02	96.39	94.08	93.46	93.46	
Croatia; b	96.42	96.03	95.90	95.89	95.67	95.49	95.42	94.61	94.94	-	-	
Georgia; n	90.77	88.49	88.61	89.15	87.90	85.90	87.92	88.97	90.77	90.14	90.14	
Moldova, Republic of; e m	93.83	94.38	95.08	95.11	94.55	94.38	91.99	91.56	90.93	90.68	90.68	
Montenegro; j	-	-	101.24	101.87	103.94	95.28	97.40	98.70	98.53	97.35	97.35	
Romania; b	98.89	100.01	100.86	103.60	103.62	102.32	101.06	99.76	98.97	98.55	98.55	
Russian Federation; b	100.53	102.86	103.77	104.32	104.68	105.19	106.10	107.23	108.06	109.66	109.66	
Serbia; b	101.30	100.68	99.56	99.81	100.36	99.78	99.38	99.32	98.53	97.23	97.23	
Macedonia, Republic of; k	98.97	97.90	95.59	95.39	95.85	95.42	95.73	92.50	92.62	92.90	92.90	
Ukraine; a	95.71	98.97	99.90	100.07	99.85	99.43	99.61	99.62	98.69	103.17	103.17	

Source: Transmonee Database

a. Children aged 6–14.

b. Children aged 7–14.

e. Children aged 7–15.

h. Missing enrollment ratios for years 2001–2007 are not presented due to inconsistencies in data. Data for 2005 taken from website of NSO.

i. Children aged 6–13. Enrollment ratios for years 2006–2009 are not presented due to inconsistencies in data. Data on population presented by Agency of Statistics of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

j. Data for 2002–2004 refer to children aged 7–14, since 2005 to children 6–14.

k. Data for 2000–2006 refer to children aged 7–14, since 2007 to children 6–14.

l. Data for 2000–2008 refer to children aged 6–15; for 2009: 6–14.

m. Data exclude Transdniestr.

n. Children aged 6–15. Data exclude Abkhazia and Tskhinvali.

**TABLE 9**  
**Age-Specific Enrollment Ratio of Children 7-14 (Children Enrolled In Different Levels Of Education As Percent Of Population Aged 7-14)**

Country	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	Trendline
Albania	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Armenia	-	92.55	90.47	89.60	90.51	92.10	95.45	86.56	85.21	86.20	
Azerbaijan	87.94	88.77	88.26	88.66	90.07	92.81	93.52	95.19	96.91	98.83	
Belarus	-	99.40	99.84	100.30	100.68	100.14	99.94	99.75	99.41	99.13	
Bosnia and Herzegovina	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Bulgaria	97.62	99.24	99.95	100.06	99.91	99.93	99.41	98.34	96.21	95.75	
Georgia	-	-	-	-	-	-	96.80	98.02	-	-	
Moldova, Republic of	-	-	-	-	92.91	91.26	90.86	90.10	89.19	88.70	
Montenegro	-	-	99.52	97.83	100.80	99.81	99.22	99.77	99.71	100.62	
Romania	96.61	95.48	95.72	96.14	95.94	95.70	96.17	95.04	94.54	94.32	
Russian Federation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Serbia	-	-	99.36	99.03	99.39	98.83	98.44	97.97	97.33	95.97	
Macedonia, Republic of	99.07	98.41	96.74	95.71	96.36	96.22	96.16	95.06	94.30	95.37	
Ukraine	-	97.19	97.72	97.57	97.72	97.76	97.91	97.85	97.82	97.64	

Source: Transmonee Database

Notes: Values exceeding 100 percent are reflecting inconsistencies in the enrollment and/or population data.

- Data taken from web-site of Statistical Office.
- Children aged 7-15 as for basic education.
- Children at age 7-15 enrolled in general schools and professional colleges.

**TABLE 10****Adult Literacy**

<b>Country</b>	<b>Adult Literacy, general population, 2005-2009</b>	<b>Adult Literacy, general population, 2015 projected</b>
<b>Albania</b>	96	98
<b>Armenia</b>	100	100
<b>Azerbaijan</b>	100	100
<b>Belarus</b>	100	100
<b>Bosnia and Herzegovina</b>	98	99
<b>Bulgaria</b>	98	98
<b>Georgia</b>	100	100
<b>Macedonia</b>	97	98
<b>Republic of Moldova</b>	98	99
<b>Montenegro</b>	...	...
<b>Romania</b>	98	98
<b>Russian Federation</b>	100	100
<b>Serbia</b>	98	98
<b>Ukraine</b>	100	100

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2011

## APPENDIX V: PROSECUTIONS AND CONVICTIONS OF TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS

TABLE II

Country	Prosecutions No. of individuals* 2009	Prosecutions No. of individuals* 2010	Convictions No. of individuals* 2009	Convictions No. of individuals* 2010	Number of Officially Identified Victims* 2009	Number of Officially Identified Victims* 2010
Albania	31	27	11	11	94	97 (14 minors)
Armenia		6	11	5	60	19
Azerbaijan	58	38	58	28	220	37 (3 minors)
Belarus	47	48	15	12	147	64
Bosnia and Herzegovina	27	16	27	16	46	37
Bulgaria	81	118	83	117	289 (44 minors)	558 (89 minors)
Georgia	40	5	37	1	48	19
Kosovo	25	81	22	11	27	39
Macedonia			0	21	7	12
Moldova	110	55	68	47	Data not clear enough to report	
Montenegro	14	22	11	12	NA	0 (1 identified by NGOs)
Romania	303	407	302	203	780	1154
Russian Federation	99 (cases not individuals)	62 (cases not individuals)	76	42	NA	NA
Serbia	NA	NA	40	36	127	89
Ukraine	80	110	110	120	335 (42 minors)	449 (123 minors)

Source: U.S. State Department 2011

\* Cases not specific to trafficking of children and may involve adult and child victims unless specified.

