



## Literature Review of Trafficking in Persons in Latin America and the Caribbean

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## FOREWORD

The USAID Bureau for Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC), through the USAID Bureau for Economic Growth, Agriculture, and Trade, Office of Women in Development (EGAT/WID), commissioned a literature review to identify, annotate, and synthesize research studies and available project/intervention reviews and assessments related to trafficking in persons for labor and sexual exploitation in the LAC region, with a particular focus on prostitution and domestic servitude in Argentina, Brazil, El Salvador, Guatemala, Guyana, Jamaica, Mexico, and Paraguay.

The review was conducted under the Short-Term Technical Assistance and Research under EGAT/WID management to Support USAID/Washington and Field Mission Anti - Trafficking Activities Project (GEW-I-00-02-00017-00, Task Order 1 [ATTO], managed by Development Alternatives, Inc.).

The literature search and review were conducted from May 2004 to July 2004 and were limited to available publications in English, Spanish, and Portuguese produced between 1995 and the present. These included both published and unpublished materials and included articles, research studies, and reports of programmatic interventions related to trafficking. The regional review did not provide for any field input at this stage.

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## ACRONYMS

ACSUR	Association for Cooperation with the South
ALAI	America Latina en Movimiento
BID/IADB	Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo/Inter-American Development Bank
CATW	Coalition Against Trafficking in Women
CBIA	Center for Childhood and Adolescents (Brazilian)
CECRIA	Centro de Referência, Estudos E Ações Sobre Crianças e Adolescentes
CELADE	Centro Latinoamericano y Caribeño de Demografía
CEPAL	Comisión Económica para América Latina y el Caribe
CDI	Center for Defense Information
CIM	Inter-American Commission of Women
CNI	National Confederation of Industry (Confederacao Nacional da Industria)
CODENI	Federación Coordinadora Nicaragüense de ONGs que trabajan con la Niñez y la Adolescencia
CPMI	Joint Parliamentary Investigating Commission
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
CSEC	Commercial sexual exploitation of children
CSEM	Commercial sexual exploitation of minors
CSIS	Center for Strategic and International Studies
DAD/	
INTERPOL	Department of Security Administration - INTERPOL
DCI	Defense for Children International
DDR	Disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration
DIF	National System for the Integral Development of the Family
DR	Dominican Republic
ECLAC	Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean
ECPAT	End Child Prostitution, Child Pornography, and Trafficking of Children for Sexual Purposes
ECOSOC	United Nations Economic and Social Council
EMBRATUR	Brazilian Tourist Board/Ministry of Industry and Commerce
EZLN	Zapatista Army of National Liberation
FNUAP	Fondo de Población de las Naciones Unidas
GATT	General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade
GERTRAF	Executive Group for the Abolition of Forced Labor (Brazil)
GBV	Gender-based violence
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HRW	Human Rights Watch
IACI/IIN	Inter-American Children's Institute/Instituto Interamericano del Niño
IBGE	Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística
ICC	International Chamber of Commerce
ICRI	International Child Resource Institute
IDP	Internally displaced person
IGO	International governmental organization
ILAB	Bureau of International Labor Affairs (U.S. Department of Labor)

ILANUD	United Nations Latin American Institute for the Prevention of Crimes and the Treatment of Offenders
ILO	International Labour Organization
IOM/OIM	International Organization for Migration/Organización Internacional para las Migraciones
IPEC	International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour
LAC	Latin America and the Caribbean
LASA	Latin American Studies Association
NGO/ONG	Nongovernmental organization/Organización nongubernamental
LASA	Latin American Studies Association
OAS	Organization of American States
OIT	Organización Internacional del Trabajo
OMCT	World Organization Against Torture
RECRIA	National Network of Information on Sexual Violence against Children and Adolescents
RROCM	Red Régional de Organizaciones Civiles para las Migraciones
STD	Sexually transmitted disease
TIP	Trafficking in persons
TVPA	Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 (U.S.)
UN	United Nations
UNAM	Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNGASS	United Nations General Assembly Special Session
UNODC	United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
USAID	U.S. Agency for International Development



## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This literature review of documents addressing trafficking in persons in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) found numerous works on the subject of sex trafficking of children (also referred to as commercial sexual exploitation of children, or CSEC); general overviews of sex trafficking within the region; descriptions of institutional, legal, and civil society responses to combat sex trafficking, and linkages between migration patterns and human trafficking. Most of the reviewed documents deal with issues surrounding trafficking in children for purposes of sexual exploitation; relatively few comprehensively address the nature and extent of trafficking in women or other forms of trafficking such as domestic servitude, forced labor, and military service. This largely reflects observations within the literature that children are the most vulnerable group to trafficking in LAC. This is also indicative of the fact that, with some notable exceptions, relatively few programs in LAC countries directly address trafficking of women for sexual exploitation and trafficking in persons for other forms of exploitation. There is a slightly more established group of child protection research studies and corresponding prevention, assistance, and protection programs that address child trafficking and related exploitation within individual LAC countries.

Compared with research on trafficking of women for purposes of sexual exploitation in Asia and Europe, relatively little research has focused on the nature and extent of trafficking of women in the LAC region. Few documents on sex trafficking of adult females contain in-depth descriptions and case studies regarding the nature and extent of this form of trafficking—either on a regional, subregional, or country basis. However, the literature that does exist on this topic reveals fairly consistent patterns and trafficking trends. The studies show that women trafficked for sexual exploitation are mainly trafficked for prostitution, but sometimes also for pornography and stripping. The literature reveals that the last decade has seen a notable increase in the transnational and internal trafficking of women from LAC; women are trafficked between continents, regions, and nations, but also between cities and tourism sites within individual LAC countries. Documents regarding international trafficking of women tend to focus upon traffic from Latin America to Europe and the United States. Brazil, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Uruguay, Venezuela, Suriname, and Antilles are the most commonly cited countries of origin and recruitment. Spain, Germany, the Netherlands, Portugal, and the United States are the most commonly cited countries of destination. However, virtually any country or subregion may serve as a point of origin, transit, or destination for trafficked women. Most of the push and pull factors associated with sex trafficking in LAC are the same as those associated with trafficking in other regions of the world (poverty, lack of economic opportunities, gender discrimination), but the reviewed works contain some distinctive vulnerability factors for the LAC region, such as gang affiliations, ongoing substance abuse problems, and having children before the eighteenth birthday. Yet, due to a lack of in-depth country reports and reliable case data, there is a lack of comprehensive information and reliable indicators pertaining to sex trafficking of women in the region.

Unlike most of the works on sex trafficking of women, the reviewed works focusing on sexual exploitation of children contain several case studies, victim profiles, and in-depth country reports documenting the growing phenomenon of child sex trafficking. The statistical data available within the reviewed works show that the number of children who are sexually exploited in the region is increasing, while the age of sexually exploited children is decreasing. The increase in the number of sexually exploited children is linked to several factors, but a driving factor mentioned in the literature is the development of the sex tourism industry throughout LAC. The literature reveals that trafficking of children for sexual exploitation is not a homogeneous phenomenon in the region; children are sexually exploited in a variety of ways, including prostitution, pornography, and the sexual exploitation of child domestic servants. Girls under 18 are more likely to be trafficked within their countries of origin because it is easier to obtain travel documents for adults and it is less likely that adults will be detected. In terms of root causes or push/pull factors related to child exploitation in LAC, the literature reflects that a large percentage of children are sexually exploited in order to provide income for their families. The reviewed works reveal a distinctive feature of child trafficking within the region: a significant number of children who are sexually exploited for commercial gain remain living with family while being prostituted. Furthermore, the literature reflects high percentages of exploited children who suffered sexual abuse in their homes and at the hands of male family members prior to entering prostitution. Although more information exists regarding sexual exploitation of children in the region than exploitation of adult females, the literature consistently recognizes the need for more comprehensive and updated research into the growing phenomenon. Most of the data available are from the mid-1990s and early 2000s, and the reviewed works call for more research and data collection on various forms of commercial exploitation of children in order to assess the current situation.

The review also found documentation on trafficking in LAC addressing child soldiers, forced labor, and linkages between trafficking and migration. These documents comprise about one-third of the total reviewed works, but they represent emerging and underresearched areas. Regarding the literature on child soldiers, the majority of works focus upon the use of child soldiers in Colombia, although analysis of the problem in other countries includes data on El Salvador, Ecuador, Honduras, Paraguay, Guatemala, Mexico, and Peru. International organizations and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) author most of these works, and the majority of the documents provide recommendations for governmental, nongovernmental, and international actors in addressing the problem of child soldiers, particularly in the areas of demobilization and reintegration. Lessons learned include those drawn from specific programs implemented in the area as well as general lessons drawn from work within the region, including best practices related to prevention and gender-based approaches to dealing with the issues of child soldiers and trafficking.

The literature review found surprisingly little data on and analysis of trafficking in persons for forced labor within the LAC region. Nongovernmental and international organizations provide almost all of the reports/data on the issue; government statistical reports and analyses are scarce. The reviewed works on trafficking in persons for forced labor in and from the LAC region can be grouped into two categories: literature on domestic labor and literature on agricultural labor.

Trafficking for purposes of domestic labor is addressed both regionally (intercountry as well as transnational trafficking) and internationally (between LAC and the United States, and between LAC and Western Europe). A majority of the information related to the exploitation of domestic labor in LAC addressed the exploitation of child labor, especially the prevalence of exploitation of girls working as domestic servants. However, the lines between exploitation of child labor and child trafficking are consistently blurred throughout the reviewed works. The trafficking of women for domestic labor is also addressed; although it is explored to a lesser extent than is child labor. The countries most often cited or analyzed with regard to domestic servitude include Argentina, El Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Haiti, and the Dominican Republic; the trafficking of child domestic servants from Haiti to the Dominican Republic constitutes a particular problem.

Regarding forced agricultural labor in LAC, the majority of the reviewed works describe bonded labor in Brazil and Haitians working under exploitative conditions in sugar plantations in the Dominican Republic. Although a few works refer to exploitation of Mexican labor in the United States, remarkably few provide comprehensive analysis and case data that describe and distinguish instances of trafficking for agricultural labor from other forms of exploitation encountered by agricultural laborers in the Americas. Several reports address actions taken to combat the exploitation of agricultural labor, including challenges and gaps in laws and regulations, but few provide rigorous analysis and practical steps to identify, assist, and protect trafficking victims within the agricultural sector.

A number of the documents containing information about forced labor and sexual exploitation and trafficking of children contained references to trafficking of young children for purposes of adoption as well. Most of these documents assert that infants and young children from Guatemala are trafficked to North America for adoption. Nongovernmental and international organizations author almost all of the documents that mention trafficking for adoption, but government statistical reports and comprehensive analyses of this issue are scarce. These works are mainly anecdotal and contain few references to verified cases and case data, so the scope and prevalence of this form of trafficking are unclear at this time. Similarly, the reviewed documents contain a few references to forced begging by children and adults, but this form of trafficking did not feature prominently in the literature.

Because so many of the reviewed works on trafficking in the LAC region address the linkages between trafficking and migration, the annotated bibliography contains a separate section on works exploring that issue. The primary focus of these documents is on recent trends regarding female migration, the feminization of migration within LAC during the last decade, and how these trends relate to trafficking patterns. Trends affecting trafficking and migration include greater numbers of urban middle-class females migrating, intraregional migration, and an increase in the number of people migrating from the LAC region to Europe and Japan; however, the majority of reviewed works address the largest phenomenon—female migration to North America. The reviewed works emphasize that female migration is a multidimensional phenomenon: women from the region migrate not only in search of economic opportunity but also to escape violence at home and/or political instability and conflict. The literature points out that while some women may migrate with families or

groups, the majority of females from the region migrate alone. Women and girls who migrate illegally or informally are particularly vulnerable to physical violence and trafficking for purposes of sexual exploitation and forced labor, especially while awaiting passage at border crossings.

The final section of the review contains documentation regarding institutional, legal, and civil society responses to combat trafficking in LAC. These studies comprise more than one-third of the reviewed works. Most of the reports are authored by international organizations, regional organizations, and international NGOs; however, many of the reports covering exploitation of children were prepared in cooperation with local NGOs. The majority of these reports address responses to combat trafficking for purposes of sexual exploitation, mainly CSEC. Few of the reviewed works substantially address specific efforts to combat trafficking in adult females, either on a regional, subregional, or country basis. The reviewed works reveal that the region as a whole has assumed important international and regional legal obligations and has made some progress creating new laws against trafficking for purposes of sexual exploitation and developing national plans of action against commercial exploitation of children. However, the region is falling short in implementing measures and creating institutional frameworks to combat the problem and carry out these international and regional commitments, especially with respect to coordination of national and regional efforts; prevention, protection, and reintegration measures regarding adult victims; long-term prevention and protection measures for actual and at-risk children and their families; and prosecution of traffickers and exploiters.

## CONCLUSIONS

Although there has been less research and attention focused on trafficking in persons in LAC than in other regions, the number of documents and programs addressing the problem has increased significantly over the last five years. In particular, there is an increasing amount of literature and research on the subject of CSEC and related exploitation of children. The literature clearly indicates that children are most vulnerable to trafficking in the region, and that deleterious family conditions most directly impact a child's vulnerability to trafficking, yet few documents explore concerted strategies, societal efforts, and operational research into anti-trafficking prevention and protection programs that address the condition of families as a whole. For example, despite the links established between familial sexual and physical violence and a child's vulnerability to trafficking, few documents posit related strategies and programs that address social programs aimed to reduce such violence and negative conditions within families. Also, many of the works noted that adolescent motherhood increases female vulnerability to trafficking and related exploitation, yet few documents examine strategies to counter this trend. In addition, few studies examine linkages between drug trafficking and trafficking in persons in LAC.

The literature also reflects a dearth of programs and research that substantially address specific efforts to combat trafficking in adult females and other forms of trafficking on a regional, subregional, or country basis. Therefore, there is a lack of data regarding viable strategies for prevention and rehabilitation strategies for women from LAC, and there is an acute lack of information on the extent of trafficking in countries such as Bolivia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Guyana, Honduras, Paraguay, Peru, and Uruguay. The literature also indicates a need for more direct involvement and cooperation among grassroots organizations and governmental bodies at local or national levels. Furthermore, the literature calls for longer-term research studies that have direct links with prevention, assistance, and protection programs for trafficked or at-risk victims in LAC. Overall, these studies should track progress made with respect to implementing measures and creating institutional frameworks to combat the problem and carry out international and regional commitments, especially with respect to coordination of national and regional anti-trafficking efforts; prevention, protection, and reintegration measures regarding female and child victims; long-term prevention and protection measures for actual and at-risk children and their families; and prosecution and profiles of traffickers and exploiters. Related research should also focus on strategies for reducing demand for the services of trafficked persons; such studies and programs must focus on the role and impact of both foreigner and local exploiters.

Furthermore, more research and programs are needed that explore other forms of trafficking in the region, including trafficking for domestic servitude, agricultural labor, and child soldiers. Overall, remarkably few works provide comprehensive analysis and case data that describe and distinguish instances of trafficking for agricultural labor and domestic service from other forms of exploitation encountered by laborers in the Americas. These topics and their linkages to impacts of migration policies and prevalence of corruption throughout the Americas merit further investigation in order to obtain a more comprehensive overview of the extent of human trafficking throughout the region.



## 1. INTRODUCTION

The USAID Bureau for Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC), through the USAID Bureau for Economic Growth, Agriculture, and Trade, Office of Women in Development (EGAT/WID), commissioned a literature review to identify, annotate, and synthesize research studies and available project/intervention reviews and assessments related to trafficking in persons for labor and sexual exploitation in the LAC region, with a particular focus on prostitution or domestic servitude in Argentina, Brazil, El Salvador, Guatemala, Guyana, Jamaica, Mexico, and Paraguay.

The literature search was limited to available publications in English, Spanish, and Portuguese produced between 1995 and the present. These included both published and unpublished materials and included articles, research studies, and reports of programmatic interventions related to trafficking. The regional review did not provide for any field input at this stage.

The review was conducted under the Short-Term Technical Assistance and Research under EGAT/WID management to Support USAID/Washington and Field Mission Anti - Trafficking Activities Project (GEW-I-00-02-00017-00, Task Order 1 [ATTO], managed by Development Alternatives, Inc.). For the purposes of this review:

The following definitions were used:<sup>1</sup>

- (a) *“Trafficking in persons” shall mean the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring, 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 prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labor or services, 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, harboring, 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 18 years of age.*

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<sup>1</sup> United Nations (2000). Protocol to Prevent, Suppress, and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, Supplementing the United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime, Article 3.





## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature search uncovered more than 140 works addressing trafficking in persons in Latin America and the Caribbean. More than two-thirds of the reviewed documents on trafficking in LAC deal with issues surrounding trafficking in women and children for purposes of sexual exploitation; the other third address child soldiers, forced labor, and linkages between trafficking and migration. Half of the reviewed works on sex trafficking deal primarily with the nature and scope of sex trafficking in women and children, and the others focus on legal, institutional, and civil society responses to the problem.

### 2.1 LITERATURE ON THE NATURE AND EXTENT OF TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS FOR PURPOSES OF SEXUAL EXPLOITATION

The reviewed works on the nature and extent of trafficking in persons for purposes of sexual exploitation in the LAC region can be grouped into two categories: adult females trafficked for sexual exploitation and children trafficked for sexual exploitation.

Few documents on sex trafficking of adult females contain in-depth descriptions and case studies regarding the nature and extent of this form of trafficking, either on a regional, subregional, or country basis. This reflects the fact that, compared with research on trafficking of women for purposes of sexual exploitation in Asia and Europe, relatively little research has focused on the nature and extent of trafficking of women in the LAC region.

In contrast to the literature on trafficking of women in the region, the literature on sex trafficking of children provides much more detail regarding the nature, scope, and extent of the problem in LAC. The reviewed works focusing upon sexual exploitation of children contain numerous case studies, detailed victim profiles, and in-depth country reports documenting the growing phenomenon of child sex trafficking, especially the rise of sex tourism throughout the region. Whereas most of the works that address sex trafficking of adult females in LAC provide regional trafficking trends and patterns, the vast majority of works on sex trafficking of children in LAC address the problem within individual countries.

#### 2.1.1 Literature on the Nature and Extent of Trafficking of Adult Females for Purposes of Sexual Exploitation

The majority of reviewed documents that address the nature and extent of trafficking in adult females for purposes of sexual exploitation provide an overview of trafficking within the region, rather than a discussion of trafficking within a particular country. This reflects the fact that most of the reviewed works were studies and conference reports commissioned by regional bodies and international organizations. It also indicates that the momentum for exploration of the trafficking phenomenon in the region originated within international and regional bodies rather than with grassroots organizations or governmental bodies at local or national levels. Moreover, most of the reports consist of relatively short-term research studies

that do not have direct links with prevention, assistance, and protection programs for trafficked or at-risk victims in LAC.

Despite the existence of relatively early works such as *El Trafico de Mujeres en America Latina* (Molina, 1995) and *Trafficking of Women and Children for Sexual Exploitation in the Americas; An Introduction to Trafficking in the Americas* (Phinney, 2001), which provide regional overviews of sex trafficking and call for more research into the issue, subsequent studies, articles, and reports have uniformly noted the lack of updated, reliable, and comprehensive research on the phenomenon within the region. Even the most recent and extensive research study, *In Modern Bondage: Sex Trafficking in the Americas* (Guinn and Steglich, 2003), asserts that although there is an increasing amount of data on the subject, more research is needed. Trafficking statistics regarding the number of women trafficked within and from the region vary considerably, do not contain data collection methodology, and do not provide solid estimations of the problem in the region.

However, the works that provide a regional overview describe fairly consistent patterns of sex trafficking throughout the region. The studies show that women trafficked for sexual exploitation are mainly trafficked for prostitution, but sometimes also for pornography and stripping. The literature clearly reflects that women from LAC are trafficked not only intercontinentally, but also within the region and within individual countries and cities in LAC.

Documents regarding international traffic of women tend to focus on traffic from Latin America to Europe and the United States. Brazil, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Uruguay, Venezuela, Suriname, and Antilles are the most commonly cited countries of origin and recruitment. Spain, Germany, the Netherlands, Portugal, and the United States are the most commonly cited countries of destination. A few countries in Asia, notably Japan, are also cited as destination countries for victims from Colombia and Mexico. However, as Thomas-Hope (2004) points out, trafficking patterns are complex; most countries and subregions serve as places of origin, transit, and destination for trafficked women. Trafficking patterns tend to follow migration patterns from rural to urban settings, but can also follow routes to locations with a high proportion of male laborers, such as the trafficking of thousands of Brazilian women and girls to the gold mining towns in the Amazon (Mora, 2002). Overall, the reviewed works report that women are trafficked from poor areas to areas with relative wealth.

According to the literature, there has been a notable increase in both transnational and internal trafficking (i.e., trafficking of women within their home countries) in LAC during the last decade (Chiarotti, 2003). An interesting finding in the literature is that most victims trafficked within their home countries come from poor areas, but victims trafficked internationally (usually to Europe and the United States, but sometimes Asia) come not only from poor families but from middle-class families as well (Molina, 1995).

Many of the documents report consistent push and pull factors associated with sex trafficking in LAC that are similar to vulnerability factors associated with trafficking in other regions of the world. The most commonly cited factors that place an individual female at risk in LAC

include poverty, lack of economic alternatives, minimal education and illiteracy, family dissolution, family violence, and homelessness (Guinn and Steglich, 2003; Leal and Leal, 2003). However, the reviewed works also cite additional vulnerability factors that are distinctive; several reports mention that victims in LAC often have gang affiliations, have ongoing substance abuse problems, and had children before their eighteenth birthday. External factors contributing to trafficking include gender discrimination, objectification of women, ease of migration/weak border controls, globalization policies, public corruption, and increased demand for prostitution—especially an increased demand for sex tourism across the region (Chiarotti, 2003; Guinn and Steglich, 2003).

The most commonly cited recruitment strategy is deception/false promises of employment. Other forms of recruitment include marriage fraud, peer-influenced recruitment, and gang-related recruitment. Gang-related recruitment also appears to be a distinctive form of recruitment, not typically seen in other regions. The literature contains varying accounts regarding the prevalence of recruitment by family members: while some reports maintain that recruitment by family members is uncommon (Guinn and Steglich, 2003), others assert that recruitment by male and female family members is prevalent (Covenant House, 2001). Kidnapping victims for trafficking appears to be rare.

Compared with other regions, there are remarkably few in-depth country reports detailing sex trafficking and case studies of adult females in LAC. Therefore, few comprehensive victim profiles are available. A few exceptions include the International Organization for Migration's (IOM) 1996 study of women trafficked internationally from the Dominican Republic; IOM's 2003 study of Dominican women trafficked for prostitution to Argentina between 1996 and 2000; the Association for Cooperation with the South's (ACSUR) report on Ecuadorian and Colombian women trafficked to Spain (2001); and Leal and Leal's study on international and internal trafficking of Brazilian women and girls (2003).

With so few country reports and comprehensive studies of victims, there is little information about the short- and long-term conditions and consequences of sex trafficking and related exploitation in the region. However, a few organizations and studies have begun to explore areas such as the health of trafficked victims (Mora, 2002; IOM, 2004). Finally, there is a dearth of information about the profiles, organizational structure, and *modus operandi* of the traffickers and exploiters themselves. Most of the reviewed works contain very general and sometimes contradictory descriptions of traffickers and trafficking networks; absent sufficient case data, it is difficult to ascertain whether the information regarding traffickers is based mainly upon trafficking patterns and realities within LAC or upon trafficking patterns and trends prevalent in other regions.

### 2.1.2 Literature on the Nature and Extent of Trafficking of Children for Purposes of Sexual Exploitation

The reviewed works on sex trafficking of children provide relatively detailed accounts of the nature, scope, and extent of the problem in LAC. The works are authored by international NGOs (often in cooperation with local NGOs) as well as other international organizations, especially the International Labour Organization/International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (ILO/IPEC). Unlike most of the works on sex trafficking of women, the research addressing child trafficking is tied to implementation of ongoing child trafficking/commercial sexual exploitation of children (CSEC) prevention and protection projects within individual countries and the region. The reviewed works focusing upon sexual exploitation of children contain several case studies, victim profiles, and in-depth country reports documenting the growing phenomenon of child sex trafficking, especially relating to the growth of sex tourism throughout LAC. Therefore, the reports contain more statistical data and trafficking profiles, especially on an individual country basis, than the literature addressing trafficking of women.

The statistical data available within the reviewed works show that the number of children who are sexually exploited in the region is increasing, while the age of sexually exploited children is decreasing. Sylvain Vité (2001) reports that the number of children who are victims of trafficking in Paraguay is increasing, and some victims are as young as eight. In Elena Azaola's study (2001), of 900 reported victims of trafficking between 1996 and 1999, 60 percent were under the age of 10. The literature includes reports of children as young as age six involved in prostitution. The increase in the number of sexually exploited children is linked to several factors, but the primary factor mentioned in the literature is the development of the sex tourism industry. Though there are reports of women hiring male prostitutes, men are the primary tourist exploiters of children in Latin America and the Caribbean, particularly men from North America and Western Europe. However, local men comprise the largest overall group of exploiters of children in LAC.

The literature reveals that trafficking of children for sexual exploitation is not a homogeneous phenomenon in the region. Children are sexually exploited in a variety of ways, including prostitution, pornography, and the sexual exploitation of child domestic servants. Prostitution also exists in many forms, including what is referred to in the literature as "formal" and "informal" forms. The literature shows that children work primarily in the informal sectors, where there is less risk of detection and/or legal intervention. Accordingly, girls are more likely to be trafficked within their countries of origin, and most of the females trafficked internationally are over the age of 18, because it is easier to obtain travel documents for adults and it is less likely that adults will be detected. Julia O'Connell Davidson and Jacqueline Sanchez Taylor, in their study of Venezuela (1996), found that the informal sector is developing due to demand by tourists and also as a site of child sexual exploitation. Informal sectors include children working independently on the streets or servicing foreign tourists in exchange for basic living needs. The literature includes reports of girls engaging in prostitution for food or clothing. Street children (abandoned or orphaned or who have left violent home situations) are particularly vulnerable to exploitation. Drug and alcohol abuse among child prostitutes is also high; according to Bente Sorensen's report

(undated), in one area studied, 100 percent of boys and 44 percent of girls take drugs on a daily basis.

In terms of root causes or push/pull factors related to child exploitation in Latin America and the Caribbean, the literature reflects that a large percentage of children are sexually exploited in order to provide income for their families. The reviewed works reveal a distinctive feature of child trafficking within the region: a significant number of children sexually exploited for commercial gain remain living with family while they are prostituted. For example, according to Gonzalez de Innocenti's work on El Salvador (2002), 57 percent of child prostitutes interviewed lived with their parents or other relatives and contributed to the family income. The families are often complicit in the exploitation as the money earned from prostitution exceeds other income, and families are often in need of financial support. The literature reports several instances of mothers serving as pimps for their daughters.

The literature also reflects high percentages of exploited children who suffered sexual abuse in their homes and at the hands of male family members prior to their engagement in prostitution. Poor economic conditions, drug and alcohol abuse, and the low status of women are cited throughout the literature as primary push factors related to child sexual exploitation. The literature also notes that many children are lured into prostitution, pornography, and domestic work by false promises and deceptive practices; many families are lured into sending their children away under these circumstances. Traffickers promise high-paying jobs in other regions/countries or educational opportunities such as scholarships. The literature also recognizes that many adolescent girls engaging in prostitution do so in order to support their own children.

Although more information exists regarding sexual exploitation of children in the region than exploitation of adult females, the literature consistently recognizes the need for more comprehensive and updated research into the growing phenomenon. Most of the data available are from the mid-1990s and early 2000s; the reviewed works call for more research and data collection about various forms of commercial exploitation of children in order to assess the current situation. Specifically, the need for studies that include longer-term data and analysis of vulnerable children and their families is cited throughout the literature.

## **2.2 LITERATURE ON CHILD SOLDIERS**

The literature reflects both growing attention and gaps in research and data regarding the use of child soldiers. Most of the literature reviewed is from between 2000 and 2004. According to several reports, including recent UN Wire reports (2004), the number of child soldiers in Latin America is on the rise. In Paraguay, for example, approximately 80 percent of the conscripts are below the age of 18, and of these, 30.3 percent are 15 or younger (Vité, 2001). In terms of the Colombian situation, the literature differentiates between the conscription of child soldiers by government forces and paramilitary and guerrilla forces; the literature reflects that government forces recruit and conscript far fewer children than do the paramilitary or guerrilla forces. The government forces do, however, make use of children, usually through informal means.

The literature pays particular attention to what many argue is a most understudied aspect of child soldiers: the conscription of female soldiers. Susan McKay and Dyan Mazurana (2002) conclude that one of the most significant challenges in assessing the participation and experiences of girl soldiers is lack of credible data. Violence and abuse in the home is a significant factor in the recruitment of girl soldiers. According to Lisa Alfredson (2002), a large number of girls who join armed forces do so to escape abusive home situations. Poverty is also deemed an important factor in girls joining military movements or being abducted. While Keairns' study (2002) notes that not all girl soldiers are abused, much of the literature reports high incidences of rape and sexual exploitation of girl soldiers within the armies. The literature also reflects the need for organizations dealing with disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR) programs to provide special assistance to and explore the unique situations and experiences of girl soldiers.

The physical, psychological, and emotional stress of child soldiers factors significantly in the literature reviewed. Child soldiers face severe health problems, including hearing loss, blindness, and loss of limbs. Female child soldiers are often forced to provide sexual services, and children are used as advance scouts for mines. The literature notes the difficulty many child soldiers face in reintegrating into the community after their military service, including difficulty relating to situations which are both nonviolent and nonhierarchical. In Easterbrook's article "From Cradle to Grave" (2002), the author notes that many families are not interested in seeing their children again or fear for their own safety if they take the children back into their homes. However, few of the reviewed works directly address or provide recommendations for facilitating successful reintegration of child soldiers into families reluctant to accept them back into their homes.

Much of the literature reviewed provides recommendations for both governmental and nongovernmental actors in addressing the problem of child soldiers. Several authors and/or organizations provide recommendations for governments, organizations working with child combatants (particularly in the areas of demobilization and reintegration), and the international community. Lessons learned include those drawn from specific programs implemented in the area as well general lessons drawn from work within the region. The lessons relate to prevention and gender-based approaches to dealing with the issues of child soldiers and trafficking.

The literature also includes analyses of the impact of international law with regard to child soldiers. Several documents address international responses to the use of child soldiers both in general and as specifically related to LAC. An exploration of the Montevideo Declaration on the Use of Child Soldiers is included in the literature, as is an analysis of Colombia's disregard for international law, including the Geneva Conventions and the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court. Gaps in international law are included as are recommendations for the international community.

## **2.3 LITERATURE ON TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS FOR FORCED LABOR**

The literature review turned up surprisingly little data on and analysis of trafficking in persons for forced labor within the LAC region. Nongovernmental and international organizations provide almost all of the reports/data on the issue; government statistical reports and analyses were difficult to obtain. A few of the works contain references to forced begging by children and adults (both within LAC and in North America), but this form of trafficking is not prominent in the literature and the full nature and scope of the problem is unclear at this time.

The reviewed works on trafficking in persons for forced labor in and from the LAC region can be grouped into two categories: literature on domestic labor and literature on agricultural labor.

### **2.3.1 Literature on Domestic Labor**

A majority of the information on the exploitation of domestic labor in LAC relates to the exploitation of child labor. Statistics on child labor within the region and on the push/pull factors contributing to the use and exploitation of child labor, including poverty, homelessness, and abuse, are prevalent in the literature. In Argentina, for example, 252,000 children under the age of 15 are working, and of these one-third are domestic servants in urban areas (Global March, undated). In Nicaragua, nearly 90 percent of children surveyed began working as domestic servants at the age of seven (ILO/IPEC, 2004). The literature also reflects the higher percentages of girls working as domestic servants (particularly as ages increase) compared with boys. The trafficking of women for domestic labor is also addressed, although it is explored to a lesser extent than is child labor. The countries most often cited or analyzed include Argentina, El Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Haiti, and the Dominican Republic; trafficking of child domestic servants from Haiti to the Dominican Republic is a particular problem. Trafficking for purposes of domestic labor is addressed both regionally (intercountry as well as transnational trafficking) and between LAC and the United States.

### **2.3.2 Literature on Agricultural Labor**

Bonded labor in Brazil and Haitians working under exploitative conditions in sugar plantations in the Dominican Republic dominate the literature regarding forced agricultural labor in the region. In the Brazilian case, exploitation and trafficking occur within Brazil's borders, but in the case of the Dominican Republic, labor is moved from one country (Haiti) to another (Dominican Republic). There is also mention of the exploitation of Mexican labor in the United States. The literature reflects the use of sharing wages in several instances, particularly when children are involved. This means that a child may not be paid directly for labor, but he/she serves as a "helper" with an adult laborer and shares the adult's wages. The literature also reflects high levels of vulnerability among certain ethnic groups within LAC.

In Paraguay, for example, the Enxet ethnic group is often trapped into debt bondage with ranchers (ILO, undated).

Overall, remarkably few works provide comprehensive analysis and case data that describe and distinguish instances of trafficking for agricultural labor from other forms of exploitation encountered by agricultural laborers in the Americas. Several reports address actions taken to combat the exploitation of agricultural labor, including challenges and gaps in laws and regulations, but few provide rigorous analysis and practical steps to identify trafficking victims within the agricultural sector.

## 2.4 LITERATURE ON TRAFFICKING AND MIGRATION

The literature reviewed on trafficking and migration focuses overwhelmingly on recent trends regarding female migration, the feminization of migration during the last decade, its direct and indirect impact upon trafficking patterns in the region, and linkages among smuggling, migration, and trafficking. Regarding female migration trends in LAC, the available data and analysis illustrate that women migrate for several reasons; the primary impetus is to find greater economic opportunity. However, the reviewed works emphasize that female migration is a multidimensional phenomenon. Women from the region migrate not only in search of economic opportunity but also to escape violence at home and/or political instability and conflict (particularly in the case of Colombia). The literature also points to the fact that, while some women may migrate with families or groups, the majority of females from the region migrate alone, thus rendering them more vulnerable to abuse and exploitation.

Female migrants may become domestic servants, entertainers in bars and clubs, or prostitutes. Much of the literature references the large amount of remittances sent to their home countries by women, more than is sent by men, who usually earn higher wages than their female counterparts. The literature also reflects the high and increasing levels of vulnerability faced by female migrants, many of whom have migrated either illegally or informally. Women and girls migrating illegally are particularly vulnerable to sexual exploitation while awaiting border crossings. For example, many reports describe high incidences of sex trafficking along crossings such as the United States-Mexico border (Azaola, 2001; Mora 2002), the Guatemala-Mexico border at Tecun Uman (Guinn and Steglich, 2003), and the triborder region of Paraguay, Argentina, and Brazil (Guinn, 2003). Their marginalized status makes females particularly vulnerable to sexual exploitation, physical violence, and trafficking. According to Castillo (2003), lack of documentation has led to a proliferation of abuses, including low salaries, lack of social protection, precarious working conditions, aggression, physical abuse, and slave-like conditions.

Other trends in trafficking and migration include greater numbers of urban middle-class females migrating, intraregional migration, and an increase in the number of people migrating from the LAC region to Europe and Japan. According to Castillo (2003), there was an increase in migration from LAC to Europe in the 1990s, and the author notes that it is no longer the rural poor who are migrating but also the urban middle class. Pellegrino (2004)



argues that tightened visa requirements in the United States have led to increases in migration flows to Europe. Natural disasters, political instability, and demand on the part of destination countries are often cited as push/pull factors in the reviewed works.

## **2.5 LITERATURE ON INSTITUTIONAL, LEGAL, AND CIVIL SOCIETY RESPONSES TO COMBAT TRAFFICKING**

More than one-third of the reviewed works focus primarily on institutional, legal, and civil society responses to combat human trafficking in LAC. The vast majority of these reports address responses to combat trafficking for purposes of sexual exploitation, mainly commercial sexual exploitation of children. Few of the reviewed works substantially address specific efforts to combat trafficking in adult females, either on a regional, subregional, or country basis. Most of the reports are authored by international organizations, regional organizations, and international NGOs; however, many of the reports covering CSEC were prepared in cooperation with local NGOs.

The reviewed works reveal that the region as a whole has assumed important international and regional legal obligations and has made some progress in creating new laws against trafficking for purposes of sexual exploitation and developing national plans of action against commercial exploitation of children. However, the region is falling short in implementing measures and creating institutional frameworks to combat the problem and carry out these international and regional commitments, especially with respect to coordination of national and regional efforts; prevention, protection, and reintegration measures regarding adult victims; long-term prevention and protection measures for actual and at-risk children and their families; and prosecution of traffickers and exploiters (Guinn and Steglich, 2003).

The literature from the last five years demonstrates that the region has seen a significant increase in institutional responses and frameworks aimed at combating sexual exploitation of children, but institutional efforts to combat trafficking of women have been scarce and recent. Throughout the region, government/political will for measures against CSEC have been evidenced by the fact that most LAC countries have developed national plans to combat commercial exploitation of children and the worst forms of child labor, but few countries, with the exception of the Dominican Republic and Colombia, have developed similar frameworks to combat sexual exploitation of women and other forms of trafficking. Several documents herald Brazil's National Plan of Action to Confront Sexual Violence against Children and Adolescents as a model plan of action that represents a successful example of the coordination efforts between governmental and NGO actors with regard to sexual exploitation of children. National guidelines that grew out of Brazil's National Plan of Action became mandatory for actions at the federal, state, and municipal levels, and the Plan specifies objectives, actions, goals, and recommendations for implementation (Zabala, 2001). The reviewed works indicate that this kind of plan could also serve as a model to combat other forms of trafficking, but such plans must receive adequate funding; about two-thirds of Organization of American States (OAS) states have plans of action against CSEC, but only 9 of 13 countries reported that the plans are properly funded. (IIN, 2003). Furthermore, the documents note that increased coordination between a variety of high-level actors and the

appointment of national anti-trafficking coordinators with specified and institutionalized mandates are needed.

Most of the reviewed works assert that considerable, albeit uneven, progress has been made in the LAC region with respect to legal reform measures combating trafficking, especially trafficking for prostitution. The most comprehensive legal analysis of anti-trafficking legislation and commitments in LAC is provided in *In Modern Bondage: Sex Trafficking in the Americas* (Guinn and Steglich, 2003), a research study that provides legislative overviews for Belize, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Panama. Although most of the LAC countries have either ratified or are in the process of ratifying the UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress, and Punish Trafficking, and most LAC countries have laws in their penal codes that punish trafficking activity for the purposes of prostitution, most LAC countries do not possess comprehensive anti-trafficking laws. Furthermore, laws vary throughout the region with respect to what constitutes trafficking, the legal status of prostitution, and the penalties incurred. For example, in Belize, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, and Panama's legislation, trafficking provisions apply to nationals as well as foreigners, but laws in Nicaragua and the Dominican Republic are less clear on this issue (Guinn and Steglich, 2003).

Documentation addressing the status of anti-trafficking laws in LAC also demonstrates that criminal classifications of sexual exploitation are very different throughout the region; some of the major differences pertain to definitions of trafficking, ages of consent for children, sanctions for punishment, and aggravating circumstances. The reviewed works call for harmonization of anti-trafficking legislation as well as for shifting anti-trafficking response away from an interception-detention-repatriation model to a prevention-protection-prosecution model. These documents also recommend laws that combat not only trafficking in the context of prostitution but also other forms of sexual exploitation as well as trafficking for domestic service, forced labor, illegal adoption, and military service (Protection Project, 2002). However, the reviewed documents also note positive developments, such as the Costa Rican Law Against Sexual Exploitation of Minors (Law 7899), which enlarges the scope of CSEC crimes, introduces conceptual changes removing sanctions against the child, acknowledges the child as a victim, and heightens sanctions against offenders (Zabala, 2001). A new anti-trafficking law in Panama seeks to address trafficking in the context of child pornography, sex tourism, and the use of the Internet (U.S. Department of State, 2004).

Although the literature calls for reform of anti-trafficking and related laws, the documentation consistently states that the largest obstacles to combating trafficking rest in the lack of concrete implementation mechanisms throughout the region (Celade et al., 2003). The studies conclude that, in practice, implementation of existing protection measures is weak. Regarding law enforcement, many of the reviewed works note that police, judges, magistrates, prosecutors, justice system staff, and border guards possess inadequate knowledge and awareness of human trafficking issues, as well as inadequate equipment, technology administrative support, and information-sharing mechanisms. These challenges and obstacles, in addition to claims of widespread complicity and corruption among public officials, partially account for the low number of successful prosecutions of traffickers across the region. Furthermore, several NGO reports reflect a strong sense of fear and distrust of

law enforcement, exacerbated by the legal system's tendency to treat trafficked victims as criminals, which leads to reluctance to report trafficking and publicly denounce traffickers. However, recent literature also demonstrates some improvements in these areas. For example, district attorney offices in Costa Rica and El Salvador have created special multidisciplinary units to investigate and handle sexual and interfamily violence crimes, judges in the Dominican Republic receive ongoing training in anti-trafficking issues, and police units in Brazil cooperate with child protection NGOs on cases involving child sexual exploitation (Zabala, 2001; USAID, 2004).

In addition to advocating improvement in local and national anti-trafficking efforts, the literature calls for governments to improve cooperation on cross-border issues. In particular, international and national organizations urge governments in LAC to dedicate more attention and devise more practical solutions for cross-border migration issues that contribute to trafficking. The documentation reports endemic problems with border and migration officials who treat both illegal migrants and trafficked persons as criminals; the works call for further investigation of the causes of migration and also for practical solutions for coping with the gray line between smuggling and trafficking (Celade et al., 2003). The literature acknowledges that the difference between human smuggling and human trafficking is often unclear, and that what begins as a migrant's voluntary effort to cross a border with a smuggler's help can end with the smuggler holding that migrant against his or her will in the destination country. However, there is a need to more fully examine the impact of stricter immigration policies that may have led to an increased reliance on and demand for professional smugglers and traffickers, thereby contributing to the evolution of more highly organized and sophisticated transnational networks capable of threatening national security interests (Connelly, 2002). Similarly, other articles call for closer examination of the impact of counterterrorism on efforts to combat trafficking (Maki and Park, 2000).

However, recent articles also document the development of promising anti-trafficking activities that address cross-border issues, particularly in the area of identification of victims by officials at border crossings. For example, in Colombia, the Department of Administrative Security has initiated efforts to identify and approach potential trafficking victims in airports; in the Dominican Republic, anti-trafficking networks have been established among diplomats and consulates in countries that are major destinations for Dominican women being trafficked; and several countries of the region have signed bilateral migration agreements with key destination countries that aim to regulate migration, protect workers, and minimize the extent of smuggling of illegal migrants and trafficking in persons (Geronimi, 2004).

Despite these recent efforts, the literature consistently shows that there are few direct assistance, protection, and reintegration programs for trafficked women. This appears to mirror the overall shortage of safe shelters and lack of services (especially in rural and slum communities) for female victims of other forms of violence. There is little discussion of state social services for female violence victims, so it is unclear to what extent these state social services are available for adult female trafficked victims. Mostly, the literature describes prevention, assistance, and protection services provided by NGOs in the region—in particular NGOs that focus on the plight of exploited and vulnerable children. The reviewed works indicate that NGOs combating CSEC have been the most active and effective actors

conducting public education programs and providing victim assistance (mainly health and psychosocial services) and protection for child trafficking victims. Many of these NGOs also document abuses, call upon governments and intergovernmental organizations to support prevention and rehabilitation services, and work to prevent entry into prostitution and reduce children's vulnerability to trafficking by providing school grants and vocational training. The literature reflects that civil society has been particularly active in Brazil; NGOs have been largely responsible for organizing a number of national and regional seminars, elaborating an action plan, conducting public awareness campaigns, conducting research, improving legislation to better prevent and punish sexual crimes, and initiating RECRIA, a database on sexual violence against children (Sprandel, 2002). However, many of the reports noted that few NGOs in the region possess adequate funding or work through collaborative networks; therefore, their capacity to reduce and protect the number of persons trafficked remains limited. With a few exceptions, the reviewed works did not contain many references to the involvement of church and faith-based organizations in combating trafficking. International NGOs that figure prominently in the LAC documents are Casa Alianza, which focuses on street children, and ECPAT (End Child Prostitution, Child Pornography, and Trafficking of Children for Sexual Purposes), which focuses on the sexual exploitation of children. Casa Alianza and ECPAT have led national and international meetings to fight trafficking in persons and have led large advocacy campaigns that have gained international attention.

The literature review revealed few articles that dealt with possible private/public partnerships to end trafficking and reduce the demand for services of trafficked persons. Most references to partnerships between the public and private sectors referred to successes in Brazil. For example, EMBRATUR, the association of tourism employers, started a campaign in 1997 called "Beware Brazil is Watching." This campaign enlisted tourist agent associations and hotel industry associations to disseminate brochures on the laws relating to sexual tourism in hotels, bars, and boats. In addition, in 2003 the Brazilian government formed a network of private and public sector organizations to assist with victim rehabilitation programs (USAID, 2004). Throughout the region, IPEC has worked with employers' associations to provide vocational education and job placement to adolescents to help prevent their sexual exploitation, and ECPAT has entered into promising partnerships and "codes of conduct" with major tourism companies in Central America to combat sex tourism. Given the renewed attention paid in the literature to the subject of child sex tourism in the region, it appears that more public/private partnerships will develop in the near future.

**ANNEX 1**  
**ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY**



## ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

### 1. TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS FOR COMMERCIAL SEXUAL EXPLOITATION

#### 1.1 Trafficking of Adult Females for Purposes of Sexual Exploitation

**Bibes, Patricia. *The Status of Human Trafficking in Latin America*. 2001.**

This paper explores the development of human trafficking in Latin America. Bibes addresses various forms of trafficking, including prostitution, sexual exploitation of children, mail order brides, and illegal adoption. The author provides analysis regarding the following: countries of origin, transit, and destination; methods of trafficking (illegal visas/documents, smuggling, etc.); links between trafficking in humans and organized criminal networks; similarities between human trafficking in Latin America and other regions throughout the world; the push/pull factors of trafficking, including economic disparity and poverty, abuse and violence in the home, drug addiction, and other forms of trafficking; challenges in combating trafficking, including weak law enforcement and corruption; and steps countries within the region have taken to combat trafficking, including the establishment of hotlines, the creation of databases, and the modification of penal codes.

The paper also provides a case study of Argentina, in which the author explores Argentine links to transnational criminal networks, lack of law enforcement, and corruption. The author argues that in order to combat human trafficking, all forms of trafficking must be addressed, including arms and drug trafficking. Bibes includes a section on legislation and the role of the international community in combating human trafficking in Latin America.

**Chiarotti, Susana. *La Trata de Mujeres: Sus Conexiones y Desconexiones con la Migración y los Derechos Humanos*. Centro Latinoamericano y Caribeño de Demografía (CELADE) - División de Población, Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo (BID). Santiago de Chile, mayo 2003.**

Chiarotti describes the nature of trafficking in the region, explaining that the most active centers for recruitment are Brazil, Suriname, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, and the Antilles. Seventy percent of all persons trafficked into Spain come from Latin America. An estimated 50,000 women from the Dominican Republic are being prostituted in Holland and Germany, and about 3,000 Mexican women are in Japan. Fake adoptions and marriages, including marriage by correspondence, serve as covers for transport of women from Latin America to Europe. In the state of Michoacan, Mexico, women and children are recruited to sell drugs and be prostituted in the United States. Most internal trafficking involves children aged 9–17 from poor regions of the country. Sex tourism amplifies existing demand structures. Chiarotti suspects that women are trafficked to American bases in Latin America, given the occurrence of this phenomenon in South Korea. She states that the complacency and/or complicity of government officials is present in some local and national governments.

Chiarotti argues that the Protocol on Trafficking and anti-trafficking programs place insufficient emphasis on penalizing traffickers. Often, victims are punished for having false documents and are treated as illegal migrants. Traffickers and clients are rarely prosecuted. The article notes that most of the region's national legislations penalize the trafficking of persons significantly less than the trafficking of drugs and arms. Chiarotti states that the ever-more stringent migration restrictions, and the limited opportunities for legal migration, force women to turn to traffickers to get to their destinations.

**Guinn, David E. II, and Elissa Steglich. *In Modern Bondage: Sex Trafficking in the Americas*. International Human Rights Law Institute, DePaul University College of Law. 2003.**

The edited volume contains an extensive research study that assesses the existence of sex trafficking in Central America and the Dominican Republic, surveys existing programs and policies responsive to the problem, and identifies local and regional needs to formulate effective strategies to combat the problem in the region. The research includes documentary research and interviews with government authorities, international organizations, nongovernmental organizations, independent experts, and individuals involved in the trafficking sphere. The authors note that the study grew out of a “paucity of reliable and comprehensive data” available on the trafficking phenomenon in the Latin America and Caribbean region, despite increasing international attention to the subject.<sup>1</sup> Challenges encountered in the collection of accurate data included lack of data from victims (due to factors such as threats, social stigma, policies that criminalize rather than protect victims); rarity of public denunciations of trafficking; corrupt practices that keep trafficking information and crimes hidden; and poor management and coordination of government data. According to the research, consulates and health care providers provided the most reliable and consistent information.

Chapter Three of this volume describes the nature and extent of sex trafficking in the region. The researchers note that throughout the region, government and private practitioners identify the same primary risk factors that make certain persons vulnerable to trafficking: poverty, lack of economic alternatives, dependents (children), illiteracy/minimal education, physical or sexual abuse, family dissolution, homelessness, drug use, and gang affiliation. External factors that contribute to sex trafficking include gender discrimination, objectification of children, ease of migration/weak border controls, globalization policies, public corruption, existence of trafficking networks, and demand for prostitution, stripping, and sex tourism. The most common recruitment strategy is deception/false promises of employment; abduction, gang-related initiation, peer-influenced recruitment, recruitment by a family member, and marriage fraud are less common. The authors found limited information about traffickers and state that their *modus operandi* suggests that small and large criminal organizations largely contribute to trafficking, but do not control the market.

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<sup>1</sup> See Chapter One, A Project in the Americas, page 13.



Regarding trafficking routes, trafficking activity was detected at all levels and moves from poorer areas to areas that are relatively prosperous. Detection of internal trafficking routes in the region is more difficult than cross-border trafficking. Conditions of trafficked victims include debt bondage, restriction of movement, threats and use of force, and forced drug use; physical and emotional implications are briefly addressed.

**Hughes, Donna, Laura Joy Sporcic, Nadine Z. Mendelsohn, and Vanessa Chirgwin. *The Factbook on Global Sexual Exploitation. Coalition Against Trafficking in Women (CATW). 1999.***

The Coalition Against Trafficking in Women has compiled a factbook of country-based information on prostitution, pornography, sex tourism, sexual exploitation, and violence, with information on health and well-being, policy and law, and official corruption and collaboration. Regarding Latin America and the Caribbean, this report includes data and analysis on the following countries: Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Honduras, Suriname, and Trinidad and Tobago. The report also includes information for the following South American countries: Argentina, Brazil, Columbia, and Venezuela. The report includes figures and statistics related to trafficking in Latin America and the Caribbean such as:

- Five percent of the child population seen in Casa Alianza/Covenant House Latin America is infected with HIV as a result of childhood prostitution and sexual abuse.<sup>2</sup>
- There are 50,000 women from the Dominican Republic overseas in the sex industry—the fourth highest number in the world, after Thailand, Brazil, and the Philippines.<sup>3</sup>

**International Organization for Migration (IOM). *Trafficking in Women from the Dominican Republic for Sexual Exploitation. Geneva. 1996.***

This report provides an overview of trafficking in women from the Dominican Republic, with discussion of the trafficking process, routes and destination countries, responses by countries of origin and destination, and information regarding return of victims. The report notes that Dominican communities have seen a gender role reversal over the past decade with the feminization of migration, as women leave and send money back to their husbands, fathers, or boyfriends. Factors that have facilitated trafficking in the Dominican Republic are the lack of alternatives for women's employment, increasing sex tourism, girls becoming mothers at a young age and needing to send money home for their children, an active local market for the falsification of identity papers, and weak document controls on exiting the country. It is estimated that 10 percent of the 500–600 Dominicans who enter the Netherlands with visas are entering for prostitution. In response to this problem, the General Directorate for Migration in the Dominican Republic has created a list of foreign traffickers.

<sup>2</sup> See introduction to Latin America and Central America.

<sup>3</sup> See section on Dominican Republic.

**IOM. “New IOM Figures on the Global Scale of Trafficking.” *Trafficking in Migrants* 23. April 2001.**

IOM conducted a quick study to collect basic statistics on trafficking from sources that included trafficked persons. IOM found that there are many fewer data available in Latin America than elsewhere in the world. IOM estimates that as many as 10 women are trafficked each day out of Colombia. As the war worsens, the pool of people vulnerable to trafficking increases in line with rising levels of desperation to leave the country. IOM has assisted women through its Global Fund for Victims of Trafficking.

**Kelly, Elizabeth. *Journeys of Jeopardy: A Review of Research on Trafficking in Women and Children in Europe*. IOM. November 2002.**

Although this report primarily focuses on trafficking of women in Southeastern Europe, there is mention of women trafficked from Latin America, Asia, and Africa to Europe. The author notes that increasing numbers of women from Spanish-speaking Latin America are being trafficked to Spain and that traffickers in Latin America frequently traffic to Europe women who were previously exploited in Latin America. The article points out that there is a dearth of information and research regarding the profiles and organization of traffickers themselves.

**Landesman, Peter. “The Girls Next Door.” *New York Times Magazine*. January 25, 2004.**

This article describes trafficking of girls and young women from Eastern Europe and Russia into Mexico en route to the United States. He also discusses how Mexican girls are trafficked to the United States. Girls and women enter prostitution through abduction, trickery, or false promises of legitimate work abroad, and are subsequently abused and silenced so that they do not escape. Poor conditions for victims allow traffickers to maintain very low operating costs. The criminal networks that profit from the trafficking of these women and girls often work in some degree of collaboration with law enforcement officials. The article notes that Internet technology has led to a rise in live-broadcast child pornography through Webcams, and although law enforcement authorities state that they cannot locate victims, clients do not appear to have difficulty locating prospective victims.

**Leal, Maria Lúcia, and Maria de Fátima Leal (eds.). *Study on Trafficking in Women, Children, and Adolescents for Commercial Sexual Exploitation in Brazil*. CECRIA. 2003.**

This study examines the phenomenon of both intrastate and interstate trafficking of Brazilian women, girls, and adolescents for the purpose of sexual exploitation. The study examines the profiles of victims and traffickers. Of the female trafficking victims studied, 53 percent were women and 47 percent were adolescents. In Brazil, trafficking for sexual purposes is

predominantly of Afro-Brazilian women and adolescents between 15 and 25 years of age. The largest percentage of trafficked females are between 15 and 17. The women are generally trafficked to Europe (Spain being the primary country of destination), and the adolescent girls are often trafficked within Brazil. The report notes that the North and Northeast regions of Brazil have the highest number of routes of trafficking in women and adolescents, nationally and internationally, followed by the Southeast, Central-West, and South regions.

Most of the trafficked women and girls have low levels of education, and many have experienced violence at home. The research shows that the trafficked women and adolescents usually have already suffered some kind of violence in the family (sexual abuse, rape, abandonment, etc.) as well as having suffered violence outside of the family. Early pregnancy and drug abuse are also listed among key root causes for vulnerability to trafficking; many victims of trafficking are single mothers. The study reports that the majority of recruiters are male (59 percent); female recruiters are usually between 20 and 35 years old. The report also notes the use of technology in trafficking networks and explores the various types of networks, including entertainment networks, fashion market networks, employment agency networks, marriage agency networks, sex telemarketing networks, tourism industry networks, and networks for recruitment for infrastructure and development projects (agriculture, highway construction, etc.).

The report provides detailed case studies of victims of trafficking, including victim profiles and accounts. The study also provides recommendations to socially and legally combat the trafficking of women, children and adolescents for the purpose of sexual exploitation, including recommendations to change Brazilian legislation.

**Marcovici, Karen. *The UNGASS, Gender and Women's Vulnerability to HIV/AIDS in Latin America and the Caribbean*. Pan-American Health Organization. 2002.**

This report includes sections on sex tourism and trafficking for sexual exploitation. Marcovici notes that Colombia ranks third in the world in number of trafficked women, and approximately 35,000 women a year leave Colombia through Ecuador and are then recruited as prostitutes in Asia and Europe. The report differentiates between three basic categories of women trafficked for sexual exploitation: those who are trafficked with their consent and full knowledge of their engagement in prostitution, those who are duped into believing they will engage in domestic or manufacturing work but who are forced into prostitution, and those who are kidnapped and trafficked. The report argues that girls are far more likely to be coerced or enticed than are boys, and girls are usually duped by someone older, stronger, and richer. Indications of a high rate of child sex tourism are also included in the report.

**Molina, Fanny Polonia. *El Trafico de Mujeres en America Latina*. ALAI, America Latina en Movimiento. 1995.**

This overview of trafficking in Latin America focuses mainly on trafficking from Latin America to Europe, in particular to Spain, Greece, Germany, Belgium, and Holland. While most of the girls trafficked internally (i.e., within their home countries in Latin America) come from poor areas, those trafficked internationally (i.e., usually to Europe and the United States) are from poor to middle-class families. Also, girls are more likely to be trafficked within their countries of origin, and most of the females trafficked internationally are over the age of 18, probably because it is easier to obtain travel documents for adults.

Molina states that centers of trafficking are northern Brazil, central and southeastern Colombia, and the Dominican Republic, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Surinam and the Antilles are used to transit women on their way to Europe. Whereas in the past, foreigners were used to recruit women, nationals are now used because they are less conspicuous and harder to identify. Many of the trafficked women enter their destination legally, using visas or in some cases by marrying their exploiters. Once in a country, women are moved from establishment to establishment, and every three months are moved from country to country. Women are made to pay for all the services that they receive, from health to transport to basic hygiene supplies. In addition, they are taxed for any money they send home. Impunity for traffickers is pervasive, in part because women are silenced through violence, threats to themselves and their families, and the enormous debts they incur.

**Phinney, Alison. *Trafficking of Women and Children for Sexual Exploitation in the Americas; An Introduction to Trafficking in the Americas*. Inter-American Commission of Women of the Organization of American States and the Women, Health, and Development Program of the Pan-American Health Organization. 2001.**

This article provides an overview of sex trafficking of women and children in the Americas. It notes that less is known about the extent of trafficking in the region than in other regions of the world, but that more than 100,000 women and girls are thought to be trafficked in the Americas every year. This includes women attempting to migrate to escape conflict and post-conflict poverty and violence in places like Colombia and Guatemala, as well as tens of thousands of women seeking economic opportunities who are trafficked from Brazil, the Dominican Republic, and elsewhere in the region. In Guatemala, the report notes, “traffickers preyed on young girls raped in the course of armed conflict, whose stigma as rape victims had damaged their marriage prospects.”

The report looks at the economic root causes, the human rights dimensions of trafficking of persons, and the role of official corruption as a contributing factor to traffickers’ real and perceived impunity. It examines the health implications of the industry, including HIV/AIDS concerns, the legal context, and policy efforts to address the trafficking problem in the Americas.

**Richard, Amy O'Neill. *International Trafficking in Women to the United States: A Contemporary Manifestation of Slavery and Organized Crime*. DCI Exceptional Intelligence Analyst Program, An Intelligence Monograph. November 1999.**

Richard interviewed a number of U.S. government officials working against trafficking and reviewed literature to provide an overview of trafficking patterns in the United States. She describes how the women enter, who the traffickers are, profits from the industry, etc. More information is available on women trafficked from Asia and Eastern Europe than on women trafficked from Latin America. From the little information available on Latin America, Richard notes that traffickers from that region use similar routes and means to traffic women for the sex industry as they do to smuggle illegal aliens. She describes cases of Mexican girls as young as 14 being trafficked to California, Florida, New York, and North Carolina. Richard cites the Paoletti case of 1997, in which a criminal ring was caught trafficking more than 1,000 Mexican deaf and mute men and women to New York City to sell trinkets on buses and subways, and the Cuello and Flores cases involving Mexicans trafficked for agricultural slave labor (1999 and 1997, respectively). On the whole, trafficking for labor such as sweatshops and agriculture went unnoticed by authorities much longer than sex trafficking.

**Thomas-Hope, Elizabeth. *Improving Data and Research on Human Trafficking—Human Trafficking in the Caribbean*. Rome. May 27–28, 2004.<sup>4</sup>**

This paper examines human trafficking in the Caribbean, including causes and patterns of trafficking in the region. The author relates economic realities and social trends to demonstrate that trafficking is a complex issue that differs from country to country—and even within one country (such as Jamaica), which might serve as a country of origin, transit, and destination. Jamaica is mentioned several times, and references to St. Lucia, Barbados, and Bahamas are also made. The paper contains a bibliography of documents on human trafficking in the region.

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<sup>4</sup> Annotation adapted from IOM. Annotated Reference List, Caribbean Counter-Trafficking Project. IOM. 2004.

## 1.2 Trafficking of Children for Purposes of Sexual Exploitation

**Azaola, Elena. *La Explotación Sexual de Niños en las Fronteras*. Mexico City, UNICEF. 2001.**

This report examines sexual exploitation of children that takes place on and around the U.S.-Mexico border. According to the report, tighter U.S. migration policies and enforcement strategies put into place in 1994 led to an increase in the number of illegal groups, referred to as “polleros,” that trafficked children and adults across the border. Of 900 reported victims of trafficking between 1996 and 1999, 60 percent were less than 10 years of age. Traffickers use various tactics to lure victims: male traffickers scour the countryside, enticing girls to leave their homes with promises of lucrative work in America; some male traffickers seduce girls and then prostitute them; adult female prostitutes are used to lure young girls into the trade; and children of prostitutes are sometimes inducted into prostitution by their mothers or siblings. Much of the underage prostitution in the frontier towns in Mexico services the demands of North Americans, Asians, and Mexican-Americans, who often cross the border on weekends for the express purpose of buying sex or making child pornography. Ciudad Juarez is mentioned as one of the most notorious sites for sexual exploitation. Physical abuse, death threats to girls and their families, and restricted communication with families instill such fear that girls rarely try to escape or speak out. These tactics result in underreporting of the problem, which leads to insufficient research and action. Moreover, the report found that prejudice leads officials in service institutions to refuse to assist even young victims of prostitution.

Azaola notes that enforcement mechanisms in Mexico are weak. The report states that numerous witnesses have accused the police of taking part in the trafficking of drugs and people; because of the belief that police protect one another, few people are willing to denounce trafficking crimes. Furthermore, inspectors state that they cannot do anything to remove underage girls from prostitution because the girls carry fake documents, making it difficult to prove that they are underage. When raids are carried out, children are usually sent to adult prisons.

**Britos, Jose Gaspar. *Explotación Sexual Comercial de Niñas e Adolescentes*. Paraguay – Ciudad del Este. IPEC. 2002.**

This research study contains primary and secondary information regarding sexual exploitation of children and adolescents in Paraguay. More than 100 children involved in prostitution in Ciudad del Este were directly interviewed for this study. The research also describes the results of a study in 2000 surveying approximately 5,700 women and children working in prostitution between Asuncion and Ciudad del Este. More than 50 percent of the children entered prostitution because they could not find any other employment and 40 percent because they needed to contribute to the family income. Close to 30 percent claim to have entered prostitution on their own, and more than 65 percent were introduced to it by a friend or boyfriend.

Most children entered prostitution between the ages of 13 and 15. The majority of the children were solicited on the streets. Physical and psychological abuse were reported by 45 percent of the children, and 30 percent had been detained by police at some point. Thirty percent had been pregnant and 5 percent knew that they were HIV-positive. Almost all of the children used alcohol and tobacco, and more than half had used drugs. Twenty-six percent gave all or some of their money to their parents. Most of the parents lived more than 200 km from Ciudad del Este and most of the children were living with another family member, usually an aunt or sibling. Most of the girls could read and write. The researchers were not able to elicit any information on traffickers or pimps, although the extreme reticence of anyone to speak out led the author to believe that high-level authorities were involved. At the time of the report, the government had no programs or policies to eradicate child prostitution in Paraguay. Not much seems to have changed except for health services, where the average child involved in prostitution had been to the health clinic within the past two months.

***Covenant House/Casa Alianza. Regional Investigation on Trafficking, Prostitution, Child Pornography and Sex Tourism with Children in Central America and Mexico. 2001.***

This report is the product of a joint effort between ECPAT (End Child Prostitution, Child Pornography, and Trafficking of Children for Sexual Purposes), Casa Alianza/Covenant House Latin America, and the “Audrey Hepburn Children’s Fund.” The report provides case studies of the following countries: Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, Guatemala, Nicaragua, and Mexico. The report bases its analysis on four modalities of commercial sexual exploitation: 1) child prostitution, 2) child pornography, 3) sex tourism, and 4) child trafficking for the purpose of sexual exploitation. In each country study, these four modalities and their relevance/existence in the country is explored. Different countries grapple to varying extents with some or all of these modalities. Costa Rica, for example, is a preferred destination for sex tourists, while the problem of sex tourism in Nicaragua could not be confirmed. The report also explores the unique (although sometimes shared) methods and operations of child sexual exploitation. For example, in some countries, intermediaries (such as pimps, family members, brothel owners, taxi drivers) were used to negotiate sex with prostitutes, while in other countries (Nicaragua), the use of intermediaries was virtually nonexistent. The report also explores the institutional, legal, and judicial responses to commercial sexual exploitation of children (CSEC) in each country and offers recommendation on how to move forward to combat the problem.

Several regional trends can be identified throughout the report. Migration plays a large part in CSEC, and it takes on various forms. Migration within countries exists as does migration between countries, and many children and adolescents fall victim to traffickers as they become entangled in the migration process from their home countries to the United States, which is their ultimate, albeit distant goal. Many women and children find themselves stranded and particularly vulnerable when they are unable to reach the U.S. border; they have often been robbed, tricked, or raped by their transporters. The connection between drug trafficking and human trafficking was made throughout the report, and there was evidence of

high levels of drug and alcohol abuse (although some countries favor one over the other) among both prostitutes and clients. The study also reports increasing numbers of female exploiters/clients. This is a growing trend in both El Salvador and Costa Rica, where women may live with young boys for a period of time. Reports are also included throughout the report of female intermediaries and traffickers. In Nicaragua, for example, massage parlors are almost exclusively owned by women. In terms of push/pull factors, the report notes low levels of education and high levels of illiteracy; women often make up the largest percentage of those illiterate. Family complicity in commercial sexual exploitation is common; in Mexico, for example, fathers are seen taking their daughters to organized prostitution camps, which is considered by some a good thing because it is easier for girls their first time if their father is with them. A mother selling her daughters into prostitution is also a recurrent theme throughout the report. The report notes that a high percentage of young and adolescent girls are single mothers, and it notes the young age at which many of these girls experience their first sexual encounters. Violence and sexual abuse within the home is also a recurrent theme. The complicity and corruption of the police and officials is a problem throughout the region, and victims are often treated as criminals. The report notes a cultural belief that most prostitutes choose their trade and wish to be prostitutes; they are not often viewed as victims by either officials or society.

In terms of addressing the problem, the report found in all of the countries lack of knowledge and high levels of ignorance regarding CSEC, particularly among police and officials. There is, then, a need for awareness-raising campaigns for officials, police, and the public. It is interesting to note that the media has played a dichotomous role in the region. In some countries (Nicaragua, for example), the media has been a key player in disseminating information and reporting on the problem, but in other countries (Mexico, for example) the media is complicit in the problem via advertising for known exploitative establishments and organizations. In addition to lack of knowledge regarding CSEC, there is also an acute lack of resources both in terms of funding and in terms of human resources. In Costa Rica, for example, police report that they are unable to patrol certain areas because they have no vehicle, and though they have beepers to receive pages, they do not have telephones to return the calls. Addressing lack of resources and gaps in knowledge, the report argues, will be mandatory in tackling the problem of CSEC both within specific countries and on a regional basis.

***Covenant House/Casa Alianza. Trafficking in Children in Latin America and the Caribbean. Undated.***

This report provides a brief overview of the trafficking of children in Latin America and the Caribbean. The report includes estimates of the number of children trafficked throughout the region, the root causes and push/pull factors related to the trafficking of children in Latin America and the Caribbean, and actions taken in terms of prevention, protection, and prosecution. According to the report, UNICEF estimates that between 1,000 and 1,500 children are trafficked through illegal adoptions each year from Guatemala; a local Honduran nongovernmental organization (NGO) estimates that more than 500 children disappeared



from Honduras in 2000; ECPAT estimates that more than 50,000 women participate in the Dominican Republic's sex industry each year; and in El Salvador, more than 206 persons were found to be involved in the trafficking of children between 1998 and 2000, 43 of them women. The report identifies key origin, transit, and destination countries within the region. It concludes with a specific case study of illegal adoptions in Guatemala, which the report identifies as the "fourth largest 'exporter' of children worldwide." The report also provides maps of trafficking routes within the region.

**Davidson, Julia O'Connell, and Jacqueline Sanchez Taylor. *Child Prostitution and Sex Tourism: Venezuela*. 1996.**

This report is part of a series of research papers written as background documents for the World Congress Against the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children, August 1996. This case study explores child prostitution and sex tourism in Venezuela based on the authors' interviews. The report describes the various forms of commercial sexual exploitation taking place in Venezuela and examines the identity, motivations, and attitudes of foreign sex exploiters in the country. According to an earlier UNICEF report, approximately 40,000 children in Venezuela were involved in prostitution in 1995. The report states that legislation on prostitution in Venezuela aims to regulate rather than outlaw prostitution of adults, but in practice regulation is absent. Brothels, especially those in isolated mining regions, often use child prostitutes (many of whom are migrants from Colombia) and children are prostituted in truck stops and cheaper brothels in major cities. However, the authors also found evidence that children are being prostituted by escort agencies that cater to demand from wealthier clients. Escort agency owners are known to recruit young women and children in poorer villages, and these persons can be effectively debt-bonded to the recruiters in order to pay costs associated with transportation, clothing, etc. Women and children who illegally migrated to Venezuela from neighboring countries are vulnerable to similar threats and control, pressing them into prostitution.

The report finds that in Venezuela, like the Dominican Republic and Cuba, the informal sector of prostitution is developing in response to tourist demand and as a site of child sexual exploitation. Underage prostitutes work in the unregulated/informal sector because there is less risk of being picked up by the police. Orphaned or abandoned children are especially vulnerable to exploitation and abuse. Most prostituted women and children are exploited by migrant workers, miners, sailors, and local men, but the fastest-growing segment of demand for commercial sex in Venezuela comes from foreign tourists. The authors examine the profiles and psychosocial characteristics of sex exploiters in Venezuela, and conclude that the demand for child prostitutes could be affected by a swift shift in focus of law enforcement toward prosecuting sex exploiters of children.

**Davidson, Julia O'Connell, and Jacqueline Sanchez Taylor. *Child Prostitution and Sex Tourism: Costa Rica. 1996.***

This report is part of a series of research papers written as background documents for the World Congress Against the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children, August 1996. This case study explores child prostitution and sex tourism in Costa Rica based on the authors' interviews. The report describes the various forms of commercial sexual exploitation taking place in Costa Rica and examines the identity, motivations, and attitudes of foreign sex exploiters in the country. The report states that although the government highlights development of ecotourism, Costa Rica actually hosts large numbers of sex tourists. The authors note that statistics explain why many Costa Rican women and children are so vulnerable to this form of exploitation: in addition to the 10 percent absolute poverty rate in the country, 40 percent of female adolescents do not attend school and 28 percent of youths between the ages of 12 and 19 work as domestics for below-poverty-level wages.

The report found that sexual exploitation in Costa Rica is arranged in a number of different ways: independent prostitution in a variety of settings, third-party organized prostitution, and sexual abuse of domestic servants. The main factors pushing women and children into prostitution are poverty, drug addiction, absence of alternative means of subsistence, and coercion by parents, husbands, drug suppliers, or employers. The main types of demand are local demand, sailors, expatriates (mostly from North America), and tourists. The report found that the exploiters and sex tourists come mainly from societies with strong prohibitions against adult-child sex, they exploit poverty-ridden and drug-addicted children, they feel safe from legal action against them in Costa Rica, and they consider girls over the age of 13 to be sexual adults.

**Davidson, Julia O'Connell, and Jacqueline Sanchez Taylor. *Child Prostitution and Sex Tourism: Dominican Republic. 1996.***

This report is part of a series of research papers written as background documents for the World Congress Against the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children, August 1996. This case study explores child prostitution and sex tourism in the Dominican Republic based on the authors' interviews. This report describes the various forms of commercial sexual exploitation taking place in the Dominican Republic and examines the identity, motivations, and attitudes of foreign sex exploiters in the country. The report addresses the social and economic factors contributing to the sexual exploitation of children (as well as men and women) in the Dominican Republic, including land reform policies, sexism, racism, low levels of education (especially for girls), and the push by both the government of the Dominican Republic and the international community to develop the tourist industry. The authors also note the high levels of physical and sexual abuse rife in Dominican society. In addition, a large percentage of female prostitutes are young mothers solely responsible for the care of their child/children; the authors report that the percentage of households headed by women rose from 9.5 percent in 1970 to 29.5 percent by 1991. According to a UNICEF

report from 1994, at least 250,000 children were involved in the sex trade in the Dominican Republic. Of these, 63 percent were girls.

The authors address different forms of prostitution in the Dominican Republic, including both formal and informal forms. The report concludes that the informal sector, in which most children operate, is the fastest-growing form of prostitution. The authors include research regarding independent male prostitution, noting the differences between female and male prostitutes, including their bases of operation and their levels of power/control over their situations. The report also notes the presence of Haitian prostitutes working in the informal sector in the Dominican Republic. The report includes several interviews with male sex tourists visiting the Dominican Republic; most of the tourists were repeat visitors. The majority of sex tourists are from Germany (60 percent), and the rest come primarily from North America, Italy, Britain, and other Northern European countries. Many of the men interviewed had either knowingly or unknowingly engaged in commercial sex with minors. The report found a high incidence of heavy drinking among prostitutes, which the authors noted is a marked difference from the situation in Cuba, where few women or girls drink heavily.

**Domínguez, Liza. *Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children and Adolescents: El Salvador*. Casa Alianza/Covenant House. 2004.**

This report covers much of the information included in the regional study provided in Casa Alianza's 2001 report. The report is based upon the framework of four modalities of commercial sexual exploitation: 1) child prostitution, 2) child pornography, 3) sex tourism, and 4) child trafficking for the purpose of sexual exploitation. This study is based on interviews with both females and males. The author pays particular attention to the social and cultural roots of the commercial sexual exploitation of children/minors in El Salvador, noting strong imbalances of dominion and oppression as well as imposition of domination by adults, which in the case of El Salvador, are firmly rooted in society. El Salvadoran society also tends to make females responsible for commercial sexual exploitation and severely stigmatizes victims. Men's sexuality, however, is seen as an instinctive desire beyond their control. The society is dichotomous for women in that it values the virgin and demands the prostitute. Most of El Salvadoran society tolerates CSEC in spite of existing laws forbidding it, and commercial sex is actually viewed as a rite of passage into "manhood." A father may buy a son's first experience with a prostitute, or his friends may purchase the services for him. The author argues that El Salvadoran society promotes a sense of property over women, and women who lack men to "protect" them are often vulnerable to abuses from men within society. It is noted by the author, too, that this "protection" often extends to incest. In El Salvador, once a girl reaches puberty, which can be at the age of 12 or 13, she is considered "available" to men. Also, once a woman has borne a child, she is considered an adult, even if she is 12 or 13. The author lists rapid urbanization, increasing migration, and income disparity as other root causes or factors in the commercial sexual exploitation of children in El Salvador.

The study found that most female victims were between the ages of 16 and 18, and most were either illiterate or had only received up to a third grade education. The reasons girls are pushed into prostitution include economic crisis and family violence. Most children were introduced into prostitution by a person they trusted, including friends and family members. Most children work in closed establishments (bars, coffee shops, or cafes). Most of the children interviewed consume alcohol while working, and some use drugs.

The report also includes specific regional studies of CSEC throughout El Salvador. The author also pays particular attention to the use of the Internet in CSEC both in El Salvador and regionally, where it is a particular problem in Costa Rica and less of a factor in Nicaragua.

**Domínquez, Liza. *Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children and Adolescents: Guatemala. Casa Alianza/Covenant House. 2004.***

This report covers much of the information included in the regional study provided in Casa Alianza's 2001 report. The report is based upon the framework of four modalities of commercial sexual exploitation: 1) child prostitution, 2) child pornography, 3) sex tourism, and 4) child trafficking for the purpose of sexual exploitation. This report included the study of only female victims. The report addresses the root causes of child prostitution and sexual exploitation, including economic conditions/crisis, violence and sexual abuse in the home (which often results in children ending up on the streets), and the disintegration of the family (which makes children particularly vulnerable to exploitation, drug abuse, and juvenile delinquency). The author argues that the problem of CSEC lies with the irresponsibility of many parents (p. 14). The report notes that most exploiters of children are locals.

The report also notes the absence of sexual education and lack of societal awareness of CSEC. It makes reference to the growing number of female exploiters of children, both in the role of clients and as intermediaries/traffickers. It is noted that the government of Guatemala has no specific policy to combat prostitution, and the crime of trafficking is not specifically addressed in Guatemalan law. In terms of profiles of victims, many are young, adolescent mothers. The majority of women have received only primary education, though more than one-third of the women have received no education at all. Most of the women are Guatemalan (68 percent), and of these, more than 80 percent are ethnically mixed. Most of the women interviewed lived in the bars/brothels in which they work. Ethnic populations are considered quite vulnerable due to the fact that prevention and training programs are not available in their languages. Very few women mentioned posing nude or taking drugs. The conditions both within and surrounding most brothels are quite bad. Most brothels are found in special "zones" catering to the buying and selling of sex, and most of the buildings in which women live are quite basic and have poor hygienic conditions. It is reported that alcoholic men drinking rubbing alcohol and water are frequently found loitering within these zones, and young women can also be found hanging around the brothels looking for work. The risk of abuse for prostitutes is quite high.

This report, unlike its regional counterpart, provides interviews with institutional actors including NGO workers/program directors, professors, nuns, psychologists, members of the health services, and officials. The report also offers analysis of legal and judicial responses.

**Dunn, Leith. *Jamaica. Situation of Children in Prostitution: A Rapid Assessment. 2001.***

This rapid assessment provides a categorization of different forms of child prostitution in Jamaica, a superficial analysis of the causes, and a set of recommendations. Dunn states that 45 percent of the population lives in single, female-headed households. Sex tourism, particularly related to U.S. university spring breaks, appears to account for a significant amount of exploitation. Unlike in other settings, the male sex industry is highly visible. Street children are the poorest and most vulnerable children identified. Some children are supported by adults, while others work in brothels, massage parlors, and go-go clubs. Pornography and sacrificial sex for satanic rites are also mentioned, although little evidence is provided. Most children involved in prostitution maintain relationships with their families. The study does not find children who were physically forced into prostitution and does not explore trafficking networks other than a passing mention of adult-organized child sex in Montego Bay.

**ECOSOC (United Nations Economic and Social Council). *Report of the Special Rapporteur on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography, Ms. Ofelia Caljetas-Santos. Addendum. Report on the Mission to Guatemala. Commission on Human Rights. Fifty-sixth session. January 27, 2000.***

The Special Rapporteur spent two weeks in July 1999 in Guatemala, where she met with a number of government officials, international organizations, NGOs, police, lawyers, and others to ascertain the situation of children in Guatemala. Her most notable finding was the extensive network for the trafficking of children for adoption. Guatemala is the fourth largest exporter of babies worldwide. The report describes how women are tricked, paid, robbed of their children, told that their newborns are very ill, or otherwise enticed or forced to abandon their children, or to produce children for this purpose, to the lawyers and intermediaries who sell children to American and European adoptive parents. The report states that collusion and corruption of government officials, lawyers, judges, doctors, and midwives, all of whom profit from the sale, combined with weak protective laws, facilitate the export of children as merchandise.

Commercial sexual exploitation of children is also of concern in Guatemala, where girls are prostituted mostly to transient workers. In one town, mothers take their 8- to 12-year-old daughters to sell their services to prisoners. One sign of progress was the imminent adoption of The Children's and Adolescents' Code.

**Global March. *Worst Forms of Child Labour Data: Argentina. Undated.***

This report, providing information and statistics related to child labor in Argentina, states that women are trafficked to Argentina via rings of alien smugglers in the Dominican Republic. Argentinean women are also trafficked to Italy as “call girls.” Numbers of children engaging in prostitution are increasing, and their average age is decreasing. Argentina’s sex tourism sector is thriving, with a well-documented child sex trade, and Argentina serves as a top destination for pedophiles from Europe and the United States. A UNICEF study cited in this report speculates that there are some 30,000 street children living in urban areas.

**Global March. *Worst Forms of Child Labour Data: Ecuador. Undated.***

Providing statistics and general notes and observations regarding child labor in Ecuador, this report notes that children aged 8–11 years are working 40 hours a week, and lack of prohibition on child labor means that hundreds of children are working in the street. The report notes that children are being trafficked from Ecuador to Venezuela and work in slave-like conditions as street vendors, domestic workers, and prostitutes. These children are abducted, sold by their parents, or deceived with false promises. The Spanish government also reported the existence of an organized network exploiting foreign minors, particularly those from Ecuador. The report also notes that the second largest migrant group of women in prostitution in Germany is from Latin America, mostly from the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Colombia, Venezuela, and Brazil. In terms of child sexual exploitation within the country, there are instances of prostitution of girls under the age of 18 in Ecuador, and Ecuador has a well-documented child sex trade, including a thriving sex tourism sector.

**Global March. *Worst Forms of Child Labour Data: Guyana. Undated.***

This report, providing information and statistics related to child labor in Guyana, states that trafficking in children for sexual purposes is a growing problem. Cases of trafficking in female adolescents aged 14 and 16 years old have been reported by local NGOs. The most frequent form of commercial sexual exploitation is child prostitution, which the report links to tourism. Teenage girls providing sexual favors in exchange for money in Guyana has been reported by the U.S. Department of State.

**Global March. *Worst Forms of Child Labour Data: Honduras. Undated.***

Providing statistics and general notes and observations regarding child labor in Honduras, this report notes the smuggling of children overland into Canada for a professional drug ring as indentured drug dealers. The report provides general statistics related to the number of children who are economically active in Honduras, noting that child labor is primarily concentrated in the agricultural sector. Children are also trafficked as prostitutes both to North America and within the region. Girls are deceived with job offers and scholarships and

are then sold to brothels by organized crime syndicates. In 2000 the Honduran government worked with the Mexican government to repatriate approximately 400 Hondurans who had been trafficked to Mexico for purposes of sexual exploitation. Of the thousands of street children in Tegucigalpa and San Pedro Sula, approximately 40 percent are regularly engaged in prostitution. Child prostitution is reported to be increasing.

**Global March. *Worst Forms of Child Labour Data: Jamaica. Undated.***

This report provides statistics related to child labor in Jamaica, including child trafficking. The report notes that there are few data regarding the trafficking of children for sexual purposes, but child prostitution has been identified as a significant problem by ECPAT, particularly in tourist areas. The report notes that children often engage in prostitution to support families, and girls as young as 12 and boys as young as 9 are involved in sex tourism. There have been reports of young girls from particularly poor areas engaging in sex in exchange for food and school fees.

**Global March. *Worst Forms of Child Labour Data: Paraguay. Undated.***

This report, providing information and statistics related to child labor in Paraguay, states that according to Public Ministry reports, 26,000 children work in urban areas as prostitutes or street vendors. In a study of the city of Asunción, researchers found that of 2,688 female prostitutes, 65 percent were under the age of 20 and 28 percent were under the age of 16. According to an ECPAT survey, a study conducted in Asunción, Ciudad del Este, Presidente Franco, and Hernandarias counted 619 cases of child victims of commercial sexual exploitation aged between 8 and 18 years.

**Gonzalez de Innocenti, Zoila, and Cinzia Innocenti. *Explotación Sexual Comercial de Niñas y Adolescentes: Una Evaluación Rápida. ILO/IPEC. 2002.***

This rapid assessment of the commercial sexual exploitation of children in El Salvador contains an overview of the legal framework and governmental policies aimed at protecting individuals from exploitation, provides background information on the situation of children in El Salvador, and describes the conditions of sexual exploitation. The research is based on interviews with 94 children in the San Salvador metropolitan area, two-thirds of whom are girls. The study found that it was hard to access children in prostitution, because the pimps hid those under the age of 14 and told those close to 18 to claim that they were 18 (which excluded them from the study). National policies exist to protect both women and children, and a strong legal code adheres to international standards. Both trafficking and child prostitution are outlawed in El Salvador. However, implementation of the standards on both the preventative and rehabilitative sides is sorely lacking. All of the children were from the lower to low middle class and had started being exploited between the ages of 6 and 16. Few

said they joined to add to the family income. Fifty-seven percent of the children interviewed lived with their parents or other relatives, and only 3.2 percent lived on the streets. Almost all of the children come from traditional families where the father is still the provider. Only 5 percent of the children have mothers also working in the sex trade. The study did not find evidence of movement, either from other countries or from the interior. The authors noted, however, that migration from the interior may be moving women and children towards border towns. It was noted that the children earn more (and are able to keep more) in prostitution than they would if they worked in another part of the informal sector. Almost all of the children were literate and well informed and 64 percent report regular condom use (especially the boys).

**Goulet, Liza. *Out from the Shadows: Good Practices in Working with Sexually Exploited Youth in the Americas*. University of Victoria. 2001.**

This booklet is divided into four sections, including an introduction to the problem of sexual exploitation of children and youth in the Americas and a definition of the term *good practices* and the basis for compiling good practices. The first section examines the problem in a global context, describing the current international instruments for combating the sexual exploitation of children and youth. The second section looks at the problem from a child's rights perspective and addresses the economic, cultural, and social aspects of the sexual exploitation of youth. The third section includes case studies and specific examples of good practices in the field, and the fourth section concludes with an overview of best practices and key lessons learned.

In the third section, case studies throughout the Americas include a rehabilitation/reintegration program in Bolivia, a sexually transmitted disease (STD)/AIDS prevention program in the Dominican Republic, an education response program in Mexico City, a program to train and educate adolescent mothers in Chile, and a program to protect and promote children's rights in Peru. Each case study includes programmatic information as well as key insights and lessons learned. Peer counseling and mentoring is an integral part of each program, and key lessons learned include but are not limited to:

- Prevention is a long-term process requiring ongoing support and commitment.
- Protection and services need to be made available to youth on a 24-hour basis.
- Education and awareness are key to both prevention and protection.
- Programs must have built-in assessment components in order to ensure that the projects are on target and meet goals/objectives
- Mentoring is imperative both in prevention and protection, and mentoring must include the child-to-child method, allowing youth to mentor each other.
- The media is a strong tool in disseminating information among the community.
- Legal mechanisms must be in place to hold perpetrators accountable.
- Psychological support is necessary, particularly in building self-esteem among youth.



The report emphasizes empowering youth to help themselves by providing them with necessary and useful information and by including them in the decision-making process in regard to their own future, health, and well-being.

**International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour/International Labour Organization (IPEC/ILO). IPEC Country Profile: El Salvador. Undated.**

El Salvador is part of IPEC's Time Bound Program, whereby a government is provided with three years of technical assistance and financial support toward the elimination of the worst forms of child labor. The *Country Profile* provides basic information on the country, its socioeconomic situation, government policy towards child labor, factors contributing to child labor, and the sectors associated with child labor. According to a rapid assessment conducted in El Salvador, 80 percent of child victims of prostitution are girls between 10 and 18 years old, living in San Salvador. Gender discrimination and poverty make girls vulnerable to prostitution, which in turn increases their likelihood of abusing drugs. A national campaign to raise awareness and mobilize action against the worst forms of child labor was planned.

***IPEC/ILO. Programa de Prevención y Eliminación de la Explotación Sexual Comercial de Niñas, Niños y Adolescents in la Frontera Paraguay-Brasil. 2002 or 2003.***

This paper describes IPEC's program on the prevention and elimination of commercial sexual exploitation of children and adolescents on the Brazil/Paraguay border. The foci of prostitution of children are around the Bridge of Friendship and near the Paraguayan and Brazilian border patrols. Boys and girls between 8 and 18 are involved. Seventy percent live with their families and work to earn money for themselves or their families, 85 percent were inducted by friends or boyfriends, and 80 percent would like to change their lives. On the Brazilian side, 65 percent still go to school, whereas on the Paraguayan side, only 12 percent do. No evidence of punishment of exploiters was found. Laws are needed to prohibit placement of advertisements in the mass media seeking children to work in the sex industry. Local committees bringing together private and public institutions were formed in Ciudad de Este, Foz d'Iguacu, and Puerto d'Iguazu.

***The Jamaica Observer. "Child Prostitution Widespread in Jamaica." July 21, 2002.***

Based upon an ILO study of the worst forms of child labor (2000), this article reports that children as young as 10 and 11 years old are engaging in prostitution in Jamaica. The article states that most of these children are girls, but some boys are included in the nine categories of children engaging in commercial sex, including street children (mostly boys) between the ages of 12 and 18; children in formal prostitution who are treated as adults; children in seasonal prostitution (15–18 years); go-go dancers (13–18 years); massage parlor workers (15–18 years/female); "sugar daddy" girls; "chapses" (teenage boys having sexual

relationships with older women who provide economic support and access to education); children used in pornographic productions; and children used in sacrificial sex (though this could not be verified by researchers). Of the 269 persons consulted during the study, 129 were children. Aside from bars, massage parlors, go-go clubs, and brothels, children were found soliciting in shopping malls, food courts, fast food restaurants, and cruise ship ports and along beaches. Some of the girls interviewed operated from their homes, and several girls reported being pimped by their mothers. The study found instances in which girls were exchanging sex for food. In terms of root causes of child sexual exploitation/prostitution the study included the following: economic poverty and lack of opportunity; poor parenting; poor family values; peer pressure; early sexual exposure; fear of people in power within the community (which make some women allow the exploitation of their children); ascribing adult roles to children; limited education and low literacy; undetected learning disabilities; newspaper advertisements with little monitoring; untreated psychological problems; weak monitoring of laws and existence of legal loopholes; and children searching for love, comfort, belonging, and security.

**Lopes, Janicleide, and Tania Stoltz. *Exploracao Sexual Commercial de Crianças e Adolescentes. Brasil – Foz do Iguacu. Rapid Assessment. April 2002.***

This study describes the sexual exploitation of children and adolescents in Foz do Iguacu. The research was conducted in early 2002, during which time 27 key informers, 21 families, and 60 children were interviewed in a city where most researchers have been intimidated by threats from traffickers. The paper describes the context of commercially sexually exploited children's lives and explains what makes them vulnerable to exploitation. The paper provides a strong overview of Brazil's national efforts and legislation against CSEC, and lists the NGOs in Foz do Iguacu with an analysis of their work. Lopes and Stoltz make recommendations for moving forward.

**Oliveira de, Selma B. *Child Prostitution on the Rise in Brazil. International Child Resource Institute (ICRI). October 17, 1995.***

This article concludes that the prostitution of young girls in Brazil is due to years of economic recession and the low status of women in Brazil. Using statistics from the Brazilian Center for Childhood and Adolescence (CBIA), the author notes that estimates put the number of girls working as prostitutes in Brazil at 500,000, with some of them as young as nine years old. The author also addresses the growth of the tourist industry and argues that it has contributed to prostitution among young girls. Examples of young girls servicing sailors are provided, as are reports of agencies sending photos of young girls to European countries for tourists to peruse before trips to Brazil. It is also noted that minimum wage in Brazil is (at the time of writing) \$80/month, while a girl might be able to make \$200 for a night with a sailor. An NGO worker in Brazil noted that most of these girls can barely read and write. According to the article, girls are held in the country under debt bondage, and often contract diseases that only add to their debt. The article addresses the difficulty of escape from

isolated places in which girls are bonded labor. According to the author, police brutality against prostitutes is also a problem; many officers themselves rape the girls. The author addresses issues of low self-esteem among girls engaged in prostitution and societal attitudes contributing to such feelings.

**The Protection Project. *A Human Rights Report on Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children: Argentina. March 2002.***

This report provides statistics and an explanation of the problem of trafficking in Argentina, including data related to the commercial sexual exploitation of children. The report notes that Argentina is a country of both origin and destination. The report notes large numbers of children traveling to Argentina under suspicious circumstances (i.e., questions regarding parents' economic means to send children abroad given their own lines of work, including as brick layers and housekeepers). The report estimates that in 1996, 500,000 girls under the age of 16 were engaged in prostitution in the northeast states of Argentina, where sex tourism was on the rise. The report also notes a decrease in the age of girl prostitutes, from 14 to 12 years old, which the report attributes to increasing client demand for younger children. The report also addresses criminalization and penalties for trafficking and prostitution in Argentina, which include the prohibition of prostitution, of promoting or facilitating prostitution, of facilitating the entry or exit of a woman or a minor from the country for the purpose of prostitution, and of procuring a minor for prostitution. The report also includes a list of international conventions ratified by Argentina as well as a list of those still not ratified.

**The Protection Project. *A Human Rights Report on Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children: Ecuador. March 2002.***

This report provides statistics and an explanation of the problem of trafficking in Ecuador, including data related to the commercial sexual exploitation of children. The report notes that Ecuador is a country of origin and destination for the trafficking of children for the purpose of sexual exploitation. Trafficking within the country is also a problem. According to the report, 6,000 boys and girls between the ages of 10 and 15 are now in prostitution in Quito and Guayaquil. The report lists poverty, homelessness, family violence, and an emerging sex market as root causes. The report also includes a list of international conventions ratified by Ecuador as well as a list of those still not ratified, and the report notes that prostitution is illegal in Ecuador.

**The Protection Project. *A Human Rights Report on Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children: Jamaica. March 2002.***

This report addresses human trafficking in Jamaica, noting that Jamaica is a transit country for trafficking of women and children in the Latin American region. The report concludes

that the trafficking of Latin American women is widespread, and most of the young women involved in prostitution are forced into it. The report notes that in Jamaica, prostitution is becoming increasingly widespread, and women are trafficked from all over Latin America to service the growing number of sex tourists. The report also addresses increases in HIV/AIDS, particularly among children. The report lists the growth of the sex tourism industry among the contributing factors to this increase in HIV/AIDS percentages among children. The report addresses law and law enforcement dealing with trafficking in Jamaica, noting that prostitution is illegal in the country and that trafficking in women and children is also prohibited. Encouraging a girl under the age of 16 to engage in prostitution is punishable by up to three years' imprisonment. The report also includes a list of international conventions both ratified and still unratified by the Jamaican government.

**The Protection Project. *A Human Rights Report on Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children: Paraguay. March 2002.***

This report lists Paraguay as both an origin and a destination country for women and girls who are trafficked for the purpose of sexual exploitation both to and from other South American countries. The report also notes that girls and women are trafficked to European countries, such as Germany and Italy. According to the report, large percentages of Brazilian girls trafficked to Paraguay are under the age of 18 (65 percent). The report notes that most of these girls' parents were deceived, believing their daughters would be working in restaurants. In the capital city, Ciudad del Este, 65 percent of women engaging in prostitution are under the age of 18; 42 percent of them are younger than 16 years old. The report addresses the push/pull factors contributing to internal trafficking, including rapid rates of urbanization and the desire for improved economic opportunities. The report also addresses the trafficking of minors as "little maids." The report notes that prostitution is illegal in Paraguay, as are trafficking of minors through the use of adoption and the corruption of minors. The report also includes a list of international conventions ratified by Paraguay as well as a list of those still not ratified.

**Sorensen, Bente. *Protecting Children and Adolescents Against Commercial Sexual Exploitation in Central America, Panama and the Dominican Republic. ILO. Undated.***

During 2001, with financing from the U.S. Department of Labor, ILO/IPEC began a regional project in collaboration with Central American countries and the Dominican Republic for the eradication of commercial sexual exploitation of children. Based upon questionnaires, this report provides an overview of the findings of hundreds of interviews with sexually exploited children and adults within the community. The report includes analysis of the adult population's perception of the problem of child sexual exploitation, which Sorensen notes is problematic. Three of every four adults interviewed in each country know of minors being sexually exploited but do nothing to either prevent or stop it from happening. Sorensen refers to a culture of tolerance with respect to child sexual exploitation and notes high levels of violence and abuse within homes. Sorensen concludes that the population in general either

does not perceive adults trading in children for sexual exploitation as criminal or ignores the problem.

The report notes that many young victims come from situations of extreme poverty, that many child prostitutes engage in drug and alcohol abuse, and that many young and adolescent female prostitutes have one or more children of their own. High rates of STDs were also reported among interviewed children, and many have been physically attacked by clients. Sorensen notes the poor health of child prostitutes, many of them with visible scars, skin diseases, and stunted growth, the results of both their experiences at home and their commercial sexual exploitation.

The report also addresses how the problem of commercial sexual exploitation of children is addressed within the region, noting that all countries in the region have ratified international treaties such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child, as well as Convention 182. Challenges remain, however, including a huge lacunae as far as legislation is concerned, the lack of enforcement of laws on sexual exploitation, and a lack of regional cooperation.

**Western Collegiate Model United Nations (WestMUN). *ICC Committee: Case #3.*  
WestMUN XII Conference, April 14–18, 2004.**

As part of a case summary of a prostitution establishment in Brazil, this paper provides an overview of prostitution in Brazil as well as statistics regarding child prostitution/sexual exploitation. Based upon a study conducted by Professor Eva Silveira Faleiros of the University of Brasilia, the paper reveals that 69 percent of the victims of sexual abuse in Brazil are children, and only one-third of victims are not living with their aggressors. A majority of cases show that abuse was perpetrated at home. The paper notes that it is estimated that approximately 500,000 children, mostly girls, are actively exploited in the sex industry each year. The author argues that efforts made by the Brazilian government to combat the problem are largely demonstrative, with little tangible results. The paper notes the trafficking of children from Brazil to Paraguay and Argentina. The paper also links low socioeconomic levels to economic and environmental crisis in Brazil, which creates an environment conducive to the exploitation of children. The author includes reference to the fact that many young girls are sold into prostitution by their families out of economic need, but it is also noted that many of these families are duped or deceived with false stories of legitimate work. The author argues that the “shelf life” of many prostitutes ends when they reach the age of 18. The paper also addresses the link between prostitution in Brazil and fishing areas. The author suggests the International Chamber of Commerce (ICC) step in where the Brazilian government has been unable to combat the problem of child sexual exploitation and trafficking.

**Williams, Sian. *The Mighty Influence of Long Custom and Practice—Sexual Exploitation of Children for Cash and Goods in Jamaica*. A paper prepared for the Symposium on the Rights of the Child and the Caribbean Experience, Barbados March 13–15, 2000. Unpublished.**

This paper details aspects of Jamaican culture that the author believes lead to pervasive sexual exploitation of children. Links are made to the role of sex in the master/slave relationship of the past, whereby a slave woman was forced to view her body as a commodity—the argument being that a break from this mentality has not been made in Jamaica. Williams asserts that this partially explains the lack of widespread condemnation of sexual exploitation of children in Jamaica. Though everyone interviewed agreed that sexual exploitation was a problem, the police have no record of charges filed against such practices. Often families are seen as supportive of children working as prostitutes, as the money brought in from prostitution is greater than the pay for regular jobs (or school).

**Vité, Sylvain. *Rights of the Child in Paraguay: Report on the Implementation of the Convention of the Rights of the Child by the Republic of Paraguay*. World Organization Against Torture (OMCT). As presented at the Committee on the Rights of the Child 28<sup>th</sup> Session, Geneva, September 24–October 12, 2001.**

The report includes a section on the issue of the sexual exploitation of children in Paraguay. The author argues that the number of children who are victims of trafficking for sexual purposes is increasing, and some of them may be as young as eight years of age. Some of the children leave home to escape abuse and violence, which makes them particularly vulnerable targets. The author notes that the government/state's response has been to focus primarily on brothels while ignoring other, informal modes of sexual exploitation that primarily affect street children. Also, the Paraguayan judicial system treats children as offenders, often arresting them but allowing pimps, brothel owners, and pedophiles to escape punishment. The report notes the lack of relevant data and research regarding this issue and appeals to the government of Paraguay for further research.

## **2. CHILD SOLDIERS**

**Alfredson, Lisa. *Sexual Exploitation of Child Soldiers: An Exploration and Analysis of Global Dimensions and Trends*. Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers. 2002.**

This article summarizes a research study in progress on the link between child soldiers and sexual exploitation. It looks at the global dimensions and trends in the sexual exploitation of child soldiers and discusses basic patterns and root causes. According to the author, this is an area that has not been previously researched, and information was drawn from country reports on child soldiers and the few studies that address the issue of girl soldiers.

The report notes that in the Latin America context, girls who voluntarily join armed forces often do not understand the sexual nature of their service prior to enlistment. Also, in Colombia for example, a large number of girls joining armed forces do so in an effort to escape abusive home situations.

Child soldiers are used in 87 countries and girl soldiers in about 49 of these. Between 1990 and 2001, sexual exploitation of child soldiers (boys or girls) was found in 17 countries, including Colombia, Honduras, and Peru. The research indicates that sex is the most important determinant of sexual exploitation within the gendered construct of societies. Although the abuse of boys is underreported, it does not appear to reach the same level as that of girls, and the vast majority of perpetrators are male. When sexual abuse does occur, it is also more likely to be in a conflict country and within a nongovernmental group.

The consequences of sexual exploitation need to be addressed through prevention, protection, recovery, and rehabilitation. Understanding the link between child soldiers and sexual exploitation is necessary to address these needs through appropriate recovery programs and accountability mechanisms.

**Center for Defense Information (CDI). “The Invisible Soldiers: Child Combatants.”**  
*The Defense Monitor XXVI(4)*. 1997.

This article summarizes the increasing use of child combatants by government and rebel forces across the globe, including in Colombia, Ecuador, Guatemala, and Peru. The article reports that children are increasingly being used as combatants, and in many countries the age of child soldiers is below 15. The article addresses recruitment methods of child soldiers, including forcible recruitment (including of children in refugee camps), kidnapping, gangpressing, and voluntary conscription. The report notes, however, that the term voluntary can be misleading, as parents sometimes offer their children because of either poor economic conditions or, in the case of girls, poor marriage prospects. Even if children are not forced into conscription, they are pressured and manipulated both during the recruitment process and during their tenure as combatants.

The article also addresses the different types of work (aside from fighting) performed by child soldiers, including work as cooks, messengers, look outs, and porters. The article reports that girls may be forced to provide sexual services. The physical, emotional, and psychological toll of child soldiering is addressed, and the report notes that children are subject to torture, isolation, rape, and death threats. Health care is a problem for child combatants, and the most frequent injuries suffered include loss of hearing, blindness, and loss of limbs. The report notes that in Guatemala, the primary causes of death and injury of minors were reported to be the explosion of mines placed by guerillas. Children are particularly vulnerable to mines as they serve as advance scouts and mine detectors. The report addresses reintegration and the distortion of moral development of child soldiers, noting that it is difficult for them to relate to society outside of the armed forces such as schools or families.

The article includes an examination of the impact of international law and offers recommendations in its conclusion.

**CDI. *Latin American Conference Addresses Child Soldiers. July 15, 1999.***

Based upon the Latin American and Caribbean Conference on the Use of Children as Soldiers (July 5–8, 1999), this brief report includes the main points of the Montevideo Declaration on the Use of Children as Soldiers. The Declaration urges all Latin American and Caribbean states, as well as the international community, to comply with and support international law regarding the use of child soldiers. The Declaration calls upon the United Nations and international organizations and nongovernmental organizations to provide assistance for countries working to end the conscription of children into armed forces.

**Clark, Christina. *Juvenile Justice and Child Soldiering: Trends, Challenges, Dilemmas.* Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers. 2002.**

This paper is intended to raise awareness and understanding of the criminal justice and accountability issues facing child soldiers and their recruiters. It discusses legal dilemmas regarding criminal responsibility and provides some recommendations for appropriate juvenile justice for child soldiers. The article uses Colombia's internal conflict as an example of disregard for international law (Article 3 of the Geneva Conventions and Article 4(3) of Protocol II) as it applies to the treatment of child soldiers. The recruitment and use of child soldiers under the age of 15 in conflict is a war crime under the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court. Sexual slavery is included as a crime against humanity. However, international law does not address the issue of whether child soldiers should face criminal prosecution for atrocities they may have committed, or be excluded because of their age and situation, and the extent to which criminal liability should be attributed to commanders under the doctrine of superior orders.

The author believes that justice must include prosecution of those who recruit and use child soldiers and that those who fail to prevent child soldiering must also be held accountable. Greater efforts need to be focused on prevention of child soldiering and child soldiers should be viewed primarily as victims of armed conflict. When it is in the interest of justice and the child to hold child soldiers accountable, international juvenile justice standards must be respected. Reintegration efforts should take juvenile justice proceedings—both formal and traditional—into account to address the guilt of the child and the reconciliation needs of the community.



**Easterbrook, M. “From Cradle to Grave.” *Latin American Press*. 2002.**

Examining the reintegration of child soldiers back into civilian life, this article provides an overview of children in combat in Colombia, as well as statistics regarding children in combat worldwide. Noting that child soldiers in Colombia are often recruited from “poor and often abusive families,” Easterbrook explores the factors contributing to the recruitment of the children as well as the reasons behind the children’s departure/escape from the armies. Easterbrook explores the process of reintegration, including the logistical details in providing shelter and counseling to former child soldiers, the responses of the families of these children, and what futures lie ahead for these children.

**Global March. *Worst Forms of Child Labor: Guatemala*. Undated.**

This fact sheet provides national statistics and general notes and observations on the following topics related to child labor in Guatemala: total child labor, child slavery and trafficking, child prostitution and pornography, children in crime, child soldiers, domestic child servants, and other hazardous child labor. The report includes data regarding exploited children living in Guatemala from other parts of Latin America and the Caribbean. The report qualifies Guatemala as a source and transit country for trafficking within the region, noting that most trafficked persons come from other Central American countries and Ecuador.

**Global March. *Worst Forms of Child Labor Data—Latin America and the Caribbean*. Undated.**

This fact sheet provides regional statistics on the following topics related to child labor in Latin America and the Caribbean: total child labor, child prostitution, child soldiers, and domestic child servants. In terms of child soldiers, this brief concludes that the countries most affected by this problem have been Colombia and Peru, although large numbers of children are serving in the Paraguayan armed forces and problems persist in Mexico. Topics for which no data were provided include child slavery, child trafficking, and children in crime.

**Human Rights Watch. “*You’ll Learn Not to Cry*”: *Child Combatants in Colombia*. 2003.**

This report provides a comprehensive view of how Colombia’s illegal armies recruit and use child soldiers. More than 11,000 children fight in Colombia’s armed conflict, one of the highest totals in the world. Both guerrilla and paramilitary forces rely on child combatants, who have committed atrocities and are even made to execute other children who try to desert. At least one in four irregular combatants in Colombia is under 18 and the recruitment of child soldiers is growing. The information came from Human Rights Watch interviews in 2002 with former child soldiers in Colombia.

The report covers child soldiers' recruitment, training, life in ranks, role in combat, and treatment after desertion, capture, or rescue. Its conclusions are urgent and unequivocal: all sides in Colombia's conflict must end the recruitment of children; demobilize children from the armies and militia forces under their control; and, for the children's well-being and safety, hand them over to an appropriate national agency or international humanitarian organization.

The report also includes recommendations for the guerrilla and parliamentary groups, the Colombian government, the U.S. government, the European Union, and the United Nations. The list of recommendations includes suggestions for short-term measures to be taken until all children can be demobilized. An appendix to the report also includes a log of all Human Rights Watch interviews of former child combatants. These interviews serve as the basis for much of the information/analysis provided in the report, such as detailing the daily lives of child combatants, the role of women in the armies, and recruitment methods used to enlist children.

**Human Rights Watch. *Child Soldier Use in 2003: A Briefing for the 4<sup>th</sup> UN Security Council Open Debate on Children and Armed Conflict*. 2004.**

This report documents the status of child soldier use in 17 countries, including Colombia, from information compiled by the Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers. Its introduction states that "throughout 2003, thousands of children were deployed as combatants, to commit abuses against civilians, as sex slaves, forced laborers, messengers, informants, and servants in continuing and newly erupting conflicts. Children were usually used to perform multiple roles, and girls in particular often acted as combatants as well as being sexually exploited." Children as young as 12 are being trained in Colombia in explosives and the Tamil Tigers in Sri Lanka continue their abduction of children. The section devoted to Colombia includes information regarding conscription of soldiers by government forces and nonstate armed groups, as well as information and recommendations regarding demobilization and child protection programs.

The report provides an update on international efforts to address the issue of child soldiers but says little progress has been made. The country reviews also provide information on existing demobilization programs. The report found that girls continue to be overlooked and excluded from these programs.

**IOM. *Support Program for Ex-Combatant Children in Colombia*. 7<sup>th</sup> Quarter Report. October–December 2002.**

This report on a project in Colombia for former child combatants lists the lessons learned during the implementation of the program. They include the following:

- Vocational training had one of the greatest impacts on the immediate future of the youths and facilitated social reintegration;
- Social reintegration needs to start as soon as children enter the program—even before family reunification;
- Educational opportunities are factors of development not only for the youths but for their families and communities;
- Donors need to take into consideration the administrative capacity of local organizations to manage programs (in addition to their technical capacity to implement the programs); and
- Contingency plans to care for children who might be released en masse from irregular armed groups need to be updated regularly.

**Keairns, Yvonne E. *The Voices of Girl Child Soldiers*. Quaker United Nations Office. 2002.**

This study reflects the voices of girl soldiers from four conflict areas: Colombia, Angola, Philippines, and Sri Lanka. Previously, all child soldiers were thought to be male and little was known about girl soldiers. However, girl soldiers must be recognized and have their special needs taken into consideration for disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR) programs. Girls are also used in different ways by armed groups and their DDR needs are directly related to the specific ways in which they are used.

This study found that becoming a child soldier is dependent on the local environment and the personal circumstances of each girl. Poverty is an important factor in girls joining a movement or being abducted. Propaganda by the movement, sexual abuse at home, and the joining of a significant other are factors in girls voluntarily joining a movement.

It also found that not all girl soldiers are sexually abused. In two of the four conflict areas (Colombia and Philippines), the girls felt that their experience provided them with valuable skills, but they did not stay in the movements because of the violent battles. Girls from all conflict areas saw education and training as key to their future. The girls are not searching for ways to retaliate and bring harm to those who used and misused them. They are looking for ways to make a contribution, to do something meaningful and productive with their lives, and to make up for the harm they have delivered upon others.

**McKay, Susan, and Dyan Mazurana. *Girls in Militaries, Paramilitaries, and Armed Opposition Groups*. 2002.**

The purpose of this paper is to expand the discussion of girls in government militaries, paramilitaries, militia, and armed opposition groups by using a gender analytical framework to raise challenges for data collection, policy, practice, and research. It argues that little attention is given to girls: they have been marginalized within peace accords and assistance programs ignore their multiple roles in conflict situations. The authors examined the data on

girls in armed forces and groups from 39 countries and found active recruitment, including the forced abduction or gang pressing of girls, in 65 percent of them. Africa had the highest proportion of girls entering through force or abduction (100 percent) followed by Asia (80 percent), the Americas (50 percent), and Europe (33 percent).

Another finding is that girls performed multiple roles, so a clear distinction of duties, such as “wives,” cooks, or fighters, was not accurate. DDR process reports also lacked data on the inclusion of girls. The paper concludes that one of the biggest challenges is to obtain credible data so that an accurate assessment of girls’ participation and experiences can be made.

**Machel, Graca. *The Impact of Armed Conflict on Children: A Critical Review of Progress Made and Obstacles Encountered in Increasing Protection for War-Affected Children.* United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) and United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). September 2000.**

This report, by the author of the groundbreaking 1996 report to the Secretary General of the United Nations on the impact of armed conflict on children, reviews progress made since then. It examines new achievements and obstacles to the protection of children and makes recommendations to address ongoing problems. The report examines the gender dynamics of conflict and peace building, and argues for specialized training and sensitization on children’s rights and gender. In Chapter Two of the report, entitled “Child Soldiers,” Colombia is included in the list of countries currently conscripting child soldiers, as well as in the list of countries in which exist ongoing negotiations to end the use of child soldiers. Chapter Five of this report addresses gender-based violence and sexual exploitation, including trafficking in the context of conflict, and emphasizes the urgent risk posed by HIV/AIDS.

Machel’s review notes important progress since 1996, including new measures to protect children from military recruitment and to prosecute and punish war crimes against children and women. It also describes the increased importance of and emphasis on education as a key component of humanitarian relief, along with food, health care, and shelter. But serious violations against children continue. The report states that some 300,000 children under 18 are participating in conflicts—in combat, as sex slaves for soldiers, or as porters. At least 20 million children have been displaced in the past decade, and millions were killed by war and war-related conditions.

**UN Wire. *Number of Child Soldiers on the Rise in Latin America.* May 6, 2004.**

This cable contains a statement by UNICEF Regional Director for Latin America and the Caribbean Nils Kastberg that the number of child soldiers in Latin America is on the rise. According to Kastberg, the number of child soldiers being recruited outside of Colombia is also on the rise, particularly in Ecuador and neighboring countries. Kastberg also notes rises

in the exploitation of child labor for purposes of drug trafficking, particularly in Brazil, Colombia, and Peru.

**Verhey, Beth. *The Demobilization and Reintegration of Child Soldiers: El Salvador Case Study*. Undated.**

This case study, based on field work and literature reviews conducted in 1998 and 1999, describes the experiences of child soldiers and advocacy efforts during the 12-year conflict in El Salvador and during the subsequent demobilization and reintegration phase. The author states that despite early civil society advocacy and negotiations, there was little action on behalf of underage combatants. Child soldiers in El Salvador feel bitter about being excluded from the reintegration programs and having their role in the conflict go unacknowledged. The author posits that the experience of child soldiers in El Salvador illustrates the critical importance of political will in specifically including them in the peace process and subsequent reintegration programming.

This case study does not document a specific program for child soldiers. It provides “lessons on prevention, the need for inclusion in demobilization and, with a unique longitudinal view, their reintegration. Lessons from El Salvador emphasize the important balance of both social and economic reintegration. Family reunification and community life are shown to be essential to social reintegration. Towards economic reintegration, child soldiers’ priority needs are income generation and a flexible means of gaining education in order to achieve longer-term self-sufficiency.”

The author asserts that despite chronic poverty and concern with social violence, most former child soldiers in El Salvador are positive about assuming productive roles in civil society, and that positive commitment must be encouraged through improved access to, and benefit from, economic development policies and programs.

**Vité, Sylvain. *Rights of the Child in Paraguay: Report on the Implementation of the Convention of the Rights of the Child by the Republic of Paraguay*. World Organization Against Torture. As presented at the Committee on the Rights of the Child 28<sup>th</sup> Session, Geneva, September 24–October 12, 2001.**

This report addresses the rights of children in Paraguay and details ways in which the government of Paraguay might act to improve and protect those rights. In terms of children in the armed forces, the author notes the practice of underage recruitment of child soldiers, which still occurs in Paraguay despite recommendations of the Committee asking the government to end the practice. According to the report, approximately 80 percent of the conscripts are below the age of 18, and of these, 30.3 percent are 15 or under. The average age at recruitment is no more than 16.4 years of age. The author argues that the underage recruitment of children does not result from a lack of legal provision but from the failure of implementation of domestic legislation (the report goes into detail regarding such

legislation). The author notes as well that much of the underage recruitment occurs under duress, both physical and psychological. The author notes that forced recruitment had decreased over the three years preceding the report but was still a problem. Torture and serious ill-treatment of conscripts has been reported, including the death of child soldiers (due primarily to excessive disciplinary measures and punishments by officials in the armed forces). There are also reports of children from neighboring countries being recruited into the armed forces, including reports of the death of an Argentinean boy whose birth certificate had been changed to claim that he had Paraguayan nationality and that he was of age to serve in the armed forces. The author offers suggestions and recommendations for the government of Paraguay regarding how to address the issue of child soldiers, with particular regard to legal institutions/means.

**Watchlist on Children and Armed Conflict. *Colombia's War on Children*. 2004.**

The report documents the use of children in Colombia's conflict. It discusses issues such as refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs), HIV/AIDS, gender-based violence (GBV), health, and education. It includes sections on trafficking and child soldiers. Colombia has one of the largest numbers of child soldiers—an estimated 11,000–14,000, some as young as seven. Indigenous and Afro-Colombian children are often targeted for recruitment. Although the government no longer recruits or uses child soldiers, guerrilla groups and paramilitaries still recruit children— sometimes through force. Much of the GBV by guerrilla organizations occurs in relation to the forced recruitment of girls into the armed group. Children are regularly killed for acts of disobedience and girls are often sent on missions that require them to have sex with government soldiers in order to get information. A social reintegration program for former child soldiers was started by the government in 1999 and more than 1,000 children have gone through the program so far.

Colombia is also one of the biggest sources of trafficking victims in the Western hemisphere, with an estimated 35,000 to 50,000 women and girls trafficked abroad each year. The increase in trafficking is attributed to the ongoing conflict and massive displacements, as well as to the lack of anti-trafficking legislation.

The report lists recommendations for action for the following:

- Guerrilla and paramilitary groups: end killings and stop recruitment and use of child soldiers, demobilize child soldiers, and stop all gender and sexual violations against girls, including those associated with the fighting forces;
- Government of Colombia: end impunity for abuses against children, stop the use of children in intelligence and propaganda activities, and uphold all applicable international standards for the protection of children in armed conflict; and
- United Nations: condemn all parties recruiting and using child soldiers and take appropriate steps in accordance with the UN charter (such as freezing assets and instituting travel bans) if insufficient progress is made.

### 3. TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS FOR FORCED LABOR

#### 3.1 Domestic Labor

**Colazo, Carmen. *Prevención y Eliminación del Trabajo Infantil Doméstico en Sudamérica. Estudio Temático: Políticas Sociales y Oferta Institucional Frente al Trabajo Infantil Doméstico*. ILO/IPEC. Undated. (after 2002)**

This report on domestic labor in Paraguay provides a legal review of policies and laws against domestic labor, provides a very brief and superficial description of the problem, and identifies the main programs fighting the phenomenon, including within the Paraguayan government. Most of the interviews were held over the phone with institutions working on domestic labor. Colazo states that although policies addressing child labor exist, none is specific to domestic labor. Services are fragmented and adolescents appear to access them only in the gravest of circumstances. Lack of coordination and joint planning plagues progress on the issue. Although a number of UN organizations and NGOs are conducting research on child domestic labor, there is no systematic monitoring of data through referral systems and victim assistance programs. The report notes that judges on children's issues are being trained to recognize and handle cases involving domestic labor.

Colazo states that though the Secretary of Social Action should serve as an advisor to the President's office for the integration of the National Plan for Children, she has not yet done so. There are high expectations for the newly established Secretary of Children and Adolescents in the President's office. The municipal councils for the rights of children (CODENIs) provide a decentralized, although still underutilized, mechanism for reporting abuse. Insufficient training of staff and inadequate public awareness of their existence are the main barriers to increased reporting. IPEC, Global Infancia (which has conducted a situation analysis of child domestic laborers), and Luena Nueva are the main groups providing leadership in the fight against child domestic labor in Paraguay.

**Global March. *Worst Forms of Child Labor: Domestic Child Servants*. Undated.**

This report is a country-by-country list of national statistics regarding the use of child domestic servants. Statistics are gathered from a variety of governmental and nongovernmental organizations from 1996 to 2002. Statistics include data for Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, Uruguay, and Venezuela. According to these statistics, in Argentina 252,000 children under the age of 15 are working, and of these one-third are domestics in urban areas (as of 2000); in Brazil, 20 percent of girls between the ages of 10 and 14 work as domestic servants; and in Chile, in 1992, 28 percent of children between the ages of 12 and 19 were working as domestics.

**Godoy, Oscar. *Trabajo Infantil Domestico: Una Evaluación Rápida*. ILO/IPEC. 2002.**

This rapid assessment of child domestic labor in El Salvador describes the conditions of child domestic workers in Santa Ana, San Miguel, and San Salvador. The conditions are exploitative: the children work long hours, eat little, have no opportunities to go to school, and are often sexually abused by their bosses or their bosses' children. The study does not discuss the circumstances or recruitment methods used to involve the girls in domestic work further than citing their poverty and their parents' lack of economic opportunity. It is, therefore, unclear as to whether or not trafficking networks are involved in transferring children into domestic labor.

**Human Rights Watch. *Hidden in the Home: Abuse of Domestic Workers with Special Visas in the United States*. Vol. 13, No. 2 (G). 2001.**

This report examines the treatment of domestic workers with special visas in the United States, providing case studies of several women including those from Guatemala and Peru. The report examines specific abuses suffered, including physical and psychological abuse. The report includes a specific examination of forced labor, servitude, and trafficking in persons. Government procedures, guidelines, laws, and regulations are also covered, as are U.S. laws and enforcement and international organizations' internal requirements. The report also provides a comparison study of the U.K., and includes recommendations.

**Human Rights Watch. *Child Domestic: The World's Invisible Workers*. A Human Rights Watch Backgrounder. 2004.**

This brief report explores the exploitation of child domestic labor in three regions, including Central America, Indonesia/Malaysia, and West and Central Africa. With regard to the situation in Central America, the report notes that child domestic workers are severely restricted and controlled by employers. Control extends to every facet of their lives, including salary, working hours, what languages are spoken in the home, and freedom of movement outside the home. It is also noted that ethnic minorities, in Guatemala for example, are particularly vulnerable to exploitation. The report provides individual accounts of domestic service exploitation from women throughout Central America, and it includes governmental restrictions to the rights of domestic workers in both Guatemalan and Salvadoran labor codes. The report concludes with a brief list of recommendations for governments, including the establishment of minimum ages for employment; the launching of public information campaigns; ensuring free basic education for children; creating toll-free, confidential hotlines; strengthening/creating enforcement, inspection, and monitoring mechanisms; strengthening law enforcement; and providing care and protection for victims of child exploitation.



**ILO/IPEC. *Helping Hands or Shackled Lives: Understanding Child Domestic Labour and Responses to It. 2004.***

This report begins by defining and contextualizing child labor, including analysis of the push/pull factors contributing to the exploitation of child domestic workers, an exploration into what happens when a child enters domestic service, exploration of how domestic labor can become child trafficking and what can be done to prevent children from entering domestic service, and how to eliminate child domestic labor and trafficking. The report explains that debt bondage, domestic labor, and child labor become even more hazardous when the child enters them in another town or country. This is the situation of trafficked children; where force or coercion is used, or if the child voluntarily enters domestic service that in any way can be considered exploitative, then the child is considered to have been trafficked and the employers are not only exploiters but traffickers according to international law.

The report also provides an exploration of lessons learned and planning for the next steps in combating the exploitation of children for domestic service. The report includes a case study of child labor in Central and South America. It provides specific demographic data regarding child domestic labor, including age, sex, school attendance and reasons for nonattendance, family circumstances, age of entry into domestic service, conditions of work, methods of recruitment, nature of tasks, time spent working each day, nutritional status, incidence of abuse/maltreatment, payment, and use of money received.

Specific countries addressed include El Salvador, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Honduras, and Panama. In the study of El Salvador, for example, 93 percent of children interviewed were girls, 80 of the 110 children surveyed were from urban areas, and most of the children had entered domestic service at the bequest of their parents. In the Costa Rica survey, tasks are broken down according to gender, and fewer boys engage in domestic service as ages increase. In both Costa Rica and the Dominican Republic, many of the children surveyed had access to some form of education while they were domestic servants. In Nicaragua, nearly 90 percent of children surveyed began working as domestic servants at the age of seven. The report notes that conditions vary within the region but some similarities exist, particularly in relation to the role of gender in the entry of children into domestic service.

**IOM and UNICEF. *Trafico de Niños Haitianos Hacia Republica Dominicana. Undated.***

This paper discusses the trafficking of children from Haiti to the Dominican Republic. Depending on their age, these children are used for domestic work, begging, shoe-shining, construction or agriculture. Many leave Haiti with the consent of their parents during school breaks, planning to return to Haiti at the end of the break. Despite plans to return, one-third of the children stay in the Dominican Republic. The children travel across the border either with their parents or with a “passeur” who, unless payment for the service is given ahead of time, will administer the children’s earnings. Women are often found begging with babies

that are not theirs, although the study does not state where these babies come from. Periodically, begging networks are dismantled only to resurface. Some children cross the border to work for Haitian families in the Dominican Republic as domestic workers under conditions of severe exploitation. The study did not find examples of children involved in prostitution. Examples of organizations working with these children are included: Fundación Educativa Acción Callejera provides educational opportunities for street children, El Hogar de Vida y Esperanza provides basic care to abandoned children, and the public institution El Organismo Rector del Sistema de Protección de Niños, Niñas y Adolescentes cares for abandoned children.

**Smucker, Glenn R., and Gerald F. Murray. *The Use of Children: A Study of Trafficking in Haitian Children*. Draft Report. USAID/Haiti. July 15, 2004.**

This report, commissioned by the USAID/Haiti Mission, addresses the use of Haitian child labor both in Haiti and in the neighboring Dominican Republic. The report explores the social context of child labor in Haiti, including underlying social norms contributing to the use of child labor such as the social expectation that children will begin working within the home as early as age six and that children will provide for parents and extended family in their old age. The expectation that children will provide for family members contributes to the emphasis on education for children; thus, children are often sent to work outside of the home in exchange for education (host families are expected to pay for room/board and tuition in exchange for labor). The report examines how this system is often open to and fraught with abuse and exploitation. The authors found such exploitation to include the trafficking of children. The authors note documented cases of intermediaries in both countries who deceived Haitian parents in the process of child recruitment for placement in distance households in Port-au-Prince or Santo Domingo. The authors also found instances of cross-border movement of children for the purpose of forced begging. The report includes references to instances of human brokers who have been known to take groups into the Dominican Republic and then desert them. In such cases, migrants are vulnerable to theft, rape, and child separation from parents.

The authors also explore push/pull factors related to child labor in Haiti, including poverty, domestic family crisis (including loss of one or more parent, food shortages, etc.), and abuse within the home resulting in children leaving the home at early ages and often ending up on the streets. Street children are particularly vulnerable to abuse and exploitation and, when used for domestic labor, are rarely provided with educational opportunities. Children at the lowest rungs of the social ladder, in terms of labor, are referred to as *restavèks* and often have little or no contact with their families. The report notes that when children have little or no contact with their families, the instances of abuse and exploitation are often greater. The authors also include analysis of recent trends in child labor in Haiti, including the growing trend among affluent households to avoid use of *restavèks*, in fact showing outright disdain for the practice. Also, there has been an increase in movement of poor children to provide labor in less-poor households. Thus, it is not simply the affluent who employ children, but

households in urban areas that may be less poor than rural households but are certainly not part of the bourgeois.

**UNICEF UK. *End Child Exploitation: Stop the Traffic!* 2003.**

The second in a series issued by UNICEF UK's program Stop the Traffic, this report focuses on the trafficking of children and includes a section dedicated to the trafficking of children in the Americas. The report notes the trafficking of children for the purpose of domestic servitude, including girls trafficked from rural areas in Haiti to serve as domestics for rich urban families, women and girls trafficked from Brazil and Suriname to work in the gold mines of the Amazon region, and young women trafficked to Bolivia and Brazil to work in agriculture. The report lists the following as the primary factors leading to the trafficking of children: unemployment and poverty, homelessness, drug abuse/addiction, sexual and physical abuse, and the growth of the tourist industry in the region. The report also maps the trafficking routes throughout the Americas. Also included in this analysis is reference to the problem of trafficking of children for the purpose of adoption. The report notes that intercountry adoption is particularly problematic in Guatemala, but includes El Salvador, Honduras, and Venezuela as countries of origin for illegal adoptions as well.

### **3.2 Agricultural Labor**

**Acharya, Arun Kumar. *Agrarian Conflict, Internal Displacement and Trafficking of Mexican Women: The Case of Chiapas State*. Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (UNAM), for the 2004 Annual Meeting of Population Association of America. 2004.**

This paper addresses the effect of abuses of human rights and humanitarian law in the agrarian conflict between the EZLN (Zapatistas) and the Mexican government in Chiapas on internal displacement and its relationship to the trafficking of women from the area.

The paper notes that some 40,000 indigenous people have been internally displaced due to the conflict in Chiapas from 1994 to 2002, many claiming to have been both physically and sexually abused by military personnel. According to the author, displacement has exacerbated poverty in the region and placed IDPs at greater risk of exploitation. To escape from poverty and conflict, some parents have sold their daughters in the hope of a better life. The author cites statistics that indicate that about 3,000 young girls from Chiapas are trafficked to Mexico City, Cancun, Acapulco, Merida, and Tapachula to enter prostitution or work as table-dancers and barmaids. Some are trafficked on to the United States and Canada. The paper notes that the conflict has also resulted in increased trafficking of men and children, with men trafficked to the United States mainly for agricultural work.

The paper provides detailed policy recommendations to control the violence and to combat the trafficking of displaced persons.

**Human Rights Watch. *El Salvador—Turning a Blind Eye: Hazardous Child Labor in El Salvador’s Sugarcane Cultivation*. 2004.**

This report addresses the issue of the use of child labor in sugarcane cultivation in El Salvador. It provides data and analysis regarding the beginning age of work (children as young as six are reported to be working in the fields), health risks, hours of work, wages, and access to water and food. The report also explores the International Prohibition on Harmful and Hazardous Child Labor. Many children travel from other parts of the country to work in the fields, and sharing wages is common—meaning that only one employee is actually listed on the books and paid directly. The report also includes sections on the relationship between child labor and education, the complicity of sugar mills and the responsibility of multinational corporations, and the response of the Salvadoran government and international community.

**ILO. *Forced Labour in the Americas. Forced Labour Facts. InFocus Programme on Promoting the Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work*. Undated.**

This fact sheet provides an overview of forced labor in Latin America and includes a brief on what is being done. Serious abuses have been documented in the Brazilian Amazon and other remote areas of Brazil, among Haitian workers on sugar plantations in the Dominican Republic, among *restavèks* in Haiti (child domestic workers), and in Paraguay where largely illiterate Enxet ethnic group members are trapped in debt bondage with ranchers. Indigenous people are particularly vulnerable to slavery-like conditions, especially when recruited as seasonal migrant workers outside of their own communities. Actions to combat forced labor include the Brazilian Executive Group for the Abolition of Forced Labor (GERTRAF) and its mobile units and monitoring data base. In 2002, Bolivia, Ecuador, Guatemala, and Peru held national seminars to determine a future research agenda and operational strategies to tackle the problem.

**Ould, David. *Trafficking in the International Context of Globalization*. Anti-Slavery International. Presented at a Special Workshop on New Slavery, Globalization and Fair Trade, May 23–25, 2002.**

This presentation provides analysis of human trafficking, including the exploitation of Haitians in the Dominican Republic sugar industry as well as similar labor exploitation in Brazil. While the exploitation in Brazil is internal, the Haitian case includes trafficking across international borders. Also, in the Haitian case, Ould notes that the Dominican army is used to ensure that exploited workers fulfill their contractual obligations.

***Social Justice. “Bonded (Slave) Labor in Brazil.” No. 43. April 24, 2001.***

This two-page fact sheet provides background on bonded labor in Brazil, with an outline of government action and possible change mechanisms. Workers are tricked into going to work on distant estates where, upon arrival, they are forced to work long hours to pay back the debt they incurred while traveling to the site. In 1995, the Brazilian government set up a Special Mobile Inspection Unit to carry out raids; it has rescued nearly 2,000 workers. The Unit is, however, underfunded. Very few offenders are punished, as demonstrated by the case of the Brasil Verde estate, which was denounced for using slave labor seven times between 1988 and 2000; to date no effective measure has been taken.

***Terre des Hommes. In Brief: Bolivia—Adoption and Hard Labour. 2001.***

This report provides brief lists of both sectors and forms of child trafficking in Bolivia. In terms of sectors, commercial sex abuse, forced labor, illegal adoptions, and organ trafficking are included. In terms of forms of child trafficking, the report addresses the trafficking of children by parents, neighbors, employers, relatives, and acquaintances, by one’s “own decision,” and via abduction through a third party. The report provides a list of factors contributing to child trafficking, including lack of security, lack of statistics, poor economic conditions, increased demand, and lack of information. In terms of hard labor, the report describes different types of labor/sectors, including agricultural labor and domestic labor. The report addresses working conditions/hours, education, punishment, freedom, and trafficking destinations. The socioeconomic environment of children and young persons is also addressed, including statistics regarding education, age, and urban/rural distinction.

Regarding illegal adoptions, this report addresses the legal procedures and regulations put in place to deal with adoptions in Bolivia and the problems with either enforcing such regulations or ways in which traffickers circumvent the law. The report provides statistics regarding the number of adoptions in Bolivia, although it is noted that specific numbers are difficult to obtain. The report also includes a section on factors that contribute to illegal adoptions, including the involvement of attorneys, judges, and other officials. Social tolerance for the practice is also noted. The report also addresses reasons for mothers “handing over” their children, which include lack of support within the family and community. The end of the report includes strategies and suggestions for combating child trafficking in which public education factors greatly.

***U.S. Department of Labor. 2003 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labor. 2004.***

This report includes data and analysis of the following countries in Central America and the Caribbean: Antigua and Barbuda, Belize, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Jamaica, Nicaragua, Peru, Paraguay, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, and Uruguay. The report, when possible, focuses on the worst forms of child

labor rather than on child labor in general. Each of the country profiles consists of three sections: government policies and programs to eliminate the worst forms of child labor, incidence and nature of child labor, and child labor laws and enforcement. The report includes analysis regarding child soldiers, including reintegration in Colombia, and makes reference to child soldier documents/research throughout the region.

**U.S. Department of State. *Country Reports on Human Rights Practices. Brazil. 2003.***

A brief section of the report focuses on forced labor. Forced labor and trafficking of workers were reported in the majority of states for activities such as forest clearing, logging, charcoal production, raising livestock and agriculture. The penal code provides penalties for various crimes related to forced labor, but these are rarely enforced. The government has a mobile team for inspection with the responsibility of locating and liberating workers trapped in forced labor. Information campaigns have targeted rural workers. ILO set up a program to improve interagency collaboration. In spite of these efforts, forced labor is on the increase. Insufficient resources and lack of political will from local authorities pose substantial barriers to convicting abusers.

#### **4. TRAFFICKING AND MIGRATION**

**Anti-Slavery International. *The Migration-Trafficking Nexus: Combating Trafficking Through the Protection of Migrants' Human Rights. 2003.***

This article on the interrelationships between migration and human trafficking contains a brief section on the migration patterns from Mexico to the United States. This section contains an economic analysis of how insufficient opportunities for legal migration combined with a strong demand for cheap labor in the United States have encouraged illegal migration and trafficking. The article states that more than 90 percent of U.S. “permanent” visas for employment-based immigration are targeted at well-educated and skilled immigrants and their families. This leaves insufficient avenues for regular migration to fill less-skilled jobs, despite a strong demand for these workers in the United States. Consequently, many migrants try to cross the border illegally in search of work and it is estimated that some 4,000 irregular migrants successfully enter the United States every day. Between 1998 and 2001, more than 1,500 migrants died while trying to cross the border. Some 1.5 million migrants are arrested each year on the U.S.-Mexican border and forced to return home. Others may make it into the United States only to find themselves compelled to work as forced laborers or in situations of severe exploitation.

The author maintains that despite these very substantial dangers, there is no shortage of migrants willing to risk their savings and their lives in the search for work in the United States. The explanation for this can be found in the fact that, on average, an undocumented Mexican migrant worker in the United States will find a job within two weeks of arriving and will earn around nine times as much as he or she did in his or her last job in Mexico. The

authors argue that an immigration policy that ignores the domestic demand for migrant workers in any sector of the economy encourages irregular migration and makes migrant workers more vulnerable to exploitation by unscrupulous employers, smugglers, and traffickers.

**ACSUR-Las Segovias (Association for Cooperation with the South). *Tráfico e Inmigración de Mujeres en España. Colombianas y Ecuatorianas en los Servicios Domésticos y Sexuales. [Trafficking and Immigration of Women in Spain. Colombian and Ecuadorean Women's Involvement in Domestic and Sexual Services.] 2001.***<sup>5</sup>

This research report consists of a sociological study, based on detailed interviews with Ecuadorean and Colombian women in domestic service and street prostitution in Madrid, as well as Colombian women in prostitution in clubs and private apartments in Galicia; a legal study, with interviews with social actors and a review of the literature; and an examination of the information featured in four journals on immigration by these authors. The report notes the increasing feminization of migration and the prevailing trend for women to engage in devalued tasks, notably domestic service and prostitution. The research also notes an increase in transnational prostitution, as well as a rise in demand for domestic services and prostitution in different regions of the world.

The research links low status of women, lack of resources for female migrants and limited access to legal protection to an overall lack of protection for migrants and trafficked victims. The report also criticizes media images that link female migration to prostitution and images of sexual exploitation, asserting that such stereotypes lead to stigmatization of female migrants. Financial links between domestic services and prostitution are also addressed.

**Cruz, Angeles, Hugo Manuel, Rojas Wiesner, and Martha Luz. *La Migración Femenina Internacional en la Frontera sur de México. [International Female Migration on the Southern Border of Mexico.] Papeles de Población 6(23). 2000.***<sup>6</sup>

This report contains an analysis of labor migration of women from Central America in the coastal and border regions of the Mexican state of Chiapas. The first part presents a critical overview of the theoretical frameworks used in the study of female migration. Relying on official data and case studies, the second part focuses on the characteristics and working conditions of women in two different migration streams. The first consists of labor migration by women of Central America to the Soconusco region to undertake farm work, domestic service, and prostitution. The second migration stream is that of “trans-migrants,” who arrive

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<sup>5</sup> Annotation adapted from IOM. Annotated Reference List, Caribbean Counter-Trafficking Project. IOM. 2004.

<sup>6</sup> Annotation adapted from Staab, Silke. *In Search of Work. International Migration of Women in Latin America and the Caribbean. Selected Bibliography.* Women and Development Unit of ELAC. Santiago, Chile. April 2004.

in southern Mexico with the intention of heading to the northern border and crossing to the United States. In recent decades, this movement has grown and the places where these trans-migrants originate have grown more varied. The majority of these trans-migrants are from El Salvador, followed by Guatemala and Honduras. The authors conclude that such is the complexity of migration patterns on Mexico's southern border that there is a need for models of analysis that do not consider women as a mere numerical aggregate in traditional streams, but rather as actors in their own migration experience. In terms of methodology, the inadequacy of existing methods is stressed, as is the absence of methodically arranged statistical data on female migrants in the region in question.

**Castillo, Manuel Ángel. *Migraciones en el Hemisferio. Consecuencias y Relación con las Políticas Sociales*. Centro Latinoamericano y Caribeño de Demografía (CELADE) - División de Población. Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo (BID). Santiago de Chile. May 2003.**

This paper outlines the characteristics of modern migration and the consequences and the governmental policies associated with it. Although the majority of migration is still northwards to the United States and Canada, the 1990s saw a rapid increase in the number of migrants heading to Europe. Intraregional migration continues, with the biggest movement being between Haiti and the Dominican Republic and between Nicaragua and Costa Rica. It is no longer only the rural poor who are migrating, but also the urban middle class. Causes of migration include economic crisis and natural disasters (e.g., Hurricane Mitch). More people are moving as demand for labor increases in destination countries and countries of origin become more impoverished. A significant portion of migration in Latin America and the Caribbean is hidden; migrants lack appropriate documents. This lack of documentation has led to a proliferation of abuses, including low salaries, lack of social protection, precarious working conditions, aggression, physical abuse, and slavery-like conditions. This allows the business owners to make huge profit margins, which politicians are reticent to restrict. Remittances are recognized as an important part of the economy in countries of origin; Mexico, El Salvador, and the Dominican Republic have the highest volume of remittances.

**Gamboa, Abelardo Morales. *Situación de los Trabajadores Migrantes en América Central. Estudios sobre Migraciones Internacionales*. 53. Ginebra: OIT. Julio 2002.**

This document analyzes the characteristics of migration in the 1990s, showing the increase in movement in the region, the greater heterogeneity of the migrant population, and the increased proportion of women traveling. The paper discusses the risks encountered by female migrants in domestic labor and prostitution. Young migrant women are subject to exploitation from border police and truck drivers in exchange for passage. In Central America, prostitution is often linked with servicing migrant populations. Most often, the women in prostitution are not from their original communities. Sex tourism is reported throughout Central America.



Gamboa emphasizes the lack of research on agricultural migration, where most laborers remain invisible. Although Gamboa does not suggest that people are being trafficked for agriculture, intermediary contractors who keep some of the laborers' income are thought to cooperate with smugglers. In Guatemala, indigenous migrants work on a seasonal basis to harvest sugarcane, coffee, and cotton under unknown conditions. Costa Rica hosts the largest numbers of female domestic workers, most of whom are from Nicaragua and work 60-hour weeks with no social protection and minimal pay. In many Central American countries, the illegal migrant, rather than the smuggler or trafficker, is penalized, creating the conditions that favor exploitation. The legal focus is on repressing illegal migration without sufficient attention to the abusive practices of authorities, smugglers, and employers. The report also describes the Regional Conference on Migration, which was established in 1996 to discuss migration in Central and North America and has developed minimum standards for the protection of migrants' human rights during detention and deportation.

**IOM. *Baseline Assessment: HIV/AIDS and Mobile Populations in the Caribbean. 2004.***

This assessment explores the link between mobile communities and HIV/AIDS in the Caribbean, the region second only to Sub-Saharan Africa in terms of HIV/AIDS impact. The assessment addresses the vulnerability of mobile populations, particularly irregular migrants, to HIV/AIDS based upon high-risk behavior coupled with lack of access to basic services. The assessment notes that trafficking in persons, in particular, may contribute to the HIV/AIDS epidemic. The assessment calls for further research and investigation of this topic, particularly trafficking for the purpose of sexual exploitation.

**León, Irene, and Marcela Sosa (coords.). *Latinoamericanas en Europa: Desilusión en la Tierra Prometida. [Latin American Women in Europe: Disillusion in the Promised Land.] Serie Aportes para el Debate, 3, Quito. July 1995.***

This is a compilation of articles, from a variety of authors, on the experience of NGOs working with women from Latin America and the Caribbean in Europe. The articles address issues such as the causes of female migration, the racial and gender discrimination that female migrants face in the countries of the European Union, trafficking of women, living and working conditions in the informal sector and in prostitution, restrictive migration policies, and support networks for female migrants.

**Mora, Luis. *Las Fronteras de la Vulnerabilidad: Género, Migración y Derechos Sexuales y Reproductivos*. Equipo de Apoyo Técnico, Oficina para América Latina y el Caribe, Fondo de Población de las Naciones Unidas (FNUAP). Documento presentado en la Conferencia Hemisférica sobre Migración Internacional, 20-22 de noviembre de 2002, Santiago de Chile. 2002.**

This report analyzes patterns of migration and trafficking in Latin America and the Caribbean, with a focus on the health of women. Internal migration patterns are most often from rural to urban settings, but can be to locations with a high proportion of male laborers, such as the trafficking of 50,000 Brazilian girls to the gold mining towns in the Amazon. International trafficking from Latin America is most common to Europe and North America, and within Central America either as a destination or a transit site. The report claims that restrictions on trafficking in Thailand and other South East Asian countries have led to an increase in sex tourism in Central America, Argentina and the Chiapas. In the Dominican Republic alone, migration officials estimate that there are 400 groups involved in human trafficking. In Paraguay, advertisements for domestic work in Argentina thinly veil prostitution networks. In Venezuela, the report claims that police and medical staff sexually abused victims seeking assistance. In Colombia, women and girls are used as sex slaves by both sides of the conflict. Adolescent girls trying to cross borders from Mexico to the US often find themselves stuck in prostitution on either side of the border. Traffickers promise girls a reduction in their fee, or “protection” from victimization by other men, in exchange for sex.

**Organización Internacional para las Migraciones (OIM). *Migración, Prostitución y Trata de Mujeres Dominicanas en la Argentina*. 2003.**

This study of Dominican women living in Argentina casts light on the relationships between migration, prostitution, and trafficking, taking as reference a group of Dominican women who emigrated to Argentina between 1996 and 2000. The study analyzes the factors influencing this process both at source and reception communities. It traces the route of these women, who became prostitutes in Argentina, and includes recommendations to prevent the repetition of the conditions of fraud and deception involved in their journey. International norms, the legal framework in Argentina regarding human trafficking and smuggling, and approaches taken by state institutions and civil society in Argentina are discussed. Sources include Dominican women living in Argentina, NGO personnel, and analysis of data on Dominican residents collected by the Dominican Consulate in Buenos Aires and the National Direction of Migration in Argentina.

**Pellegrino, Adela. *Migration from Latin America to Europe: Trends and Policy Challenges*. IOM Migration Research Series No. 16. May 2004.**

The focus of this paper is on the migration of Latin Americans to Europe, with emphasis on migration to Spain. The recession in Latin America, continued political instability in Colombia, and tightening visa regimes in the United States have led to an increase in migration flows to Europe. Between 1995 and 2003, the Latin American population in Spain went from 92,642 to 514,485, with the majority of that increase happening in the last three years. Italy and Portugal have also experienced an increase in migration. Over \$1 million are remitted annually from Spain and \$1 billion from the rest of Europe. In spite of this increase, the overall numbers are still insignificant compared with Latin American migration to the United States, from which \$30 billion are remitted annually.

The majority of migrants are middle class, well educated, young, and female. The significant feminization of emigration from Latin America is also reflected in women's jobs as domestic servants and caretakers for children and the elderly, and their exploitation in prostitution. In 1990, of Argentine, Peruvian, Colombian, and Ecuadorian registered migrants, 26–46 percent were technicians and professionals, 11–15 percent were merchants, and 5 percent were high-level managers and business executives. Dominican women, most of whom came from rural environments, were involved in domestic service (65 percent). However, most migrants are undocumented, as shown by the 2003 Stienen study in which approximately 60 percent of migrants from Bolivia, Ecuador, and Peru living in Switzerland were undocumented.

Many of the undocumented workers are women who have been trafficked. An estimated 60,000 Dominican and 75,000 Brazilian women are involved in prostitution in Europe. In 2000, it was estimated that 12,804 prostitutes in Spain were foreign, half of them from Latin America. A recent study on Brazil found 32 routes used by traffickers to move women from Brazil to Spain, many of which transited through Portugal. The Netherlands, Switzerland, and Germany are also common destinations for Brazilian women. Traffickers use a number of methods to get girls and women into Europe, including false documents, false marriages, artist visas, false recognition of a child (in the Netherlands), deception, and coercion. There is an apparent overlap in human and drug trafficking routes to Europe. In her closing comments, the author calls for foreign investment in the provision of alternatives to irregular migration for migrants from the developing world.

**Pizarro, Jorge Martínez. *El Mapa Migratorio de América Latina y el Caribe, las Mujeres y el Género*. Proyecto Regional de Población CELADE and United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA). Santiago de Chile. Septiembre 2003.**

This document examines the different migration trends in Latin America and the Caribbean, with a focus on the migration of women, outlining regional theories on women's migration over the past 45 years. An estimated 20 million Latin Americans and Caribbeans live outside their birth place. Three-quarters of migrants from the region go to the United States and half of all migrants in the United States are Mexican. The majority of the migration to the United

States is for service and agriculture, although professionals and salespersons also migrate to the United States. The majority of intraregional travel is that of Colombians seeking refuge from the war. In addition, there is significant migration of Nicaraguans to Costa Rica, mostly for agriculture and construction, and of Haitians to the Dominican Republic, mostly for agriculture, informal labor, construction, and domestic labor. There is a growing migratory trend to Japan and Spain. In Spain, most migrants are women who migrate for domestic work, although men are also present in construction and sales. Their integration into Spanish society is often rapid. In Japan, Brazilian and Peruvian men of Japanese origin are taking jobs that the Japanese find undesirable, while the women end up in prostitution. In addition, a great number of Caribbeans migrate to the United Kingdom and the Netherlands.

Most women who migrate work in domestic labor, the informal sector, small family businesses, and, increasingly, nursing and the textile industry. Migrating women are most often not accompanied by male partners. They tend to travel alone, often sending more remittances home than migrating men (even though the men tend to earn more). The women face greater risks, however, including those of sexual exploitation. The Dominican Republic has become the greatest exporter of sexually exploited women in the Caribbean. Every year, 35,000 Colombian women fleeing the violence in their country end up being trafficked. According to ISIS International 1998, Suriname has active trafficking networks with women from Brazil, the Dominican Republic, and Colombia. In Japan, it is thought that 3–5 million Brazilian women are being sexually exploited. In addition, many women who start off as illegal migrants turn to prostitution to ensure their passage or the cooperation of authorities. Many adolescents are caught in this trap when they attempt to cross borders, particularly from Mexico to the United States and along the Mexican-Guatemalan border. A study demonstrated that at the southern border of Mexico, 70 percent of the migrant women suffered from violence and two-thirds of those experienced some form of sexual violence.

**Ramírez Bautista, Elia. *Mujeres Latinoamericanas en Europa. Inmigración, Trabajo, Género y Atención. [Latin American Women in Europe. Immigration, Work, Gender and Reception.] Paper presented at the Meeting of the Latin American Studies Association (LASA), Miami. March 16–18, 2000.***<sup>7</sup>

This review of recent immigration by Latin Americans into Europe (Spain, Greece, Switzerland, the Netherlands, Italy, England, Germany, Austria, Belgium, and Denmark) stresses the feminization of migration streams. It is based on secondary sources and various reports by NGOs that work with migrant women. The main findings include the following: (1) the chief motivation for migration is financial improvement (often as part of a family strategy); (2) there are greater numbers of independent migrants and women are playing an active role in the migration process; (3) women are in domestic service, entertainment in bars and clubs, and prostitution; (4) the demand for women from the south is high in these sectors

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<sup>7</sup> Annotation adapted from Staab, Silke. *In Search of Work. International Migration of Women in Latin America and the Caribbean. Selected Bibliography.* United Nations and ELAC. Santiago, Chile. April 2004.

(for structural and ideological reasons); and (5) networks of solidarity and support exist among female migrants.

**Wiesner, Rojas, and Martha Luz. “Mujeres Migrantes en la Frontera sur de México.” [“Women Migrants on the Southern Border of Mexico.”] In *Migración: México entre sus dos Fronteras, 2000–2001*. Mexico City: Forum on Migration. 2002.<sup>8</sup>**

This report contains a study of temporary immigration for work purposes and transmigration to the United States of women from Central America in the southern border area of Mexico. The research is based on official data, surveys of civil organizations, and case studies. A common feature of both streams is their temporary nature and the large number of undocumented people involved. Women migrants work mainly in agriculture, domestic service, commerce, and prostitution. Those heading for the United States also take part in these activities, with a view to earning enough money to continue their trip towards the United States. The women who work in private homes come mainly from the indigenous districts of Guatemala. Typically, they are young women who send money to their families to assist them financially, and who face insecure working conditions. The women working in agriculture are also young and come from Guatemala, El Salvador, and Honduras.

The prostitutes in the urban centers of Mexico’s southern border and the women working in bars are also predominantly from Central America and include Guatemalans, followed by Salvadorans and Hondurans. They are, for the most part, young unmarried women who encountered domestic violence in their original place of residence. Prostitution carries with it a number of risks for women migrants in terms of their health and sexual violence. Assessment of the available data shows that the patterns of migration of Central American women to Mexico do not reflect androcentric migration models, since female migration is not bound to that of men and family reunion is not the motivation for the relocation.

**Staab, Silke. *In Search of Work: International Migration of Women in Latin America and the Caribbean*. Selected bibliography. United Nations and ECLAC. April 2004.**

This annotated bibliography of migrating women in Latin America and the Caribbean provides an overview of the literature and organizes the titles for ease of reference by author, topic, and year of publication. The analysis reviews why women migrate, under what conditions, and with whom, stating that women’s migration is not homogenous throughout the region. Some travel with family groups, others alone, some as refugees, others in search of money. Staab points out that the literature focuses on the migration of women living in poverty with scant reference to the migration of professional women. A point rarely mentioned in other studies is referred to here as women’s engagement in “reproductive” work, that is, the transfer of child care that allows some women to work for pay. Thus,

<sup>8</sup> Annotation adapted from Staab, Silke. *In Search of Work. International Migration of Women in Latin America and the Caribbean. Selected Bibliography*. United Nations and ELAC. Santiago, Chile, April 2004.

migrant women's children are cared for by their own mothers, sisters, or aunts, while they care for children whose mothers also leave the home to work. Little research has gone into the impact of such displacement on the children left behind. Staab emphasizes that female migrants are the victims of double discrimination—as women and as foreigners—which can place them in precarious and exploitative situations.

**Vargas, Yamila Azize. “Latinoamericanas y Caribeñas en el Trabajo Doméstico y Sexual.” En: Torres, Carmen (ed.). *Reunión de ONG. Las Mujeres y el Desarrollo en América Latina y el Caribe*. Santiago: Grupo Iniciativa Chile. 1998.**

This paper, presented at the women and development conference in Chile in 1998, discusses the nature of human trafficking and migration in Latin America and the Caribbean and provides some recommendations for action within a human rights framework. Vargas discusses the intensification and feminization of migration in the region in the past two decades. Vargas argues that the economic policies of structural adjustment instituted by the International Monetary Fund led to increased poverty, which in turn pushed women into the paid labor force.

The author notes that although girls' and women's level of education has skyrocketed, superceding that of men in the region, their compensation in the labor force is only 72 percent of men's. Many women unable to make ends meet at home look elsewhere for gainful employment, often falling into the trap of traffickers. Whether migrant or trafficked, women contributed significantly to their home countries' economies through remittances. Poor enforcement and prosecution of traffickers remain significant barriers to combating trafficking. An example includes two Japanese traffickers who, though caught, were only fined for their offenses. Vargas questions why violence in domestic work and sexual exploitation has not received the attention that domestic violence has. Vargas ends the paper with some suggested actions, many of which have been included in subsequent international agreements.

## **5. INSTITUTIONAL, LEGAL, AND CIVIL SOCIETY RESPONSES**

**Bureau of Women's Affairs Costa Rica. Follow-up Meeting to the Second World Congress Against Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children. San Jose, Costa Rica, May 19–20, 2004.<sup>9</sup>**

This report describes in detail the different methods of addressing trafficking in persons, including domestic and national legal protection and the roles of NGOs within various communities. The report describes the practice of “bartering” for women, and it explores the growing phenomenon of sex tourism in the region. Sections are devoted to the Bureau of

<sup>9</sup> Annotation adapted from IOM. Annotated Reference List, Caribbean Counter-Trafficking Project. IOM. 2004.

Women's Affairs; policies, strategies, and National Plans; specific plans and programs; successful practices, coordination, and cooperation methods; impact and results; and major obstacles.

***Casa Alianza. Trafficking in Children in Latin America and the Caribbean. Undated.***

This brief paper describes the situation of trafficking in the region, highlights government and civil society action, and calls for an intensification of efforts to combat trafficking. The paper emphasizes that the dearth of centers for repatriated victims of trafficking increases victims' vulnerability to further abuses of human rights, including detention in prisons. To alleviate this problem, Casa Alianza has begun to repatriate, rehabilitate, and protect victims of trafficking through its homes in Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Mexico. In 2001, the Organization of American States (OAS) General Assembly passed a resolution to support the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and its Protocol. A large number of countries have signed or ratified the resolution and begun to take action. The Inter-American Commission of Women (CIM) and the Inter-American Children's Institute (IACI) have provided technical support in drafting harmonized anti-trafficking legislation for the subregion.

***Casa Alianza/Global Rights. Taller Regional sobre Trata de Personas y Derechos Humanos en las Americas y el Caribe. San Jose, Costa Rica. Enero 2004.***

This report contains a PowerPoint presentation on the nature of trafficking in persons and actions taken in Guatemala, El Salvador, and the Dominican Republic. Findings regarding Guatemala include that Guatemala serves as a place of origin, transit, destination, and return of migrants and trafficked persons; there is evidence of child trafficking for purposes of child pornography and illegal adoption rings; and forced labor exists for agriculture, domestic work, manufacturing, and begging both in Guatemala and among Guatemalans in other countries. Trafficking of persons as narco-mules is also suspected in Guatemala, although very little information is available on this topic.

At the time of publication of the report, Guatemala is one of the few countries in the region with a specific anti-trafficking of persons law, but it has yet to sign the Transnational Convention and its Protocols. In El Salvador, the criminal code calls for punishment of persons engaged in illegal migration, but does not mention prosecution for trafficking. National and frontier police, government officers, and parliament members have been trained to combat commercial exploitation in El Salvador, but few concrete actions have been taken. The Dominican Republic has a law on illegal migration and trafficking of persons and has created departments to deal with both. Authorities in the Dominican Republic have made more progress against traffickers than their counterparts in the region; they have arrested and prosecuted traffickers, dismantled 48 trafficking rings between 2001 and 2003, and provided services to victims.

**Centro de Referência, Estudos E Ações sobre Crianças e Adolescentes (CECRIA).  
Fundamento e Políticas contra a Exploração e Abuso Sexual de Crianças e Adolescentes.  
March 1997.**

This document provides an overview of governmental and nongovernmental actions on sexual abuse and exploitation of children and adolescents in Brazil. A study conducted by the research institute IBGE found that 20 percent of Brazilians start working before the age of 10, and that 66 percent begin work before the age of 15. CECRIA quotes a study conducted in 1993 that found that 50 percent of rapes were incestuous. The abuse or negligence that children face in their homes often pushes them onto the streets where they often have to turn to selling sex for survival. Sexual tourism and pornography are growing, particularly in the northeast and the Amazon, where tourist agencies, hotels, taxis, and other organizations and persons are involved in the trafficking of children. There is also child prostitution along the rivers and in the ports, where local men are the primary clients.

The report states that at the time of publication, the government was not doing very much to combat sexual abuse and exploitation. The Ministry of Education was introducing an ethics curriculum and sexual health education; the Ministry of Social Work initiated the Brazilian Program for the Child Citizen, in which children's participatory rights are emphasized and children are assisted with after-school programs; the Ministry of Labor provided short courses to workers; and the Ministry of Health had a health program for adolescents and a mandatory reporting rule for education professionals. The Ministry of Industry and Commerce, EMBRATUR, aimed to mobilize and sensitize Brazilian society and foreign tourists against the sexual exploitation in Brazil through its 1997 campaign entitled "Sexual Exploitation of Children through Tourism: Beware Brazil is Watching." The Ministry of Justice calls for services for victims of violence and emphasizes the responsibility of aggressors. The Brazilian legal code states that the following actions are illegal: pimping, trafficking in women, and creation of pornography involving children; all of these now receive severe penalties. Enforcement remains problematic because of corrupt police officers and the repatriation of abusive tourists without trial. Overall, the paper concludes that the government's policies are piecemeal and generic, and that an effort toward coordination is urgently needed. The report concludes that the NGOs, on the other hand, are working through networks and collaboration.

**CELADE/Comisión Económica para América Latina y el Caribe (CEPAL), OIM, UNFPA. Derechos Humanos y Trata de Personas en las Américas: Resumen y Aspectos Destacados de la Conferencia Hemisférica sobre Migración Internacional. Santiago de Chile. Noviembre de 2003.**

Some of the most prominent writers on trafficking in Latin America gathered at this conference in Chile to discuss the nature of trafficking in the region, the advances and limitations of international tools and national legislation, and strategies for prevention and rehabilitation. There was extensive discussion regarding the feminization of migration, the



extreme vulnerability of people who leave their hometowns, whether smuggled or trafficked, and the unhelpfulness of border and migration officials who treat both illegal migrants and trafficked persons as criminals. On the whole, participants agreed that the problem lay not in insufficient normative international instruments, but rather, in their application by state parties. A number of participants lamented the inadequacy of laws that most often place the burden of proof on victims rather than on the traffickers. There was a call, echoed throughout the conference, for further investigation of the causes of migration and for practical solutions for coping with the gray line between smuggling and trafficking.

**Claramunt, Maria Cecilia. *Costa Rica—The Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Minors: A Rapid Assessment*. ILO/IPEC. 2002.**

According to this rapid assessment, the existence of the commercial sexual exploitation of children is recognized in the country and has been given an important place on the agenda of public discussion; however, social and government responses remain poorly coordinated. It is noted that there is a growing trend to treat exploited children as perpetrators rather than as victims, and a specialized inspector's office has been assigned to deal with the issue. The assessment notes the lack of a model of comprehensive assistance for victims and the fact that there are no plans of action for dealing with child commercial sexual exploitation. In addition, opinion polls indicate that large percentages of the population know of the problem of child sexual exploitation and of places in which minors are exploited, but few have taken action in response. The author argues that this may be interpreted as a form of social tolerance for the practice. The assessment notes that the majority of victims come from poor homes characterized by family violence and drug and illegal substance abuse. The assessment also provides a summary of the primary challenges faced by Costa Rica in dealing with the problem, including poor implementation of mandates; lack of promotion and development of universal policies, programs, and institutions; lack of provision of assistance to victims; and the need for legal reform.

**Commitment to a Strategy Against Commercial Sexual Exploitation and Other Forms of Sexual Violence Against Children and Adolescents in the Latin America-Caribbean Region. Promulgated at Regional Congress on the Sexual Exploitation of Children and Adolescents. Montevideo Uruguay. November 7–9, 2001.<sup>10</sup>**

This document is a declaration to combat all forms of commercial sexual exploitation of children. Countries that sign indicate a willingness to work to end this problem; it is not legally binding. The document stresses the development of national plans to combat CSCE; implementation of the Convention on the Right of the Child (CRC); coordination of efforts of and law enforcement by state parties, the UN, the OAS, other international institutions, and NGOs; the development of preventive education programs and awareness-raising campaigns;

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<sup>10</sup> Annotation adapted from IOM. Annotated Reference List, Caribbean Counter-Trafficking Project. IOM. 2004.

the creation of public policies that protect the rights of children and adolescents; the eradication of the production and distribution of child pornography; and the decriminalization of child and adolescent victims. In order to monitor the progress of state parties, the creation of a working group of governments, international governmental organizations (IGOs), and NGOs was proposed. This group would be responsible for promoting and coordinating a regional strategy. An evaluation and follow-up was proposed for 2004.

**Connelly, Ellen. *Run for the Border: The National Security Implications of Human Smuggling and Human Trafficking at the U.S.- Mexico Border*. Unpublished. 2002.**

This academic paper addresses the transnational security implications of the illegal transport of humans for profit by both smugglers and traffickers across the United States-Mexico border. The author states that dividing lines between human smuggling and human trafficking are often unclear, and that what begins as a migrant's voluntary effort to cross a border with a smuggler's help can end with the smuggler holding that migrant against his or her will in the destination country. The paper provides an overview of government regulation of the U.S.-Mexico border, and posits that recent U.S. policies to tighten the border and restrict irregular migration have led to an increased reliance on and demand for professional smugglers. Because of the increased demand for assisted border crossings and increasingly sophisticated detection systems, smugglers and traffickers have evolved into highly organized and sophisticated transnational networks.

The paper compares smuggling and trafficking networks to international terrorist networks and describes their similar organizational structures: they protect the most powerful members of the organization, which makes breaking up the organization from top to bottom more difficult, and they conduct activities in several jurisdictions, which makes government prosecution of these rings a challenge. The author notes that, as with terrorist organizations, efforts to break up human smuggling and trafficking organizations generally only capture "foot soldiers," whereas intermediaries and overseers of these organizations prove more elusive. Furthermore, the author states that human smugglers and traffickers would not hesitate to transport terrorists across the U.S. border, and therefore the United States must focus more efforts on interagency policies and procedures that will both strengthen national security and protect victims of smugglers and traffickers.

**Dandurand, Yvon, and Ana Elena Obando. *Violence in the Americas. Regional Analysis—Including Review of the Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment, and Eradication of Violence against Women*. Undated.**

This document provides an overview of progress made in implementing specific policies and measures to comply with and implement the Convention of Belem do Para. On-site studies were conducted in Brazil, Chile, Ecuador, Peru, and Paraguay. The paper discusses the progress made according to a series of indicators.

**ECOSOC. *Report of the Special Rapporteur on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography, Ms. Ofelia Calcetas-Santos. Addendum. Report on the Mission to Mexico. Commission on Human Rights. Fifty-fourth session. February 23, 1998.***

This report contains the findings of the Special Rapporteur, obtained during her visit with street children in Mexico. Although many of these children are involved in prostitution, a large number of sexually exploited children are hidden from view. The Rapporteur visited four cities: Mexico City, Cancun, Ciudad Juarez, and Tijuana. In each she spoke with government officials and NGOs. In her overall analysis, Ms. Calcetas-Santos concludes that causes of child prostitution include rural-urban migration, family disintegration, family violence, and previous drug addiction. Overall, she found the National System for the Integral Development of the Family (DIF) strong in providing services for street children and trafficked children. However, the Rapporteur was disappointed with DIF officials in Mexico City and with the denial and defensiveness of officials in tourism, immigration, and customs. Significant training for these officials was recommended. Although a number of NGOs are working with street children, improved networking and collaboration is needed. DIF is aiming to strengthen collaboration with the NGOs. Existing services include helplines for reporting abuses, temporary shelters for victims, family reintegration services, awareness raising, and outreach on HIV. Government officials denied the existence of trafficking of children for prostitution in Cancun. In addition to the high levels of movement and lawlessness in Tijuana and Ciudad Juarez, the lack of day care for women working in *maquilladoras* leaves children unattended and at risk of exploitation. Although pimping is illegal in Mexico, impunity appears to be the norm.

**ECPAT International. *CSEC Overview. Guatemala. Undated.***

This document provides an overview of commercial sexual exploitation of children in Guatemala, with examples of programs for prevention, protection, recovery, and reintegration. Currently, an ad hoc interinstitutional commission to eradicate the sexual exploitation of children is active with the participation of government and NGO members. ECPAT has a three-year project in Guatemala to strengthen legislation and law enforcement to protect children against commercial sexual exploitation. ECPAT works to raise awareness on CSEC, provides training to government officials and NGO staff, reviews relevant legislation and mechanisms of justice, and monitors their implementation. In addition, the Human Rights Ombudsman's office sponsors public information campaigns; police are trained; La Cuerda, a network of women journalists, publishes numerous reports on trafficking; and Casa Alianza investigates cases of CSEC in Guatemala. In spite of all of these efforts, the ILO notes the stagnant state of implementation of the national plan of action, resulting in inadequate assistance to victims. The overview points to the reluctance of NGOs and health workers to prosecute procurers and clients given rampant corruption among law enforcement personnel. The Special Rapporteur mentioned that local authorities often arrest victims rather than channeling them to recovery and rehabilitation programs. Casa

Alianza reports that when brothels with children trafficked from other countries are raided, the children are detained and deported as criminals, without preparation, services, or follow-up.

**ECPAT International. *Five Years After Stockholm. 2001.***

This document provides country and regional updates on the implementation of the Agenda for Action adopted at the World Congress against Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children held in Stockholm, Sweden, 1996. It includes a listing of countries that have signed relevant treaties and adopted strategies for action. For the Latin American and Caribbean region, the 2001 Latin American Regional Consultation on CSEC held in Costa Rica declared that insufficient efforts had been made to implement the Stockholm Agenda, and that momentum was needed to push through national plans of action and commit resources for their implementation.

Argentina, Brazil, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, and Mexico have developed national plans of action against CSEC. Implementation of these plans has been strongest in Brazil and the Dominican Republic. Brazil has a number of state networks bringing governmental and nongovernmental organizations together; an information network—Recria—to cover news about sexual violence; a number of awareness-raising campaigns calling for reporting of abuse; training for taxi and bus drivers, police, and persons in the hotel industry; increased penalties for trafficking; and an online campaign against Internet-based child pornography. In the triborder area, the NGO Luena Nueva has mobilized action against the trafficking of children for exploitation. In the Dominican Republic, law enforcement authorities have taken severe steps against sex tourists, pimps, and traffickers. The government has created rehabilitation centers and increased public understanding of CSEC as a crime. In Guatemala, the Congregation of Oblate Sisters conducted awareness-raising campaigns and rescued and rehabilitated victims, providing them with professional training and psychiatric help. The Mexican government has collaborated with Honduran and Guatemalan institutions, developed awareness-raising media campaigns, built the capacity of local institutions, and held a forum on CSEC in 2001.

On the negative side, the report finds that in South America, the NGOs are doing more than their governments. Jamaica was just getting started with an ILO study on child prostitution at the time of publication. In Mexico, NGOs have criticized the government for failing to implement the national action plan, including rehabilitation of victims, prosecution of traffickers, and protection of children's rights. In Brazil, insufficient attention was paid to child sex tourism within Brazil.

**ECPAT. “Sexual Exploitation and Trafficking of Children in Central America.”**  
***ECPAT International Newswire* No. 36. September 1, 2001.**

Based upon a study conducted by ECPAT International with Casa Alianza, this article addresses common threads between the countries surveyed: Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, and Nicaragua, including the fact that in all countries there is a social tolerance of sexual exploitation and abuse of children; there is a sense of indifference toward victims. Also, the institutional capability of each country to deal with the issue is low, and corruption and lack of effective law enforcement are problems. Legal reform in many countries has been painfully slow. In terms of contributing factors, sexism (particularly in the form of “machismo”) is addressed, as are interfamily violence and the vulnerability of minors. Some girls reported being pressured or forced into prostitution to help support their families. Also, increased levels of prostitution have, in some areas, increased HIV/AIDS percentages. The pull of neighboring countries and better quality of life also increases migration and vulnerability to trafficking and exploitation. The report addresses both voluntary and forced migration, focusing on trafficking for sexual exploitation in terms of forced migration. In terms of child sex tourism, the report notes that most exploitation is at the hands of locals (although foreigners obviously play a large part as well). In some countries, sexual exploitation is linked to tourism; in others it is perpetrated by locals. Sailors from foreign countries also exploit girls in South and Latin America. The report also addresses the role of the Internet in the increasing problem of child sexual exploitation.

**Geronimi, Eduardo, Lorenzo Cachón, and Ezequiel Texidó. “Acuerdos Bilaterales de Migración de Mano de Obra: Estudio de Casos.”** *Estudios sobre Migraciones Internacionales* 66. ILO. March 2004.

This article describes the bilateral migration agreements of Spain with Ecuador and Colombia; Argentina with Bolivia, Paraguay, Peru, and Ukraine; and those within Mercosur. These agreements aim to regulate migration, protect workers, and minimize the extent of smuggling of illegal migrants and trafficking in persons. The Agreement on Residency for Nationals of the Mercosur States, of November 2002, aims to find solutions for the problem of illegal migrants from member states, fight the trafficking in persons, and establish common norms for residency permits. Mexico and Guatemala developed their own bilateral agreement in 2002 for agricultural workers, to facilitate the two countries’ exchange of information and addressing smuggling of migrants and their regularization in the destination country. Colombia and Ecuador also have a bilateral agreement to control illegal migration, the abuse of social rights, falsification of documents, and the smuggling of persons.

**Guinn, David E. II, and Elissa Steglich. *In Modern Bondage: Sex Trafficking in the Americas*. International Human Rights Law Institute, DePaul University College of Law. 2003.**

Chapter Four of this edited volume describes institutional response mechanisms to combat sex trafficking in Central America (Belize, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Panama) and the Dominican Republic. The research reveals that the region as a whole has assumed important international legal obligations, but is failing in its international commitments, especially with respect to prevention, protection, and integration measures regarding adult victims. At the time of the study, none of the states had ratified the UN Convention on Transnational Organized Crime and its Trafficking Protocol with the exception of Nicaragua, which had ratified only the Convention. The research also found that the UN and OAS mechanisms had been underutilized with respect to trafficking. The study found that a few policy platforms are beginning to emerge that may support more targeted response strategies. Most of the countries have developed national plans against commercial exploitation of children, the worst forms of child labor, and violence and discrimination against women, but at the time of the report, with the exception of the Dominican Republic, none had focused on trafficking. Furthermore, the National Plans against Sexual Exploitation of Children have not necessarily resulted in action because of inadequate funding and implementation.

The study states that no country in the region has legislation against all forms of trafficking for purposes of commercial sexual exploitation, but virtually all countries in the region (with the exception of El Salvador) have laws in their penal codes that punish trafficking activity for the purposes of prostitution. Laws vary throughout the region with respect to what constitutes trafficking and the penalties incurred. In Belize, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, and Panama's legislation, trafficking provisions apply to nationals as well as foreigners; laws in Nicaragua and the Dominican Republic are less clear on this issue. In practice, the study concludes that implementation of existing protection measures is weak. There is a scarcity of human, technical, and financial resources, but other factors that contribute to inaction include scarce reporting and minimal trafficking data; absence of the issue on national and regional agendas; weak enforcement mechanisms; lack of expertise and specialized services; and minimal coordination between relevant actors at all levels.

**ILAB (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of International Labor Affairs). *Technical Cooperation Project Summaries*. 2003.**

The ILAB project summaries outline the U.S. Department of Labor's actions in Latin America on child labor. All of the projects are run through IPEC-ILO. One project focuses on the elimination of the worst forms of child labor in Brazil through a time-bound project aiming to increase the knowledge base, raise public awareness, increase the educational system's capacity to respond, assist national and local institutions to enforce legislation, and withdraw children from the worst forms of child labor. The project focus is on children working in agriculture, the informal sector, domestic labor, and drug farming and trafficking.

Another project focuses on child domestic labor in Brazil, Colombia, Paraguay, and Peru. The activities focus on making relevant data available, recommending changes in the national legislation, and strengthening the capacity of local and national institutions to combat child domestic labor and to provide families of origin with alternative income-generating activities. The third project, based in the border area between Brazil and Paraguay, focuses on the elimination of commercial sexual exploitation of children through the identification of gaps in the legal system, collection of reliable information, strengthening the capacity of organizations to respond, and rescuing 1,000 victims.

**ILO Brazil. IPEC Programme Brazil. *Main Activities Developed on Commercial Sexual Exploitation.* April 2004.**

IPEC in Brazil is collaborating with the Brazilian government and the UN Office of Drugs and Crime (UNODC) on an anti-trafficking program funded by the U.S. State Department. The program aims to strengthen the government's National Plan of Action for the Elimination of Commercial Sexual Exploitation started in 2000, which focuses on knowledge generation, awareness raising, training, institutional development, and income generation. IPEC has already worked with police, public prosecutors, judges, and customs and immigration departments in order to prevent and rescue victims of trafficking; has helped run national awareness campaigns with the private sector; and has assisted in drafting the Ministry of Justice's proposal to strengthen penal repercussions for sexual crimes. Through its program, IPEC has determined that most of the trafficking in Brazil is for agriculture, sweatshops (with people from Bolivia brought to Brazilian metropolitan areas), and sexual exploitation and pornography. Women trafficked for sex are taken to the Netherlands, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Germany, and the United States. Currently, the Ministry of Justice runs yearly campaigns in the northeast during carnival against exploitation, and has taken repressive actions against perpetrators and traffickers; the Ministry of Social Development provides psychosocial support to sexually exploited girls and boys; the Ministry of Labor has a Youth Employment Program for poor 16–24 year olds; and the Ministry of Tourism is involved in finding jobs for victims and not renewing the licenses of hotels that refuse to cooperate in anti-exploitation initiatives. ILO and UNODC are working to develop a joint plan for the coordination of work on trafficking. The personal commitment to this issue expressed by President Lula has strengthened overall governmental participation.

**Implementation of Resolution CIM/RES. 224 (XXXI-0/02), Follow-up of the Convention of Belem do Para, adopted at the thirty-first meeting of the Assembly of Delegates of the CIM. Information document. February 1, 2004. Second Ministerial Meeting, Advancement of Women. April 21–23, 2004.**

This document is an update commissioned by OAS to the CIM permanent secretariat as part of its biennial progress report on the Belem Convention of March 1995. The convention calls upon state parties to prevent violence against women and to provide appropriate legal services for redress. The update states that most countries in the region have amended their

penal legislation or adopted special laws to punish violence against women. It also mentions the project “Violence in the Americas—A Regional Analysis,” conducted by CIM with the International Center for Criminal Law Reform and Criminal Justice Policy of Vancouver and the United Nations Latin American Institute for the Prevention of Crimes and the Treatment of Offenders (ILANUD). The analysis showed that there is very limited specific protection for women who are victims of violence, and that judges, magistrates, and justice system staff have inadequate knowledge of the issue. The Convention of Belem calls for states to provide specialized services to victims of violence, with psychosocial and legal crisis counseling for rehabilitation. Although there has been significant progress in delivery of services, the level is inadequate compared to the demand. There is a shortage of safe shelters and a lack of services in rural and slum communities. There is also a serious gap with regard to statistics and records of violence. A follow-up resolution adopted by OAS in October 2002 reminds member states of their commitments and urges them to raise public awareness, develop policies on violence against women, train the personnel working with the women, allocate needed resources, and collect sufficient data.

**Instituto Interamericano del Niño/Inter-American Children’s Institute (IIN/IACI).  
*Fourth Report on the Situation of the Commercial Exploitation of Children and  
Adolescents in the Americas – 2003.***

This is the fourth report as provided for in resolution AG/RES. 1667 (XXIX-0/99), adopted by the General Assembly of the OAS on June 7, 1991, which intends to account for the progress achieved by the member states in compliance with the objectives set forth in Stockholm in 1996 in the “Montevideo Commitment” and in the 2001 Declaration of Yokohama. The report is based upon telephone interviews that were taped and transcribed. Significant progress was detected within OAS states in connection with the ratification of ILO Convention 182 on the worst forms of child labor, and ratifications are recorded in this report. Ratifications of the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on Child Trade, Prostitution, and Pornography are also included. A report of states with a plan of action is included, noting that 56 percent of OAS states reported having a plan of action. The report also breaks actions down into specific categories, including research, treatment and reinsertion, prevention, protection, and coordination. The data show the most action in the areas of prevention and protection. The report explores the effectiveness of programs/measures and legislation to address the problem. The situation in the following five countries could not be evaluated: Barbados, Haiti, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent, and the Grenadines and Trinidad and Tobago. The report concludes by noting that significant progress has been achieved in the region in the planning and implementation of national plans of action. According to the data, most countries have a plan of action, primarily of a material and financial nature. Nine of 13 countries reported that plans were properly funded. The report shows positive trends regarding improvement of legal and judicial systems, and 12 countries showed an actual development in the area of criminal justice. Fewer countries (45 percent) had recovery and reinsertion services available for victims. Only 45 percent showed the existence of adequate legislation to deal with the issue, and only 5 countries stated that prevention, protection, and rehabilitation measures had been effective.



**IOM. *North American and Caribbean Supplement to IOM News*. No. 4. 2003.**

This edition of the IOM newsletter features the OAS Inter-American Commission of Women project called “Counter-trafficking of women and children for exploitation purposes in the Caribbean.” This regional initiative, founded after a seminar in October 2002, aims to strengthen the capacity of governments in the region to enforce legislation already in place to protect victims and penalize traffickers.

**IOM. Press Briefing Notes. June 29, 2004.**

These notes contain information regarding the National Network to Combat Trafficking in Human Beings in the Dominican Republic. The creation of this network brought together government officials, community leaders, NGOs, academics, and others working in the trafficking field. The notes include estimates of the numbers of trafficking victims within the region, an analysis of the growing problem, and identification of the major destination countries for trafficking victims. The primary aims of the network are identified as providing assistance to trafficking victims and prosecuting traffickers.

**IOM. Press Briefing Notes. July 13, 2004.**

These notes contain information regarding the First International Forum on the Implementation of Justice in Trafficking hosted by IOM offices in the Dominican Republic and Colombia. Victim assistance and protection were the primary focus of this four-day event, which was attended by officials from Colombia, the Dominican Republic, the U.S. Department of State, and the Department of Security Administration (DAS-INTERPOL). The notes include data on numbers of victims within the Latin American region as well as information regarding which countries serve as origin, transit, and destination points.

**IOM. Press Briefing Notes. July 23, 2004.**

These briefing notes include information related to countertrafficking in Bolivia. The notes describe a countertrafficking program (funded by USAID) that will begin comprehensive research on the extent of trafficking within Bolivia, specifically migration from rural to urban areas. The notes state that human trafficking in Bolivia is believed to pertain not only to sexual exploitation but also to forced labor, sale of organs, and false adoption. The notes include brief analysis of trafficking in Bolivia, including push/pull factors and the particular vulnerability of children.

***IPEC. Good practices: Trafficking of Children for Labour and Sexual Exploitation. Brazil. Unpublished. 1998.***

Employers' organizations, through the Confederacao Nacional da Industria (CNI), have participated in programs against child labor with IPEC since 1994. CNI uses its vocational training and educational structures to help prevent the sexual exploitation of children. In Pernambuco and Bahia, CNI assisted 383 children between 1994 and 1995, a small number given the estimated 500,000 children ages 9–17 thought to be commercially sexually exploited in Brazil. Nonetheless, the success of this program lay in its ability to link well-respected community NGOs with employers' organizations. While the former provided health and social services, the latter provided vocational training and subsequent job placement. CNI negotiated with schools in Bahia to contract a group that hired 15+-year-old children to make their bread, and with restaurants and garbage collectors for children to make their uniforms. This initiative was novel in that it brought vocational institutions that are not involved with this segment of the population to social action. Challenges lay in adapting the training to a group that had very low education levels. This program could work in other large countries. In smaller economies, job placement may be difficult.

***IPEC/ILO. Unbearable to the Human Heart: Child Trafficking and Action to Eliminate It. 2002.***

This document provides an update on the patterns of trafficking globally and actions taken to combat it, providing information on emerging responses and lessons learned. It discusses available documents, the lead role of the U.S. government, and the actions of international organizations.

In 2001, IPEC launched a three-year program, "Prevention and elimination of commercial sexual exploitation of children and adolescents," focusing on the Brazil/Paraguay border. A year later, a program to build the knowledge base on CSEC was launched in Central America. The paper describes Brazil's active role in combating CSEC through a successful mass-media campaign called "Brazil is watching you"; the efforts of ANDI, a children's rights news agency; the help of adult women in prostitution speaking to young girls in tourist areas about the risks that they face; and collaboration between private and public sectors for the establishment of rehabilitation programs for children in prostitution with vocational training and educational courses. IPEC has assisted in developing 13 national plans of action for the prevention and eradication of child labor, and has assisted in the development of national steering committees. In the region, IPEC focuses its efforts on supporting projects against the commercial sexual exploitation of children and the use and abuse of child domestic workers.

**Langberg, Laura. Workshop on anti-trafficking initiatives in Asia, Latin America, The Caribbean, and the United States. Organized by the Japan Program and Region 1 of the Inter-American Development Bank (IADB). June 18, 2003.**

This conference report details the discussions of the Inter-American Development Bank conference on trafficking. Detailed comments by participants are provided. The report mentions that studies of trafficking in Africa and Latin America are underresearched and underfunded. The conference focused on the five Ps of anti-trafficking action: prevention, protection, prosecution, provision, and participation by all actors. Participants were reminded that in June 2003, the OAS General Assembly adopted a resolution, "Fighting the Crime of Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women, Adolescents and Children," urging member states to enhance their legal, judicial, and administrative systems, and to consider the establishment, where appropriate, of a national coordination mechanism to prevent and combat the crime of trafficking in persons and to protect the victims.

Casa Alianza called for the establishment of a code of conduct for the tourist industry, so as to reduce demand for commercial sex. A representative from Brazil's Ministry of Justice emphasized the need for cross-border cooperation with Brazil's 10 neighbors, as well as for reinforcement of community councils to assist with anti-trafficking strategies.

**Maki, Francis T., and Grace Park. *Trafficking in Women and Children: The US and International Response*. Congressional Research Service Report 98-649C. May 2000.**

This document provides a general overview of the causes and dynamics of trafficking globally and regionally. The section on Latin America and the Caribbean is very brief, with focus on the growing sex tourist industry. The paper describes actions taken to combat trafficking by the Clinton and Bush administrations, and provides a summary and critique of the 2003 Trafficking in Persons Report. Actions taken by the European and American parliament and congress are described, major policy questions are raised (such as the impact of counterterrorism on efforts to combat trafficking), and budget allocations are shown.

**Mendoca, Bendito. *Brazil Too Lenient on Child Sex Predators*. Agencia Brasil. May 2004.**

This article presents information on a Brazilian Congress Commission's efforts to change Brazil's Penal Code to impose more rigorous punishment for sexual crimes against children and adolescents. The crimes are currently "offenses against the public morals" and not sex crimes. Rape is a violation only when the victims are female, and trafficking is only considered a crime when it is international. On May 18, the President was expected to sign the National Convention for the Eradication of Sexual Exploitation of Children and Adolescents proposed by the National Congress's Joint Parliamentary Investigating Commission. The Commission, installed last June, has received around 800 denunciations from around the country. The Federal Highway Police Inspector, Junie Pena, surveyed the

principal locations where child prostitution is practiced along the highways, signaling two new routes out of the country: north to Surinam and south to Argentina and Uruguay.

**Ministry of Labour, Human Services, and Social Security. *Guyana: Report of Sexual Exploitation*. Presented by The Honorable Bibi Safora Shadick at Caribbean Regional Consultation of the 2<sup>nd</sup> World Congress against Commercial and Sexual Exploitation of Children. November 2001.**<sup>11</sup>

This brief report, given by the Ministry of Labour, Human Services, and Social Security, details its services and duties; the entire Ministry is responsible for the welfare of children. In addition to explaining its duties, the Ministry presents facts and figures on the sexual abuse and exploitation of Guyanese children. This report looks at domestic abuse as well as prostitution. More importantly, relevant laws, gaps in protections, and possible solutions are discussed. The Ministry mentions a 2000 report of the Guyana Human Rights Association that discusses the use of teenage girls as prostitutes in border towns.

**OAS. Resolution AG/RES. 1948 (XXXIII-O/03). *Fighting the Crime of Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women, Adolescents, and Children*. Adopted on June 10, 2003.**

This resolution adopted by OAS member states reaffirms that trafficking in children is a modern form of slavery and urges member states to: 1) enhance their legal, judicial, and administrative systems and establish national coordination mechanisms to prevent and combat the crime of trafficking in persons and to protect children, and 2) requests that the Permanent Secretariat of the Inter-American Commission of Women facilitate the exchange of information and best practices and expand its research. It also calls for the appointment of an OAS coordinator on the issue of trafficking persons, especially women, adolescents, and children.

**The Protection Project. *Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, in the Countries of the Americas: A Regional Report on the Scope of the Problem and Governmental and Non-Governmental Responses*. March 2002.**

This report is divided into five sections. The first section provides an overview of the problem, including analysis of the various routes and forms of trafficking. The second section explores governmental and nongovernmental responses to trafficking in the areas of protection, prevention, and prosecution. The third section examines the legal framework of dealing with trafficking and provides country-specific information/data. The fourth section offers recommendations, and the fifth section provides an annotated bibliography including journal articles, reports and papers, and newspaper articles.

<sup>11</sup> Annotation adapted from IOM. Annotated Reference List, Caribbean Counter-Trafficking Project. IOM. 2004.

In terms of recommendations, the report addresses the following: filling the gaps in existing research; alleviating the contributing factors to trafficking in persons, particularly regarding women and children in the countries of the Americas; a human rights approach to trafficking; developing appropriate responses for governmental and nongovernmental organizations; meeting minimum standards of the U.S. Trafficking Victims Protection Act (TVPA) as they apply to the countries of the Americas; providing elements of anti-trafficking legislation; general principles underlying anti-trafficking legislation; and regional cooperation. This report advocates shifting an anti-trafficking response away from an interception-detention-repatriation model to a prevention-protection-prosecution model. The report addresses trafficking not only in the context of prostitution but also for other forms of sexual exploitation as well as trafficking for domestic service, illegal adoption, and military service.

**Red Regional de Organizaciones Civiles para las Migraciones (RROCM). *La Trata y el Trafico de Personas en los Paises Miembros de la Conferencia Regional sobre Migracion (CRM): Consideraciones Relacionadas con Iniciativas para Combatir la Trata y el Trafico.* Mayo 2003.**

This document provides definitions to distinguish between “la trata,” a crime against an individual as defined by the Protocol on trafficking, and “el trafico,” a crime against the state, in which a person is helped to illegally cross borders. There is, of course, overlap, as women who are “traficadas” can also be abused along the way. The document provides a list of international and regional instruments relevant to trafficking, and states that of the CRM member countries, only the United States has a specific law against trafficking. Other countries have laws that criminalize forced labor, child pornography, etc. The paper calls for an evaluation of the implementation of the existing laws, so that gaps can be identified, better enforcement mechanisms instituted, and specific trafficking laws elaborated. The document concludes with a guide to what laws on trafficking should include and suggestions for civil society action.

**Shirk, David, and Alexandra Webber. “Slavery Without Borders: Human Trafficking in the U.S.-Mexican Context.” *Hemisphere Focus* XII(5). CSIS. January 2004.**

This article provides an overview of human trafficking between the United States and Mexico, noting that Mexico is the source of 18,000 people trafficked to the United States annually. Mexico, the authors conclude, is also a key transit point for third-country migration, particularly from Central America. Mexico has also become a major destination for sex tourism and pedophiles, especially from the United States. The authors also address the various types of trafficking between the United States and Mexico, including labor exploitation and forced labor, sexual slavery, sex tourism, illegal adoptions, and organ trafficking. Included as well is a section dedicated to analysis of the contributing factors, which the authors argue are related to major trends in the new global economy: increased flow of goods, capital, and people; socioeconomic inequalities; and demographic shifts in

international migration. Other contributing factors include technological innovation and challenges related to rule of law and administration of justice.

Shirk and Webber include analysis of U.S. and Mexican response to trafficking, including the fact that both Mexico and the United States have taken steps toward meeting the goals of addressing trafficking through prevention, protection, and prosecution. Both Mexico and the United States have ratified multiple agreements; the authors note, however, that there remain challenges and obstacles to combating trafficking, including the small numbers of successful prosecutions of traffickers and the lack of specific laws dealing with trafficking and its various forms. (Mexico, for example, does not explicitly prohibit prostitution.) Also, according to U.S. State Department reports, while Mexico has achieved a certain level of success in dealing with illicit migration, including trafficking, efforts to punish perpetrators and protect victims have yielded few results.

In order to combat human trafficking, the United States and Mexico must overcome the same challenges as are faced in combating other transnational crime such as drug trafficking and illegal immigration. The authors assert that the track record between the two countries has so far been lacking; however, they note that there are some encouraging signs, including recent legislation and criminal penalties in both countries and the mobilization of nongovernmental organizations and coalitions to address the problem. The authors conclude, however, that renewed focus on immigration policy provides “the single greatest hope for reducing human trafficking in the U.S.-Mexican context.”<sup>12</sup>

**Sin Fronteras, I.A.P. *Informe sobre la Trata en Mexico. Taller Regional sobre la Trata de Personas.* San Jose, Costa Rica. 26–30 de enero 2004.**

This report provides an overview of trafficking in Mexico, with information on government and civil society action and a listing of the relevant international conventions that the Mexican government has ratified.

**Sprandel, Marcia Anita. *A Exploracao Sexual Commercial de Crianças e Adolescents na Legislacao Brasileira—Lacunae e Recomendacoes.* March 2002.**

Sprandel provides a comprehensive analytical review of the Brazilian legislation addressing the commercial sexual exploitation of children. Sprandel reviews Brazil’s engagement on the international level, and provides detail on the federal constitution, the Penal Code, the Statute on Children and Adolescents, the Law on Hideous Crimes, and the Law on Torture. She discusses public policies such as those that funded the elimination of child labor (PETI, Bolsa Escola) but did not explicitly include the commercial sexual exploitation of children until Brazil ratified ILO Convention 182. Brazil’s constitution states that “the law will severely punish abuse, violence, and sexual exploitation of children and adolescents.” The

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<sup>12</sup> p. 4.

Penal Code has severe penalties for rape, which get stronger if the victimized child is under 14. A large national campaign was started in 1995 against sex tourism, started by parliamentarians in Parana. In 2002, a group of men found sexually exploiting children in Fortaleza were incarcerated. Brazil has a very active civil society that works in coordination with government agencies. The Reference Center for Research and Action on Children and Adolescents (CECRIA) and its spin-off, the National Network of Information on Sexual Violence against Children and Adolescents (RECRIA), have been instrumental in identifying organizations working on the issue and in recording hotline calls reporting abuse. Brazil is also notable in its private/public partnerships, particularly with the tourist industry. Sprandel mentions, however, that civil society is worried that insufficient funds have been given to combating commercial sexual exploitation of children. In Brazil, “auto-prostitution” is legal. However, exploiting prostitution is a crime, with severe consequences if conducted with children.

**Survivors Rights International. *Trafficking in Persons: Latin America and the Caribbean*. Undated.**

This article begins with an introduction to worldwide trends in human trafficking, international responses, and legal frameworks. It notes that beyond attention to economic and social root causes, there is increasing international recognition of the link between armed conflict and trafficking of persons.

The article discusses three ways in which conflicts perpetuate trafficking and increase the vulnerability of women and children:

- The destruction of infrastructure, law enforcement institutions, and social cohesion and the phenomenon of refugees across borders create ideal conditions for kidnapping, coercion, and fraud by racketeers;
- The reduction of perceived societal values and the status of rape victims in some post-conflict societies increases their vulnerability; and
- As more countries close their borders, making visas and asylum difficult to obtain and limiting legal migration options, people are forced to turn to trafficking rings to reach safety.

The report notes that information on trafficking in Latin America is limited, but that reports indicate that trafficking to, from, and within the Americas is a growing problem, with some 100,000 persons trafficked annually. The report states that impoverished children are the most vulnerable population throughout Latin America and the Caribbean. The report also provides a specific case study of trafficking in Colombia, noting the effects of Colombia’s ongoing conflict in regard to trafficking. The report states that political instability and social unrest in some areas (particularly Colombia) have created an environment conducive to both regional and international traffickers, and that impoverished children throughout Latin America are most at risk. It concludes that despite efforts by the Colombian government, gender discrimination, economic hardship, and corrupt law enforcement, immigration, and

political officials have made prosecutions infrequent. Lack of education, information, and resources perpetuates the cycle.

**Terre des Hommes. *In Brief: Central America—Child Trafficking in Guatemala, Nicaragua and El Salvador. 2000.***

This brief report provides an overview of child trafficking in these three countries, including a list of push/pull factors that are both regional and country-specific. Whereas, for example, poverty is a regional factor contributing to child trafficking, El Salvador is currently grappling with the effects of its civil war in the 1980s. The report lists the different forms of child trafficking in the region, including adoption (which the report notes is only a problem in Guatemala and El Salvador); prostitution and other forms of commercial sexual exploitation; drug smuggling; trafficking in organs; and forced labor. The report includes analysis of the perception of child trafficking within the public consciousness, noting that the problem is often suppressed or ignored both by the public in general and by law enforcement/government. In terms of legislation and institutional efforts to combat child trafficking in these three countries, the report notes that a lack of civil society in each of the countries is problematic, and specific laws dealing with the issue are sorely lacking. Corruption is also addressed as a factor contributing to the growing problem of child trafficking. In terms of analysis and data regarding specific forms of child trafficking, the report provides the most information on illegal adoptions in Guatemala and El Salvador. Guatemala is also the focus of the section on child trafficking for the purpose of commercial sexual exploitation as well as the sections on drug smuggling and trafficking in organs.

**U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID), Office of Women in Development. *Trafficking in Persons: USAID's Response. March 2004.***

This document provides an update on USAID-supported actions on trafficking worldwide. It notes that there is increased awareness of commercial sexual exploitation of children in Latin America and the Caribbean, and that governments are recognizing the need to cooperate, especially on cross-border issues. However, concrete implementation mechanisms are missing.

This USAID document also contains brief descriptions of anti-trafficking activities within individual countries. In 2003, the Brazilian government formed a network of private and public sector organizations to assist with victim rehabilitation programs. The government held a work-planning workshop with 1,200 professionals from diverse organizations, and provided training for government officials who give direct assistance to victims. In the Dominican Republic, a training program for judicial officers is being funded. In Guatemala, Casa de la Mujer provides rehabilitation support to victims of trafficking in Tecun Uman, most of whom are under 18. In Jamaica, the Bureau for Women's Affairs is developing an educational program for literacy and job skills for women vulnerable to being trafficked.



**U.S. Department of State. *Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act of 2000: Trafficking in Persons Report. June 2003.***

The third annual Trafficking in Persons Report (TIP Report) covers the time period April 2002 through March 2003. The report contains country narratives that provide an overview of the trafficking situation within individual countries and the governments' efforts to combat trafficking. The scope and nature of trafficking is described, as are the governments' compliance with minimum standards and their efforts to prevent trafficking, prosecute traffickers, and protect victims. These factors determine whether each country has been placed in Tier 1, 2, or 3 of the report.

Colombia is the only country that received a Tier 1 placement. The following countries received a Tier 2 placement: Bolivia, Brazil, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Jamaica, Mexico, Nicaragua, and Venezuela. Tier 3 countries from the region are Belize, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Haiti, and Suriname.

**U.S. Department of State. *Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act of 2000: Trafficking in Persons Report. June 2004.***

The third annual TIP Report covers the time period April 2003 through March 2004. The report contains an introduction to the phenomenon of human trafficking, effective strategies in the fight against trafficking, international best practices, country narratives, and U.S. government efforts to fight trafficking. The report's introduction contains several references to trafficking in Latin America, such as the growth of child sex tourism in the region (noting that some Americans travel to Mexico and Central America for this purpose) and the use of child soldiers within the Americas. The international best practices chapter highlights a new anti-trafficking law in Panama that seeks to address trafficking in the context of child pornography, sex tourism, and the use of the Internet (this law obligates airlines, tour agencies, and hotels to inform customers about the new law); Department of Administrative Security's efforts in Colombia to identify and approach potential trafficking victims in airports; and establishment of four anti-trafficking networks in the Dominican Republic among diplomats and consulates in countries that are major destinations for Dominican women being trafficked. Within the International Hero section, the report commends the efforts of the Honorable Francisco Sierra, the Colombian Ambassador to Japan, for his work fostering international cooperation and assistance for victims.

Colombia is the only country that received a Tier 1 placement. The following countries received a Tier 2 placement: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Nicaragua, and Panama. The following countries received a Tier 2 Watch List placement: Belize, Bolivia, Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Honduras, Jamaica, Mexico, Paraguay, Peru, and Suriname. Tier 3 countries from the region are Cuba, Ecuador, Guyana, and Venezuela.

**U.S. Department of State and War Against Trafficking Alliance. *Pathbreaking Strategies in the Fight against Sex Trafficking: Prevention, Protection, Prosecution. Conference Recommendations and Keynote Speeches. 2003.***

The Department of State, in partnership with the nongovernmental War Against Trafficking Alliance, hosted a conference on “Pathbreaking Strategies in the Global Fight Against Sex Trafficking,” February 23–26, 2003. The conference was designed to recognize activists from around the globe who had devised practical solutions to the problem. More than 400 American and international participants met to discuss the most successful strategies against sex trafficking and to suggest innovative methods to combat traffickers and rescue victims. Participants came from more than 100 countries to share lessons they had learned and to find ways to further regional and international cooperation on the issue.

Keynote speaker Francisco Santos Calderón, Vice President of Colombia, spoke on the issue of trafficking in the LAC region. Calderón noted that Colombia, Brazil, and the Dominican Republic are the three countries most affected by human trafficking in the Western hemisphere. Calderón also addressed the root causes of trafficking in the region and what the Colombian government is doing to combat the problem. Regional Workshop #6 focused on trafficking from Latin America to North America. Some of the recommendations include creating a regional network to help locate and assist victims; creating a database of information on traffickers; expanding public education programs; and increasing and training more female police officers. It was noted in the conference notes that, since the conference, participants have established a listserv entitled *No Se Trata*.

**Zabala, Maria Jesús Conde. *Good Practices in the Fight against Sexual Exploitation of Children and Adolescents in Latin America and the Caribbean. UNICEF. 2001.***

In preparation for the II World Congress against Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children and Adolescents, held in December 2001, Zabala examined examples of good practices in the region employed or undertaken since the I World Congress in 1996. Good practices include Brazil’s National Plan of Action to Confront Sexual Violence against Children and Adolescents, which is based upon and exemplifies coordination and cooperation between the government of Brazil and civil society. The Plan assigns precise responsibilities to several participating organizations and sectors, and includes indicators of performance effectiveness. The Costa Rican “Law against Sexual Exploitation of Minors,” passed in 1999, not only enlarges the scope of the crimes related to commercial sexual exploitation of children and adolescents and child pornography, but also introduces a key conceptual change by removing sanctions on the child who was the object of the crime and instead considering him/her a victim. It also introduces severe sanctions for authoring a crime. The Dominican Republic is cited for two specific and complementary measures that have been effective in preventing sex tourism: The Inter-Institutional Board on Prevention and Eradication of Commercial Sexual Exploitation in Tourist Destinations and the Prevention of Child Abuse Emergency Line. According to the first data analysis, 144 days after the line started operating, there had

already been 330 calls. Brazil's "*Meninas Adolescentes*" Project is cited as good practice for rehabilitation and reinsertion of adolescent and children victims of sexual exploitation, and the Ombudsperson's Office of El Salvador serves as an example for participation.

**ANNEX 2**

**ORGANIZATIONS WORKING ON TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS IN  
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN**



## **ORGANIZATIONS WORKING ON TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (LAC)**

**Amnesty International** (AI) was founded in 1961 and has a large research staff based in its International Secretariat in London. AI's researchers work on a country-by-country basis to expose a broad range of human rights abuses and produce reports that directly address issues such as post-conflict trafficking. Some of AI's reports deal with the status of child soldiers and women associated with fighting forces. Others deal with issues of juvenile justice and the questions about holding child soldiers criminally accountable for atrocities they may have committed. AI is one of the steering committee members of the Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers.

In 2004 AI launched a special campaign, "Stop Violence against Women," which draws on the organization's global research into the causes, forms, and remedies of violence against women, and highlights the responsibility of the state, the community, and individuals for taking action to end it. This includes trafficking and other violence against women associated with the presence of international peacekeeping forces in post-conflict societies.

**Web site:** <http://www.amnesty.org/>

**Anti-Slavery International**, founded in 1839, is the world's oldest international human rights organization and the only charity in the United Kingdom to work exclusively against slavery and related abuses. It works at local, national, and international levels to eliminate the system of slavery around the world by urging governments of countries with slavery to develop and implement measures to end it; lobbying governments and intergovernmental agencies to make slavery a priority issue; supporting research to assess the scale of slavery in order to identify measures to end it; working with local organizations to raise public awareness of slavery; educating the public about the realities of slavery; and campaigning for its end. Anti-Slavery International's work is divided among three teams: Programme, Communication and Information, enabling it to work effectively toward achieving its goal of a slave-free world.

**Web site:** <http://www.antislavery.org/>

**Casa Alianza** is an independent, nonprofit organization dedicated to the rehabilitation and defense of street children in Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, and Nicaragua. Casa Alianza is the Latin American branch of the New York-based Covenant House, whose President is Sister Patricia A. Cruise. A leading advocate of children's rights in the region, Casa Alianza is headquartered in San José, Costa Rica, as is its Executive Director for the Latin American Programs, Bruce Harris.

Founded in Guatemala in 1981, and expanded into Honduras and Mexico in 1986 and into Nicaragua in 1998, Casa Alianza monitors and cares for some 8,961 street children a year, most of whom have been orphaned by civil war, abused or rejected by dysfunctional and poverty-stricken families, and further traumatized by the indifference of the societies in which they live.

**Web site:** <http://www.casa-alianza.org>

**Centro de Referência, Estudos E Ações sobre Crianças e Adolescentes (CECRIA)** é um centro de referência criado em setembro de 1993, para somar ao movimento social em defesa dos direitos de crianças e adolescentes por meio de estudos e ações relacionadas à violação dos direitos de crianças e adolescentes.

**Web site:** <http://www.cecria.org.br>

**Centro Latinoamericano y Caribeño de Demografía (CELADE)** comienzos de la década de 1950 el Consejo Económico y Social de Naciones Unidas acordó (Resolución 571-XIX) solicitar al Secretario General que estudiara las posibilidades de establecer en las regiones subdesarrolladas del mundo, centros para el estudio de los problemas de población y de preparación de personal especializado en el análisis demográfico. Tal iniciativa fue acogida favorablemente por los Gobiernos y las personas interesadas en los estudios de población, haciéndose efectiva la recomendación del Consejo Económico y Social que dio como resultado la creación de centros regionales en Bombay, en El Cairo y en Santiago de Chile. El Convenio entre las Naciones Unidas y el Gobierno de Chile sobre la Provisión de Asistencia Técnica para el Establecimiento de un Centro Latinoamericano de Demografía, fue firmado el 13 de Agosto de 1957. Dicho instrumento estipulaba que, en principio, el Convenio estaría en vigor durante los años 1957, 1958, 1959 y 1960, es decir, por un período que permitiera la celebración de tres cursos docentes.

**Web site:** <http://www.eclac.cl/celade/>

**Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers** was created in 1998 by nongovernmental organizations to end the recruitment of children into armed conflict. It has an International Secretariat based in London. Its steering committee currently includes Amnesty International, Defence for Children International, Human Rights Watch, Jesuit Refugee Service, Quaker United Nations Office (Geneva), Radda Barnen for the International Save the Children Alliance, International Federation Terre des Hommes and World Vision International. It has mobilized national coalitions in almost 40 countries that work to stop the use of children as soldiers—to prevent their recruitment and use, secure their demobilization, and ensure their rehabilitation and reintegration back into society. Its overall goal is to promote the adoption of and adherence to national, regional, and international legal standards that prohibit the recruitment of children under 18 and the recognition of this standard by all armed forces.

Its Web site has a library of documents related to child soldiers, including numbers and use of child soldiers by countries.

**Web site:** [www.child-soldiers.org](http://www.child-soldiers.org)

**Displaced Children and Orphans Fund** was established by the U.S. Congress in 1989. It is administered by USAID. The Fund focuses on issues of loss and displacement among three groups of children: children affected by armed conflict, street children, and children orphaned and otherwise made vulnerable by HIV/AIDS. It currently has more than 25 programs in 19 countries. It has funded a number of reintegration and assistance programs that include child soldiers, children associated with fighting forces, and other victims of trafficking. Some activities have included addressing psychosocial needs in Liberia and reunification of affected children in Sierra Leone.

**Web site:** [www.usaid.gov](http://www.usaid.gov)

**End Child Prostitution, Child Pornography and Trafficking of Children for Sexual Purposes (ECPAT) International** is a network of organizations and individuals working together to eliminate the commercial sexual exploitation of children. It seeks to encourage the world community to ensure that children everywhere enjoy their fundamental rights free from all forms of commercial sexual exploitation. The offices of ECPAT International are located in Bangkok, Thailand.

The main thrust of ECPAT's work is to make a reality of the Agenda for Action adopted by 122 countries at the First World Congress against the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children in Stockholm, Sweden, in 1996. This work takes different forms.

**Web site:** [www.ecpat.net](http://www.ecpat.net)

**Global March Against Child Labor** started in 1998 as a worldwide march to build awareness of the issue of child labor. The Global March movement assesses and lobbies for ratification of the International Labour Organization Convention against the worst forms of child labor. It is a worldwide network of organizations, including World Vision, World Conference of Teachers, and Save the Children Fund UK, with an International Secretariat based in India.

The Global March Web site provides access to reports on trafficking of children worldwide. In particular it has a long list of child trafficking statistics organized by country at [www.globalmarch.org/child-trafficking/statistics.html](http://www.globalmarch.org/child-trafficking/statistics.html).

**Web site:** [www.globalmarch.org](http://www.globalmarch.org)

**Human Rights Watch** is the largest U.S.-based human rights organization, with more than 150 staff worldwide. Its researchers monitor human rights developments in more than 70 countries, produce reports that document patterns of abuse of internationally recognized human rights, and press for changes in policies and practices that promote these violations. Among other reports, Human Rights Watch has published reports exposing consistent patterns in the trafficking of persons around the globe, including trafficking in child soldiers and women associated with the fighting forces. It produces country-specific documentation as well as policy and press briefings and testimony.

**Web site:** [www.hrw.org](http://www.hrw.org)

**Inter-American Children's Institute's (IACI)/Instituto Interamericano del Niño (IIN)**, a special organization of the Organization of American States, was created by the Fourth Pan



American Child Congress in 1924 and founded in 1927. The purpose of the IACI is to further the study of problems relating to children and the family and to help solve them. It has its headquarters in Montevideo, Uruguay, and its Director General is Eugenia Zamora Chavarría. The IACI is implementing the Inter-American Plan of Action for Disadvantaged Children, which the General Assembly approved in 1989.

**Web site:** [www.iin.oea.org](http://www.iin.oea.org)

**International Labour Organization (ILO)**, through its **International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC)** addresses the use of children in armed conflict, labeling it one of the worst forms of child labor. In addition to research and documentation on trafficking of children and the use of child soldiers, the ILO conducts relevant programs. The Sub regional Programme for the Reintegration of Child Soldiers and the Prevention of the Use of Children in Armed Conflict in Central Africa was started in 2001 and includes activities in Burundi, Congo, DRC, and Rwanda.

**Web site:** [www.ilo.org](http://www.ilo.org)

**International Organization for Migration (IOM)/Organización Internacional par alas Migraciones (OIM)** has a countertrafficking program geared towards the prevention of trafficking in persons, particularly women and children, and the protection of migrants' rights. It carries out information campaigns, provides counseling services, conducts research on trafficking, and provides safe return and reintegration assistance for victims of trafficking. Its Web site has a list of its countertrafficking projects and reports on human trafficking.

**Web site:** [www.iom.org](http://www.iom.org)

**International Save the Children Alliance** has links to the Web sites of 30 national Save the Children offices and programs. Each national site has references to its programs dealing with child trafficking and children's protection and support. Save the Children Sweden sponsors a free quarterly *Child Soldiers Newsletter* with information and campaign updates from the Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers. Subscriptions: [admin@child-soldiers.org](mailto:admin@child-soldiers.org).

**Web site:** [www.savethechildren.org](http://www.savethechildren.org) (click on "international alliance")

**Organization of American States (OAS)** brings together the countries of the Western hemisphere to strengthen cooperation and advance common interests. It is the region's premier forum for multilateral dialogue and concerted action.

At the core of the OAS mission is an unequivocal commitment to democracy, as expressed in the Inter-American Democratic Charter: "The peoples of the Americas have a right to democracy and their governments have an obligation to promote and defend it." Building on this foundation, the OAS works to promote good governance, strengthen human rights, foster peace and security, expand trade, and address the complex problems caused by poverty, drugs, and corruption. Through decisions made by its political bodies and programs carried out by its General Secretariat, the OAS promotes greater inter-American cooperation and understanding.

The OAS member states have intensified their cooperation since the end of the Cold War, taking on new and important challenges. In 1994, the region's 34 democratically elected

presidents and prime ministers met in Miami for the First Summit of the Americas, where they established broad political, economic, and social development goals. They have continued to meet periodically since then to examine common interests and priorities. Through the ongoing Summits of the Americas process, the region's leaders have entrusted the OAS with a growing number of responsibilities to help advance the countries' shared vision.

**Web site:** <http://www.oas.org/>

**The Protection Project** is a legal human rights research institute based at the Johns Hopkins University School of Advanced International Studies in Washington, D.C. The Project documents and disseminates information about the scope of the problem of trafficking in persons, especially women and children, with a focus on national and international laws, case law, and implications of trafficking on U.S. and international foreign policy.

The Protection Project has collected the criminal laws concerning trafficking for the purpose of commercial sexual exploitation from more than 190 countries. The Project has analyzed these laws and their adequacy in addressing the various issues of trafficking in persons, including the prevention of trafficking acts and the protection of trafficking victims. The Project has also documented the immigration laws for the purpose of examining the immigration status of and the assistance provided to victims of trafficking.

**Web site:** <http://www.protectionproject.org>

**Survivors Rights International (SRI)** strives to raise awareness of genocidal atrocities that are not receiving adequate media attention, particularly those stemming from conflict situations. Genocidal atrocities are crimes involving sustained attacks against an identifiable group(s) by organized perpetrators (usually with state support or acquiescence) and threaten the existence of the group.

SRI's scope of work is based on the definition of genocide contained in the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide (Genocide Convention); the definition of crimes against humanity as recognized under customary international law and for the first time in July 1998 included in a multilateral treaty, the Rome Statute (that was later codified as the International Criminal Court Statute. It is important to note that U.S. opposition to the formation of an international criminal court does not concern the Rome Statute's definition of crimes against humanity. The United States War Crimes delegation was instrumental in developing the definition of crimes against humanity as contained in the Rome Statute); and the definitions of other war crimes as defined under international humanitarian law and contained in the four Geneva Conventions of 1949 and their 1977 Additional Protocols governing the conduct and rules of war.

**Web site:** <http://www.survivorsrightsinternational.org/>

**Terre des Hommes** on October 2001 launched an international Campaign to Stop Child Trafficking. The campaign is run—together with local partners—by regional coordinators and delegates in Western and Eastern Europe, South East Asia, India, Latin America, and South and West Africa. The common goal is to provide better protection for children at risk and to ensure that offenders are effectively prosecuted. An important part of the campaign

work will be focused on running programs, for example to repatriate victims of child trafficking to their country of origin in safe conditions and to promote measures to protect the children. More information on the campaign are available on the Web site [www.stopchildtrafficking.org](http://www.stopchildtrafficking.org).

**Web site:** [www.terredeshommes.org](http://www.terredeshommes.org)

**United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF)** focuses on the issues of children. It has extensive programs on child protection—both in armed conflicts and from human trafficking and sexual exploitation. UNICEF is the lead agency for the protection and reintegration of child soldiers and children associated with armed forces in disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR) programs and its Web site has an extensive list of documents relating to that work and other child protection and anti-trafficking activities.

**Web site:** [www.unicef.org](http://www.unicef.org)

**United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM)** is a program of the United National Development Programme (UNDP). It works to achieve gender justice and strengthen women’s leadership and has a broad range of programs. It commissioned the UN study on women at war and peace. Its Web site has links to resources on women, war, and peace and to other organizations working in the sector.

**Web site:** [www.unifem.org](http://www.unifem.org)

**United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC)** coordinates the work of the 14 UN specialized agencies, 10 functional commissions, and 5 regional commissions; receives reports from 11 UN funds and programs; and issues policy recommendations to the UN system and to member states. Under the UN Charter, ECOSOC is responsible for promoting higher standards of living, full employment, and economic and social progress; identifying solutions to international economic, social, and health problems; facilitating international cultural and educational cooperation; and encouraging universal respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. ECOSOC's purview extends to over 70 percent of the human and financial resources of the entire UN system.

**Web site:** <http://www.un.org/esa/coordination/ecosoc/>

**United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)** does research on political, legal, and sociocultural factors relating to trafficking and looks at the training of civil society and policy makers. It has also created a Global Information Networks in Education site (GINIE) for online learning for educational professionals. This GINIE crisis site includes a section on child soldiers that has links to global perspectives on child soldiers, methods and best practices, and research materials. In addition it includes UNICEF evaluations and lessons learned from some of its DDR programs for child soldiers.

**Web sites:** [www.unesco.org](http://www.unesco.org) and [www.ginie.org/ginie-crises-links/childsoldiers](http://www.ginie.org/ginie-crises-links/childsoldiers)

**United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (UNCHR)** works on the protection of human rights, especially in countries in conflict. This includes an interest in the problem of trafficking of women and children. It has appointed a Special Rapporteur on the sale of children, child prostitution, and child pornography. UNCHR provides support to relevant

mechanisms dealing with human trafficking and related exploitation and has developed its own anti-trafficking programs.

**Web site:** [www.unhchr.ch](http://www.unhchr.ch)

**United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)** focuses on legal protection for refugees and ensures that the basic human rights of these vulnerable persons are protected. In addition to protection, UNHCR has specific programs that address human trafficking problems in conflict areas. Information on these programs and UNCHR resources on anti-trafficking of refugees can be found at its Web site.

**Web site:** [www.unhcr.ch](http://www.unhcr.ch)

**United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI)** is mandated to contribute to the formulation and implementation of improved policies in the field of crime prevention and control through research, training, field activities, and the collection, exchange, and dissemination of information. The Institute assists intergovernmental, governmental and nongovernmental organizations. In recent years, UNICRI has conducted activities targeted at the prevention and control of trafficking in persons (TIP), such as a major international conference “New Frontiers of Crime: Trafficking in Human Beings and New Forms of Slavery” (October 1999) and research projects on TIP in the Philippines, the Czech Republic, Poland, Benin, Nigeria, and Togo. UNICRI has also been carrying out a model technical cooperation project aimed at strengthening institutional capacity against TIP in Nigeria (origin country) and establishing joint law enforcement/justice task forces between Nigeria and European destination countries.

**Web site:** [www.unicri.it](http://www.unicri.it)

**United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC)** is mandated to assist UN member states in their fight against illicit drugs, crime, and terrorism. Its work includes research and analysis to increase knowledge and understanding of drugs and crime issues and expand the evidence-base for policy and operational decisions. It also has field-based technical cooperation projects to counter illicit drugs, crime, and terrorism. UNODC works on the links between organized crime and human trafficking. Its Web site includes documents on human trafficking, information on technical assistance projects, and trafficking links.

**Web site:** [www.unodc.org](http://www.unodc.org)

**U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID)** coordinates its anti-trafficking activities through its **Office of Women in Development (EGAT/WID)**. Established in 1974, the WID Office has anti-trafficking program experience in 40 countries. Current anti-trafficking programs are detailed in *USAID's Trafficking in Persons: USAID's Response. USAID 2003 Anti-Trafficking Activities*.

The WID Office provides technical assistance to support the anti-trafficking activities of USAID missions and bureaus. This is done through an indefinite quantity contract (IQC) with Development Alternatives, Inc., which helps to identify and develop activities to fight trafficking and to develop policies, strategies, and indicators on trafficking. The IQC also evaluates existing anti-trafficking activities and carries out studies and research. The IQC

funded this literature review and report. The WID Office also supports a small number of anti-trafficking activities in the field. Most of these are jointly funded with USAID missions or regional bureaus and either break new ground, build on other USAID work, or have potential regional anti-trafficking benefits.

**Web site:** [www.usaid.gov/our\\_work/cross-cutting\\_programs/wid/](http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/wid/)

**Watchlist on Children and Armed Conflict** is a network of local, regional, and international nongovernmental organizations working to protect the security and rights of children in armed conflicts. It monitors the impact of armed conflict on children, compiles reports about children, including adolescents, and works to influence programs and policies to improve their lives.

The Watchlist is given information by NGOs, UN agencies, and others working in the sector and compiles this information and publishes reports. Analysis and guidance is provided by an advisory team composed of experts, country experts, and its Steering Committee members, which include Care International, Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers, International Save the Children Alliance, Norwegian Refugee Council, Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children, and World Vision.

**Web site:** [www.watchlist.org](http://www.watchlist.org)

**Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children** is an independent affiliate of the International Rescue Committee founded in 1989. It works to improve the lives and protect the rights of refugee and internally displaced women, children, and adolescents. It does advocacy work, provides technical expertise, and makes recommendations to policy makers based on research and fact finding. Its Web site has links to the organizations working in this sector (both NGO and UN) as well as publications.

**Web site:** [www.womenscommission.org](http://www.womenscommission.org)

**Women's Human Rights Network** is a project of the Association for Women's Rights in Development. It provides comprehensive information and analysis on women's rights and global issues. Its Web site has many links to organizations and documents, including a library of work on women, conflict, and war.

**Web site:** [www.hrnet.org](http://www.hrnet.org)

**WomenWatch** is an interagency Web site for UN agencies managed by the United Nations Inter-Agency Network on Women and Gender Equality. It is the central gateway to information and resources on the promotion of gender equality and empowerment of women throughout the UN system. There is a long list of links at this site for documents and organizations working on girls and women in conflict.

**Web site:** [www.un.org/womenwatch](http://www.un.org/womenwatch)

**World Bank's Conflict Prevention and Reconstruction Unit** conducts research and provides analysis on conflict and development to support its country units working in conflict-affected areas. It also has a Post-Conflict Fund that provides financing for physical and social reconstruction initiatives in post-war societies. Through assessment of the causes, consequences, and characteristics of conflict and the transfer of lessons learned, the Unit works

to design development efforts specific to conflict-affected countries to help prevent future conflict and ease the post-conflict transition. Themes of the Unit include Children and Youth, Gender and Conflict, Refugees and IDPs, and DDR. It has a series of works on addressing gender issues in DDR programs and child soldiers that can be accessed through its Web site.

**Web site:** [www.worldbank.org](http://www.worldbank.org)

**ANNEX 3**

**LAC TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS (TIP) STATUS CHART**





## LAC TIP STATUS CHART

Country	USG 2004 Tier Placement	UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress & Punish TIP		ILO Convention 182	Optional Protocol of CRC	Optional Protocol of CRC	Optional Protocol CRC Armed Conflict		TIP Law	TIP Coordinator/ Task Force	National Plan on CSEC	Age of Consent to Work
		Signed	Ratified (a)	Ratified	Signed	Ratified/(a)	Signed	Ratified/(a)				
Argentina	Tier 2	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X	14
Belize	Tier 2 (W)		X(a)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		14
Bolivia	Tier 2 (W)	X		X	X	X						14
Brazil	Tier 2	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	14
Chile	Tier 2	X		X	X	X	X	X			X	14
Colombia	Tier 1	X			X	X	X		X	X	X	14
Costa Rica	Tier 2	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	15
DR	Tier 2 (W)	X		X			X		X		X	15
Ecuador	Tier 3	X	X	X	X	X	X			X		14
El Salvador	Tier 2	X	X	X	X		X	X	X		X	14
Guatemala	Tier 2 (W)		X(a)	X	X	X	X	X			X	14
Guyana	Tier 3			X						X		14
Haiti		X			X		X					15
Honduras	Tier 2 (W)			X		X(a)		X(a)				16
Jamaica	Tier 2 (W)	X		X	X		X	X				12
Mexico	Tier 2 (W)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X	14
Nicaragua	Tier 2			X							X	14
Panama	Tier 2	X		X	X	X	X	X	X			14
Paraguay	Tier 2 (W)	X		X	X	X	X	X	X		X	15
Peru	Tier 2 (W)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X		16
Suriname	Tier 2 (W)				X		X			X		14
Venezuela	Tier 3	X	X		X	X	X	X				14

\* For an explanation of Tier Placement, see USG *Trafficking in Persons Report*, June 2004.

\*\* (W) indicates placement on Tier 2 Watchlist as opposed to Tier 2.

\*\*\* (a) indicates accession.

**ANNEX 4**  
**SCOPE OF WORK**



## SCOPE OF WORK

### Literature Review and Analysis related to Human Trafficking in USAID-assisted Latin American Countries

#### BACKGROUND

Trafficking in persons, for labor and sexual exploitation, especially as prostitutes or domestic servants, is on the rise in the LAC region. Trafficking children for prostitution to tourist destinations in countries such as Brazil, the Dominican Republic, Mexico, Honduras, Costa Rica, Trinidad and Tobago, and Argentina is growing rapidly.

Regional conflicts, such as the crisis in Haiti, compound the trafficking problem and have led to the displacement of thousands of women and children. A recent IOM study of Haitian children trafficked to the Dominican Republic (DR) found that more than 4000 children aged 5 to 15 are trafficked per year to the Dominican Republic for agricultural labor, begging groups, street services or resorts.<sup>13</sup> Latin America is also becoming a transit point for trafficked women en route to Europe, North America, and Australia.

Migrant workers, who move from rural to urban populations seeking employment, or those who illegally cross borders seeking economic opportunities, are vulnerable to traffickers. Once trafficked, victims are often held in debt bondage and controlled through violence, the threat of violence, restricted access to earnings, and demonstrations of impunity through open collaboration with authorities. High levels of corruption and collusion, and the absence of effective anti-trafficking legal frameworks compound human trafficking in the region.

Last year, the Inter-American Commission on Women passed a Resolution which was approved by the OAS General Assembly –fourth plenary session-(June 10, 2003, XXXIII-O/03) entitled *Fighting the Crime of Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women, Adolescents, and Children*. This resolution represents one of the first major steps in the region towards building consensus to combat human trafficking. The time is ripe to operationalize government commitments made by the OAS resolution, and strengthen NGOs capacities to support trafficking victims, and advocate for change.

*The USAID LAC bureau has identified human trafficking as an issue to be addressed in FY 2004-2005. Before interventions can be designed, however, the LAC bureau is requesting a rigorous literature review be conducted to determine what has been done in this area and where are the gaps.*

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<sup>13</sup> Trafficking in Persons, USAID's Response, September 2002, p. 13.

## PURPOSE OF THE LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this literature review, therefore, is to identify, annotate and synthesize without recommendations for action, research studies and available projects/interventions reviews and assessments related to trafficking in the LAC region.

This includes 3 sub-regions of the Latin American Caribbean Region:

- Central America:  
Mexico, Guatemala, El Salvador
- The Caribbean:  
Dominican Republic, Jamaica, Guyana
- South America:  
Tri-border region of Paraguay, Argentina and Brazil

The consultant(s) will especially look for documentation in the LAC region on the following themes connected to human trafficking:

- Government/political will for implementing anti-trafficking measures on the country and regional basis;
- Civil society capacities to engage in anti-trafficking activities, particularly institutional development, cross-border NGO collaboration/networking; advocacy; and service provision;
- Rule of law programs, including legislative strengthening, parliamentary training, law reform, legal advocacy, or training for prosecutors and judges;
- Potential for public/private partnership in promoting prevention campaigns to combat public demand for sexual slavery.

## TASKS

1. **Literature search**: The consultant(s) will conduct a literature search for both published and unpublished materials.
  - a. The first task of the literature search is to submit a plan of action on how the consultant(s) will conduct the search.
  - b. The search should include both research studies, surveys, and programmatic intervention assessments from USAID assisted countries in LAC.

2. **Annotated bibliography:** The Annotated Bibliography will be an attachment/annex to the review in which consultants will briefly annotate each article highlighting results, major findings and lessons learned.
3. **Report:** The consultant(s) will draft a report containing the following--but not necessarily limited to--sections:
  - Executive Summary
  - Introduction/purpose of the report,
  - Review and synthesis of the research and programmatic interventions assessments
  - Information gaps ( for instance, we reviewed X # of articles and reports with a focus on X sub-regions or countries, X actors, and we found nothing that addressed X group of people)
  - Programming gaps and/or overlaps (for example, if donor assistance is clustered around one aspect of trafficking but is not addressing others) , and
  - Conclusion (identifying predominate themes and issues); and
  - Annotated Bibliography with entries grouped by major themes.

## **DELIVERABLES**

- **Activity Design.** The consultant(s) will prepare an activity design including approach and methodology for collecting information and present it to USAID/EGAT/WID for comment and review before commencing work;
- **Draft Report.** The consultant(s) will provide a preliminary draft of the review including the annotated bibliography for comment before it is finalized;
- **Final Report.** The body of the report should not exceed **15 pages** and include a one to two-page executive summary. Attachments will be comprised of the annotated bibliography and any other information the consultant(s) deems useful.

## **PERFORMANCE PERIOD**

This study will commence no later than **April 26, 2004**, and be completed by **May 28, 2004**.

## **REPORTING REQUIREMENTS**

The team will work closely with Maria Elena Barron of the Democracy and Governance and Human Rights Team in the Office of Regional Sustainable Development, in the Latin America Bureau (LAC/RSD/DHR), as well as other members of USAID's LAC anti-trafficking core group including Steve Hendrix, Beth Hogan and Shally Prasad. Mary Knox, CTO for ATTO, will provide guidance and oversight to the team.

### **ESTIMATED LEVEL OF EFFORT**

A team 1 or 2 consultants will work on this task for a total of 25 days, under the direction of one ATTO Core technical staff member.

### **TECHNICAL SUPPORT**

The consultant(s) should have the following skills:

- Experience working with anti-trafficking grassroots NGOs, or regional/international anti-trafficking networks;
- Reading proficiency in Spanish and/or Portuguese
- Ability to research, analyze and synthesize information and write reports.
- Knowledge of international laws and conventions on trafficking, particularly as it relates to the Latin American context
- Able to work collaboratively on a team.