

Report on Anti-Trafficking Survey



Submitted To:

Child Rescue Nepal (EBT-N)
Kathmandu, Nepal

Submitted By:



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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Background of the Study

Human trafficking, including child trafficking, is one of the severe problems in Nepal. Child trafficking, though the actual number of being trafficked is not established through empirical studies, has been reported occurring both internally and cross-border. Different factors have triggered the rate of child trafficking. In some of the literature, vulnerability has been reported evident among children in financially marginalized families, dysfunctional families, adoption (inter-country) and even in the Children's Homes. In a difficult situation after the earthquake of 25 April, 2015 followed by 400+ aftershocks, it is reported that child trafficking has increased after the earthquake. However, this is not corroborated by credible facts and figures. A comprehensive research with standard methodology can, therefore, tell more about the dynamics of child trafficking in detail.

Esther Benjamins Trust Nepal (EBT Nepal) and Esther Benjamins Memorial Foundation (EBMF), a Nepali NGO engaged in preventing child trafficking, recognised the need to know about the causes and consequences, tricks and tactics of the traffickers, context of trafficking, push and pull factors and its dynamism in entirety. In this regard, Socio-Economic and Ethno-Political Research and Training (SEEPOR) Consultancy, a well-experienced organization carried out a comprehensive survey on child trafficking.

Objectives

The main objective of the study was to know about the causes and consequences of child trafficking, tricks and tactics of the traffickers, context of trafficking, push and pull factors and its entire dynamism in three districts, two earthquake-affected and one adjacent to the Nepal-India border. The study involved review of available literature in child trafficking in Nepal, consultation with relevant stakeholders at different levels, and survey of 1,134 households in three districts.

Scope

The study analysed the situation of child trafficking in the sample districts and VDCs. The study established a quantitative data base and traced the trend of child trafficking. The study provides an understanding of the factors that have triggered child trafficking. It also explores the consequences of child trafficking. The study has further explored the changing tricks and tactics of the traffickers in the post-earthquake situations. It has also attempted to identify gaps in anti-trafficking campaigns and existing support mechanisms for the survivors, and has assessed the effectiveness of existing communication strategies against child trafficking. An extensive review of relevant literature is another remarkable outcome of the study.

Approaches and Methods

The study is based on both primary and secondary sources of data which have been collected using both quantitative and qualitative techniques of data collection. Primary (quantitative) data was collected largely from household level individual interviews. Qualitative data was collected from focus group discussions (FGD), key informant interviews (KII) and case studies whereas secondary data were collected from publications/office documents of the Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare (MoWCSW), District Women and Children Development Offices (WCDO), Village Development Committees (VDC) and concerned (I)NGOs.

The prime concern of the study was to know the current situation of trafficking compared with the pre-earthquake situation. It was thus essential to use the **before** and **after** technique of data collection. So, questions related to the key indicators were asked for both before and after situation.

The study is based primarily on the survey of 1,134 households sampled from three districts in the Central Development Region of Nepal, namely, Bara, Dhading and Makwanpur. Bara was selected in order to capture the situation of cross-border trafficking before and after the earthquake. Dhading was

selected to represent the situation of trafficking of children in the earthquake-affected high hill and remote areas. Similarly, Makwanpur was selected to represent both the earthquake-affected hill areas and the inner Tarai areas which are the nearest transit route to the bordering districts.

One individual informant was interviewed from each household. Both male and female informants were interviewed in order to ensure proper caste/ethnic representation to capture the gender and caste/ethnic disaggregation of data. A user-friendly and menu-driven data entry format was designed in Microsoft Access. The format was carefully scrutinised to avoid out of range data punching. Once the data entry was completed, data were transferred to STATA. All the necessary analyses were done in STATA.

Major Findings

Review of existing literature reveals that history of child trafficking in Nepal can be traced back to the Rana Regime (1846-1951) but, data of that period is seriously lacking. Growth of the carpet industry in Kathmandu during the 1990s also accelerated the magnitude of child trafficking. Many of the well-off families in Kathmandu and other urban areas have been keeping children brought from surrounding districts as domestic workers. The traffickers/human traders involved in supplying young girls and boys have subsequently established connections with brothels in Indian cities, circuses and individual families who use child labour.

There has been always a strong tendency to consider poverty as the main cause of child trafficking. Poverty is a broader phenomenon in Nepali society and it has been reported as the main cause of child trafficking. Moreover, deeply rooted unequal distribution of land and other natural resources, food insecurity, increasing gap between the rich and the poor, inadequacy of access to free education, increasing direct and indirect cost of education, domestic violence, gender discrimination and many other socio-culturally imposed miseries have caused child trafficking. Many of the cases of child trafficking in Nepal occur with the involvement of children's own families. Trafficking of children is often a direct result of migration. When this group of people (children) migrates from one place to another, they may obviously become vulnerable to abuses and their trafficking can take place in the migratory process.

Adequate quantitative data on child trafficking is not available in Nepal. Gathering quantitative data is difficult due to the covert nature of research required and the crime-related issue of trafficking. As such, people are often reluctant to divulge the truth.

Nepal is a signatory to many of the international conventions related to child trafficking such as Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC). The government has promulgated Human Trafficking and Transportation Control Act 2007 and Human Trafficking and Transportation Control Regulation 2008 to address the issue. Even though the act is not exclusively for children, but it covers children as well. Available literature demonstrates that survivors (victims) are not protected by the laws of the State and consequently the victim is often exposed to the danger of being threatened or forced by the accused (traffickers) to change their statement or remain silent. The government in collaboration with NGOs has been running eight rehabilitation centres (transit homes) in different parts of the country. The number of existing rehabilitation centres shows that the State has not paid sufficient attention to victims' rehabilitation. This scenario clearly points to the need for establishing additional centres in collaboration with partner NGOs.

MoWCSW including the National Committee for Controlling Human Trafficking (NCCHT), District Women and Children Offices (DWCO) including District Committee for Controlling Human Trafficking (DCCHT) under MoWCSW, Village Committees for Controlling Human Trafficking (VCCHT) under DWCO, Nepal Police, Court, and Attorney General's Office are the organizations responsible for, among others, combatting trafficking in children. As these committees at different levels have been formed recently and VCCHT in many VDCs have not yet been formed, it seems too early to assess their effectiveness.

The Government of Nepal (GoN) has been supporting awareness raising in the communities, expansion of VCCHTs and funding rehabilitation centres for the survivors. GoN has increased its efforts to combat trafficking, for instance, for three months after the earthquake. It suspended inter-country adoption of children and took a decision that children could not be taken from one district to another without legal documents or guardians. UNICEF Nepal has been supporting establishment and strengthening of 84 police stations and checkpoints around the country, including the borders with India and China. The Department of Immigration in collaboration with UNICEF has been providing training to all immigration officials to equip them with knowledge and skills on trafficking. Besides, NGOs like CWIN, Maiti Nepal, Shakti Samuha, and EBT/EBMF have been engaging in anti-trafficking related activities including rescue and rehabilitation.

Sending children to Kathmandu and other urban places for better education, domestic work and circuses is done with parent's consent. However, some children leave their home without consent of their family members. Majority of children who leave their home belong to families of low economic status and families where domestic violence and other household problems occur. After the earthquake, attempts were made to traffic some children of Dhading to Kathmandu and the case was investigated during the present survey.

Based on the review of existing literature, it has been found that the largest number of children, especially girl children, is trafficked across the border to India. In recent times, human trafficking has been diversified with new destinations such as Hong Kong, Singapore, Bangkok and the Gulf states. Over the past couple of years, there is a new trend of internal trafficking from rural to urban places for exploitation in entertainment-related businesses (dance bars, restaurants massage parlours and prostitution). This situation points to the need for additional efforts to rescue children from these places and rehabilitate them.

Among the study districts, households of Dhading were affected most from the earthquake. More than one-half of them experienced collapse of buildings but the proportion of human fatality was low. Information given by the informants during the household survey, key informant interviews and discussion with community members reveals that there has been an increase in migration and/or disappearance of children after earthquake. One of the reasons cited was trauma in the aftermath of the earthquake for many household members. There were other pull and push factors behind migration and/or disappearance of children after the earthquake. Many of the children were reported leaving home alone and with their friends and relatives. Majority of these migrated children were reported engaged in daily wage labour and domestic work.

Community members possess moderate level of knowledge regarding the issues related to child trafficking. Although there are different governmental and non-governmental organizations in the districts engaged in anti-trafficking campaigns, awareness raising activities have not been targeted to the needy households.

Children who had returned home in the surveyed communities had both positive and negative experiences. However, negative aspects were reported mostly by the key informants and the returnees were found weaker in terms of self-esteem and social distance between them and the family/community members had increased. Returnees had to experience social stigma and many of them could not be reintegrated in the family/community, especially in the case of girls.

Key informants and focus group discussion participants reported that children hailing from Chepang, Tamang and Dalit groups in Makwanpur, and Tamang and Dalit in Dhading had left their home after the earthquake. Some of them have returned home after few months and some of them have not returned. It was also reported that some of the children were taken by "sanstha" (organization) that promised support for better schooling of the children. In this regard, the household survey investigated few cases of children trafficked after the earthquake. According to the household survey, trafficking of children after

the earthquake had increased particularly in Makwanpur. In case of Bara, child trafficking was reported to have increased due to increased migration of people from hill areas to various parts of the district, especially in the transit routes and due to its proximity to the Indian border.

The Nepal police, organisations involved in anti-trafficking, women groups, mothers' groups and child clubs have been involved in rescuing and rehabilitating the survivors of child trafficking. Organisations in Makwanpur and Dhading are reportedly more active in combating child trafficking. These organisations have been involved in raising awareness through information, education and communication (IEC) materials, forming and institutionalising monitoring bodies, providing skill enhancing training, establishing and managing rehabilitation centre/home, providing legal support, supporting income generation activities, supporting education, checking and monitoring exit points in the Nepal-India border and providing counseling services. According to household survey respondents, FGD participants and key informants, rescue and rehabilitation support provided by these institutions were moderately effective. Reported reasons behind less and non-effectiveness of the support mechanisms include inadequate capacity to manage resources, lack of sufficient resources, complexity in legal procedures, political interference, lack of clear legal provisions and inadequate coordination between or among the concerned agencies, and lack of provision regarding compensation for and protection of the witness.

Efforts to render information, education and communication services were also reported as less effective due to limited access to IEC services and resources, less access of vulnerable communities to IEC services, inadequate use of common and simple language in IEC materials, insufficiency of audio-visual materials in IEC, and low attention paid by the concerned agencies. Problems related to awareness and communication have been found occurring mostly at family/household level but support mechanisms have reached only to the district/community level.

Informants have mentioned different types of relations that were established by the traffickers. They have been using both the existing (real ones) as well as newly established (almost fake) relations. They often cite examples of progress made after leaving the village/community to convince the parents and children. Showing fake identity and working condition in a reputed company, posing themselves as wealthy, presenting her/himself as social worker, and establishing friendship with influential persons in the community have been reported as other tricks and tactics used by the traffickers. Tricks and tactics like trying to mix up with the children, talking about new places and lifestyles, giving things that are liked most by the children, meeting the children frequently, asking the children to keep their discussion and meeting confidential and not sharing with family members have also been used. Besides, making false promises to the parents and children and winning trust of parents are other tricks and tactics used by the traffickers. Convincing parents and children in the name of rescue and relief is the changed trick and tactic that have been used by the traffickers after the earthquake. Tricks and tactics used by the traffickers reveal that soft form of child trafficking prevails in the study areas. Trafficking in children through abduction and threats have not been reported.

Making the children aware of child trafficking and teaching children/students about the consequences of child trafficking, listening well to the ideas, curiosities and aspirations of the children positively, informing the children about the false promises usually spelled out by the traffickers, orienting children to keep the contact address of family members and relatives, monitoring children if they are getting anything from the strangers or are being attracted, and monitoring and inspecting the strangers are the suggestions provided by the informants to prevent their children being trafficked. Moreover, provisioning of strong penalty against the person involved in trafficking, ensuring effective channels and networks of information and education, complying with existing laws and their proper implementation, putting pressure on the concerned authorities to follow a fast-track approach to address the issue of child trafficking have been suggested as methods to control child trafficking.

Conclusions

Level of knowledge/awareness regarding (un)safe child migration and child trafficking is still low among the people despite of various endeavours of the governmental and non-governmental organizations.

Poverty is the main cause of child migration and trafficking and it occurs more in low cash income category. Along with poverty, school dropout is directly associated with child migration and trafficking.

Almost all support mechanisms adopted by both the governmental non-governmental organizations have been focusing more on community level issues regarding child trafficking and less on household/family level factors triggering child migration and child trafficking. Local support mechanisms/structures are less effective due to resource constraints and inadequacy of coordination. Also, there is duplication in anti-trafficking programmes and activities due to inadequacy of proper coordination and collaboration. There is not an effective mechanism in place to monitor the programmes conducted by concerned organizations.

In-country trafficking has evolved as a major issue. Children were migrated and trafficked to Kathmandu and other urban centres, especially after the earthquake and almost children were reported engaged in exploitative and vulnerable forms of child labour.

The existing Implementation Plan for Combating Human Trafficking does not address child trafficking specifically and as a result, most of the programmes and activities implemented have focused more on women rather than children. Furthermore, there is an absence of case management plan (CMP) including follow up plan to support the survivors of child traffickers. There are some shortcomings and overlaps in plans and policies, operational guidelines, structural adjustment/mechanisms and their execution.

ABBREVIATIONS

AATWIN	-	Alliance Against Trafficking of Women and Children in Nepal
CBO	-	Community Based Organization
CBS	-	Central Bureau of Statistics
CC	-	Child Club
CDR	-	Central Development Region
CDO	-	Chief District Officer from DAO
CFUG	-	Community Forest User Group
CRO	-	Child Rights Officer
CWIN	-	Child Workers Concern Centre Nepal
DAO	-	District Administration Office
DCCHT	-	District Committee on Control of Human Trafficking
DDC	-	District Development Committee
DPO	-	District Police Office
DWCO	-	District Women and Children Office
FGD	-	Focus Group Discussion
GO	-	Government Organization
GoN	-	Government of Nepal
HTIS	-	Human Trafficking Information System
IGA	-	Income Generating Activities
ILO	-	International Labour Organization
KII	-	Key Informant Interview
MoHA	-	Ministry of Home Affairs
MoLJPA	-	Ministry of Law, Justice and Parliamentary Affairs
MoWCSW	-	Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare
NCCHT	-	National Committee for Controlling Human Trafficking
NGO	-	Non-governmental Organization
UNICEF	-	United Nations Children's Fund
VCCHT	-	Village Committee for Controlling Human Trafficking
VDC	-	Village Development Committee

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

This chapter includes background, objectives and scope of the study, organization of the report and limitations of the study.

1.1 Background

Human trafficking is an organised crime involving globally spread networks. Global reports also indicate that during earlier decades, human trafficking primarily targeted women and children for sexual and labour exploitation. In recent years, significant changes have occurred such as in-country trafficking in the entertainment sector. Despite national and international efforts to eliminate it, trafficking of women, children and even men--especially from poor and developing nations--has become more rampant due to growing demand for cheap labour in the global market. The United States Department of States' Annual Trafficking in Persons Report indicates that in 2001 the number of trafficked persons was approximately 700,000, while data from 2014 reports the number soared to an approximate 2,000,000 (USDS, 2014).

Growing demand for cheap labour, weak governance and rising unemployment in developing countries may be identified as prime causes of increased human trafficking. The gravity of human trafficking and its close linkages with migration is well reflected by an ILO (2001) report which indicates the presence of 20.9 million people as victims of forced labour globally, with the number progressively increasing. Sex disaggregated data further reveals that 11.4 million of this total number are women and children, while 9.5 million are men and boys. In terms age group, 15.5 million of this population are youth above 18 years of age while 5.5 million are children below the age of 17. According to another report of USDS (2015), migrant workers in search of opportunities are at high risk of falling prey to hidden risks and vulnerabilities. The report further indicates that government and business institutions must work to address transparency in the supply system to prevent human trafficking.

In the context of Nepal, human trafficking is also a severe problem. National Human Rights Commission (NHRC) Report for 2012/13 concludes that the number of missing children declined from 2431 in 2010/11 to 1453 in 2012/13; the number of missing ones remained high over the four year period (2 in 5 continued to remain as missing); and the untraced number for girls is higher across the years compared to the boys. These data indicate the need for focusing on the nexus between cross-border trafficking of children for sexual and labour exploitation. According to Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare (MoWCSW) National Report 2071, in the FY 2013/14, a total of 837 children were missing and out of them only 55.3 percent were traced. Among the children traced, 61.3 percent were boys and 38.7 percent were girls. The same report also gives information on Child Helpline being operated by various organizations in 12 districts.

According to ILO/IPEC (2001), 7000 to 12000 women and children are trafficked from Nepal across to India for sexual exploitation annually. According to Save the Children Norway (2005), those trafficked were primarily from Dalit and backward communities and conflict-affected girls irrespective of caste or age. According to UNODC (2006), girls aged 15 to 25 years are trafficked mostly from Lalitpur, Dhading, Nuwakot, Sindupalchowk, Kavre and Dolakha districts.

Child trafficking is reported occurring both within the country and across the border. However, the actual number of children being trafficked is not established through empirical studies. Children, reported also as 'the minors', have been trafficked for different purposes. They are mostly used in circuses, begging, exploitative labour in brick kilns, carpet factories, embroidery (jari factories), agriculture, bonded labour, and prostitution (Stallard, 2014; ISS, 2005; TdH, 2003). Most of these children are trafficked every year to commercial sex market. Traffickers have been using Nepal as a source and India as destination country for trafficking of women and girl children to Indian brothels. There is an increasing trend of young girls, as young as 14 and 15 years of age, engaged in commercial sex (Stallard, 2014; ISS, 2005; Gilligan 2003, TdH 2003).

Children from economically poorer households irrespective of caste/ethnicity, disadvantaged and marginalized groups, especially Dalit, Muslim and other minority groups, are deprived of their right to education during childhood. On the other hand, post-trafficking circumstances and difficulties, in other words, consequences of child trafficking are not shared with their parents, family members and community people.

Economic marginalisation, social/ethnic marginalisation, inadequacy of awareness, child marriage and fake marriage, violence against women, dysfunctional family environment, domestic violence and dreams of making money quickly have been also reported widely to be the factors driving the rate of child trafficking. Currently, vulnerability is evident among children in economically marginalised and dysfunctional families. Poverty, lack of access to educational opportunities, domestic violence, gender and other forms of discrimination, workload, and lack of caring within the family are the push factors (Stallard, 2014; Evans and Bhattarai 2000). Similarly, attraction of urban facilities, educational opportunities, financial security due to cash income, and glitzy lifestyles in urban areas are the pull factors associated with child migration and trafficking. In the Kathmandu Valley alone, children are brought mostly from surrounding districts such as Sindhupalchowk, Dhading, Nuwakot, Kavre and Dolkha for use as domestic workers (New Era/ILO, 2005; NGO Group, 2001).

Moreover, natural disasters like earthquake have increased vulnerability of children prone to trafficking. There are numerous cases wherein they are taken across districts for adoption without permit (Rathaur, 2015). Key informants of Dhading District mentioned that children were taken to Kathmandu apparently for adoption. After the earthquake of 25 April 2015 accompanied by 400+ aftershocks, Nepal's vulnerability to child trafficking has worsened weakening its fight against child labour, poverty and other pressing development and social issues. With the collapse of buildings and tents in relocated temporary settlements/camps after the devastating earthquake and severe floods and landslides that occurred in 2015, children were deprived of education, protection and adequate counselling facilities. Child protection measures in the makeshift camps are very poor and as a result children being taken out to towns for labour and trafficking purposes are intercepted at check posts. Deliberations in newspapers and research reports have shown that, after the devastating earthquake, traffickers have visited rural areas and lured people with small support. It has been reported, especially in the newspapers, trafficking of children and women has increased after the earthquake. However, this is not corroborated with credible evidences. A comprehensive research with standard methodology can, therefore, explain more about the dynamics in detail.

Esther Benjamins Trust Nepal and Esther Benjamin Memorial Foundation, a Nepali NGO engaged in preventing child trafficking, realised the need for knowing about the causes and consequences of child trafficking, tricks and tactics of the traffickers, context of trafficking, push and pull factors and their dynamics in a comprehensive manner. In this regard, Socio-Economic and Ethno-Political Research and Training (SEEPOR) Consultancy, a well-experienced organization offering research consultancy for 20 years carried out this study.

1.2 Objectives

The main objective of the study was to know about the causes and consequences of child trafficking, tricks and tactics of the traffickers, context of trafficking, push and pull factors and the entire dynamics of trafficking in two earthquake-affected districts and one Tarai district bordering India.

The specific objectives of the study were as follows:

- To review the available literature on child trafficking in Nepal,
- To consult with relevant stakeholders at different levels (DDC, VDC and HHs),
- To test the hypothesis that child trafficking has increased in Nepal after the earthquake of 25 April 2015, and
- To carry out a survey on the situation of child trafficking in the sample districts and VDCs.

1.3 Scope

The study analyses the situation of child trafficking in the sample districts and VDCs. It establishes a quantitative database of child trafficking and traces the trend of child trafficking. The study has come up with an understanding of the factors that have triggered child trafficking. It has also explored the consequences of child trafficking. The study has further explored the changing tricks and tactics of the traffickers in the post-earthquake situation. It has also attempted to identify the gaps in anti-trafficking campaigns and existing support mechanisms for the survivors, and has assessed the effectiveness of existing communication strategies against child trafficking. Extensive review of relevant literature is another noteworthy feature of the study.

Furthermore, this study has come up with conclusions and recommendations grounded on realities about the current situation of child trafficking in Nepal. It has identified several possible areas of interventions that are essential to combat child trafficking in Nepal.

1.4 Limitations of the Study

The study districts were purposively selected by EBT Nepal without considering geographic representation. Hence findings of the study can be generalised neither for other earthquake-affected districts nor to other districts of Nepal. Information obtained through the survey can be regarded as indicative.

1.5 Organization of the Report

The present report on anti-trafficking survey is organised in six chapters. The first introductory chapter includes background of the study, objectives, scope and limitations of the study. Chapter two includes methods and approaches used for the study. Chapter three includes overview of child trafficking in Nepal including annotated review of existing relevant literature. Chapter four includes general setting of research with description of study districts and the informants' personal as well as family level information. Chapter five includes information related to child trafficking obtained from the survey districts, and finally, Chapter six includes the conclusions and recommendations. References cited in the review and annexes have been presented thereafter.

CHAPTER II: APPROACHES AND METHODS

The study adopted the definition of trafficking mentioned in the Human Trafficking and Transportation (Control) Act, 2007, to control human trafficking and transportation, and to protect and rehabilitate the victims/survivors. Section 4 of the act defines human trafficking and transportation separately. This act complies with the United Nations (UN) Protocols against human trafficking and smuggling of migrants. In line with these Protocols, the Government of Nepal (GoN) adopted Human Trafficking and Transportation (Control) Act 2007 (hereafter HTTC Act 2007) to control the acts of human trafficking and transportation, and to protect and rehabilitate the victims of such acts. Section 4 of the Act defines acts of human trafficking and transportation separately.

- (1) If anyone commits any of the following acts that shall be deemed to have committed human trafficking:
 - (a) To sell or purchase a person for any purpose,
 - (b) To force someone into prostitution, with or without payment
 - (c) To extract human organ except otherwise determined by law,
 - (d) To use the services of a prostitute.
- (2) If anyone commits any of the following acts that shall be deemed to have committed human transportation:
 - (a) To take a person out of the country for the purpose of buying and selling,
 - (b) To take anyone from his/her home, place of residence or from a person by any means such as enticement, inducement, misinformation, forgery, tricks, coercion, abduction, hostage, hostage, allurements, influence, threat, abuse of power and by means of inducement, fear, threat or coercion to the guardian or custodian and keep him/her into ones custody or take to any place within Nepal or abroad or handover him/her to somebody else for the purpose of prostitution and exploitation.

Following the Trafficking Protocol and HTTC Act 2007 require that the crime of trafficking be defined through a combination of the three constituent elements and not the individual components, though in some cases these individual elements will constitute criminal offences independently and may be charged in different offences such as abduction.

Similarly, the definition of migration has been adopted from International Organization for Migration (IOM) Glossary on Migration, International Migration Law Series No. 25, 2011 (Annex 6).

The study is based on both primary and secondary sources of data collected using both quantitative and qualitative techniques. Primary (quantitative) data were collected largely from the household level individual interviews. Similarly, qualitative information was collected from focus group discussions (FGD), key informant interviews (KII) and case studies. Secondary data were gathered from publications/office documents of the Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare (MoWCSW), District Women and Children Development Offices (WCDO), Village Development Committees (VDC) and concerned (I)NGOs.

The prime concern of the study was to know the current (post-earthquake) situation of trafficking compared to the pre-earthquake situation. It was thus essential to use the **before** and **after** technique of data collection. So, questions related to the key indicators were asked for both before and after situation.

The study is based primarily on the survey of 1,134 households sampled from three districts of the Central Development Region of Nepal, namely, Bara, Dhading and Makwanpur. One informant was interviewed from each household. The total number of informants included both male and female. Attempt was made to represent an equal proportion of gender/caste/ethnic representation.

2.1 Geographic and Population Coverage

The study districts were selected in consultation with Esther Benjamins Trust Nepal (EBT Nepal) and VDCs and wards were selected in consultation with relevant local stakeholders so as to make the survey representative in terms of both geography (mountain, hill and Terai) and caste/ethnic groups, viz., Brahmin/Chhetri/Thakuri/Sanyasi (BCTS), Adivasi/Janajati (A/J) and Dalits. Within the three selected districts, three VDCs were selected in consultation with relevant district level stakeholders, namely, Women Development Officer, Child Rights Officer, Social Development Officer from District Development Committee, District Police Officer and concerned non-governmental organisations. Again, three wards were randomly selected for individual interview in each of nine VDCs (3 Districts * 3 VDCs). Wards were the primary sampling unit which totalled 27 (3 Districts * 3 VDCs * 3 wards).

2.2 Sample Size

The total number of 1134 sample households/individuals was equally distributed to districts, VDCs, wards, caste/ethnic groups and gender. This gave a total of 162 categories (3 districts * 3 VDCs * 3 Wards * 3 caste/ethnic groups and 2 Gender groups = 162). Thus, the sample for each category is 7 ($1000/162 = 6.17284$) when rounded up. Based on 7 interviews per category, there were 42 interviews in each ward with seven interviews from BCTS, A/J and Dalits, each representing both male and female (1 male + 1 female * 7 individuals * 3 caste/ethnic categories). This added up to 126 interviews from each VDC and 378 interviews from each district making a total of 1,134 interviews due to rounding. Details of sampling categories and distribution of sample households by these categories are presented in Annex 5.

2.3 Sampling Stages

This study was based on multi-stage random sampling without replacement approach which eliminated the chances of selecting the same individual for more than once. The sampling method contained four stages, namely, selection of districts, selection of VDC/municipality, selection of ward and selection of one interviewee from each sample household. Details of sampling stages have been presented in Annex 5.

For the purpose of interviewing key informants at central, district and village levels, most relevant and/or concerned individuals and organisations were first identified and listed. For the purpose of group discussions, members of child clubs and high school students were identified and selected with the help of school teachers and concerned key authorities of respective VDCs. Life histories and case studies were identified during household survey, consultation with VDC level key informants and the FGD participants.

2.4 Selection of Field Enumerators/Supervisors and Orientation

SEEPOR selected three field supervisors who had graduated in anthropology and sociology and had some research experience. For household level data collection, locally available undergraduate and/or graduate youths were selected. As per the sample size decided above, nine enumerators were deployed for each of the sample districts in order to finish the task of household survey within the time-frame. Almost all enumerators were selected from the sample VDCs for better efficiency. Due to unavailability of female enumerators (only two out of nine) in Bara district and hesitancy of female household members in the Madhesi community in Bara, female-male ratio could not be maintained equal. Otherwise, using students and graduates was more effective in most cases.

The three-member core survey team gave orientation training to the field supervisors at SEEPOR office, Kathmandu. The team organised a three-day (14-16 November, 2015) in-house orientation for field surveyors (enumerators) in all the study districts. The training session was divided into two parts. Part one covered theoretical aspects such as content of questionnaires, interviewing skills, recording

answers correctly, and familiarisation with the current survey while the second part focused on practical learning through mock interviews and real situation interview in nearest VDCs.

Many tips were provided to enumerators during orientation for the neutrality such as 1) not to ask leading questions, 2) not to read the options for answer because the respondent may follow the interviewers, and 3) let the respondents answer themselves, and many more.

Regarding the issue of using local enumerators, it is one of the good practices because:

- Local enumerators know the community better than strangers and respondents are more likely to provide accurate information
- They can arrange time that suits the respondents
- Even if it is a small amount, local people benefit from the remuneration provided for the enumerators, and
- Capacity of the local people is enhanced to some extent.

There were adult female interviewees participating in interview in male-headed households in Dhading and Makwanpur. So there was not a male bias in the result.

2.5 Data Collection Methods and Tools

Necessary data were collected through a participatory approach using the following tools and techniques:

- Household survey
- Key informant interview
- Focus group discussion
- Case study
- Review of documents

2.5.1 Household Survey

Basically, personal interviews (with household head as far as practicable) were carried out to collect information from the selected sample households. For this purpose, a structured interview schedule was developed that included close- and open-ended questions (Annex 3) and pre-tested.

2.5.2 Key Informant Interviews

This involved interviewing individuals (District Women and Children Office, District Administrative Office, District Police Office, DDC/VDC authorities, NGO/CBO officials, and policy makers) selected on the basis of their knowledge and experience in child-trafficking and related issues. These interviews helped in eliciting their views and experiences. A checklist was developed and administered for these interviews (Annex 4).

2.5.3 Focus Group Discussions (FGD)

Three FGDs (one in each VDC) were conducted in each of the sample districts. Conducting several FGDs within a VDC was not possible due to time and resource constraints. There were around 8 to 12 participants (children involved in child clubs and studying in high schools) in each discussion group. These children were selected purposively. As this study is about child trafficking, participation of children in the research process has definitely increased the credibility of the study. On the other hand, they got an opportunity to expose themselves through FGDs and it has also ensured enhancement of their knowledge regarding child trafficking through live and open discussions. The participants freely discussed issues, ideas, and experiences among themselves. Members of the study team facilitated the discussion by orienting the issue, keeping discussion going, and trying to give opportunity to all participants. These FGDs enabled mostly to explore qualitative information regarding the causes and consequences of child trafficking and other issues pertinent to child trafficking. Information obtained

through these FGDs further helped to triangulate the information obtained through household survey and key informant interviews. A checklist was prepared for these group discussions (Annex 4).

2.5.4 Case Studies

Some case studies and human-interest stories were collected from personal interviews. These were not the cases handled by the court. As mentioned earlier, case materials were identified and collected with the help of VDC-level key informants and household survey informants. After the cases were selected, survivors themselves or their parents were interviewed in order to jot down their detailed story. Case related information obtained through media reports/news and published documents have also been interwoven in appropriate context within the text. They have told about incidences or concrete events, often from an individual's experience. A checklist was developed for these case/event studies (Annex 4).

2.5.5 Review of Relevant Literature

For the purpose of including necessary information in the study report, relevant research reports on child-trafficking and relevant policy documents were reviewed. The study team visited MoWCSW, AATWIN and CWIN libraries/resource centres to collect the relevant documents.

2.6 Data Entry and Analysis

A user-friendly and menu-driven data entry format was designed in Microsoft Access. The format ensured the validation rules to avoid out-of-range data punching. Once the data entry was completed, data were transferred to STATA for all the necessary analyses.

Landholding and annual cash income were considered as the main economic variables for data analysis. Surveyed households were classified in terms of land holding and annual cash income as follows:

Notes on Land Holding and Annual Cash Income Classification	
Land Holding	Annual Cash Income
Households are classified in three categories with the equal number of households (378 households) based on total land owned by the household. Households owning land up to 0.1525 hectare categorized as "Low Land Holding" households, households owning land more than 0.3183 hectare are categorized as "High Land Holding" households and the remaining households who owned land between 0.1525-0.3183 hectare are categorized as "Medium Land Holding" households	Households are classified in three categories with the equal number of households (378 with the equal number of households) based on total annual cash Income of the household. Cash Income is defined as the cash Income received from the sale of goods and services produced. Hence, the goods and services produced and consumed are neither valued nor taken as the cash income. Households earning up to Rs 1,10,000 per annum are categorized as "Low Cash Income" households, households earning between Rs 1,10,000-Rs 2,17,000 are categorized as "Medium Cash Income" households and the remaining households who earned more than Rs 2,17,000 are categorized as "High Cash Income" Households

CHAPTER III: AN OVERVIEW OF CHILD TRAFFICKING IN NEPAL

The first half of this chapter includes the history of child trafficking in Nepal, anti-trafficking policies and support mechanisms to survivors of trafficking. Critical discussion based on annotated review of relevant literature has been presented in the second half of the chapter.

3.1 Overview of Child Trafficking in Nepal

In this section, history of child trafficking in Nepal, existing anti-trafficking policies and support mechanisms for the survivors have been reviewed.

3.1.1 History of Child Trafficking in Nepal

It has been reported that trafficking in Nepalese girls and women for sexual exploitation began as early as the Rana period (1846-1951). The Ranas drew young girls from rural areas surrounding the Kathmandu Valley to their palaces as servants and objects of sexual exploitation. It has been also reported that after the overthrow of the Rana Regime, the Ranas could no longer support hundreds of women servants and consequently, the market for these girls decreased in Kathmandu. Consequently, traders involved in supplying young girls to Rana palaces subsequently established connections with brothels in Indian cities. Indian brothels always have a high demand for Nepalese girls for many reasons. First, there have long been many Nepalese workers in India, providing a source of 'buyers of sex'. Secondly, the fairer complexion of the Nepalese girls is attractive to most Indian native 'buyers'. Thirdly, importing Nepalese girls has been safer than selling local Indian girls into prostitution. Ignorance of local customs, procedures and languages made Nepalese girls less likely to complain to the police. Trafficking in Nepalese girls and women to Indian brothels became fully established in the 1960s, and increased tremendously in the 1980s. By the 1970s, criminal links between Indian sex traders and the Nepalese pimps were well established (TdH, 2003).

The carpet industry has been reported to be associated with trafficking of girl children. Developed with the first arrival of Tibetan refugees in the 1950s, this industry was notorious for using child labour due to their nimble fingers, which could tie very small knots. The employers preferred those children because they were easily available, naive, willing, and easy to control and exploit. Children of 12 and 13 years of age comprised 81 per cent of the total employed in carpet industries, which meant that the majority of child workers were only a year or two younger than the legal working age of 14 years (TdH, 2003). The problem of girl workers was not limited to exploitation within the carpet factories. They were also vulnerable to be used for prostitution because of the relationship between the unregulated carpet business and sex trafficking. Availability of often unsupervised girls in unpleasant low paying carpet making jobs provided an opportunity for agents of Indian brothels to source their victims. Exploitative conditions in carpet factories attracted traffickers to target the girls working in carpet factories by promising them better jobs in India which in fact turned out to be forced prostitution. However, engaging children in carpet factories is not a new phenomenon and it is found in older literature. The number of children engaged in Indian circuses has been also reported decreased in recent years. Moreover, keeping children (both girls and boys) as domestic workers has been found widely practised in the well-off families of Kathmandu and other urban places in Nepal. They are found kept as domestic worker by the landlords even in rural villages.

Based on the review of existing literature, it has been found that human trafficking has been reported diversified nowadays – including new destinations like Hong Kong, Singapore, Bangkok and Gulf states. Over the past couple of years, a new trend has also been developed, namely, in-country trafficking from rural to urban places for exploitation in the entertainment sector (for instance, massage parlours, dance bars and restaurants, etc.) and sex markets for prostitution. Growth in the entertainment sector in cities like Kathmandu and Pokhara has attracted the attention of traffickers to take children, especially girls, away from their home. In the case of boys, transportation has emerged as one of the sectors where

vulnerability of boy children has increased. Rescue and rehabilitation of the trafficked children from these sectors has become an additional challenge.

Gathering quantitative data is difficult due to the covert nature of research required and the crime-related issue of trafficking. According to one of the concerned officers of Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare, the National Committee for Combating Human Trafficking (NCCHT) has been developing human trafficking information system (HTIS) updated periodically by the concerned stakeholders using a pre-developed format that includes all the relevant indicators of human trafficking.

Recent Studies and Statistics on Child Trafficking in Nepal

In Nepal, reliable data on child trafficking is inadequate. Data presented in existing literature do not represent the actual magnitude of the problem. People still have to rely on the old literature based on the research carried out by ILO/CWIN in 2001. That research came up with a projected estimation of 12,000 children trafficked annually. The estimated number of people trafficked or attempted to be trafficked published by National Human Rights Commission report (2014) was 29,000.

So far as assumption on the increase in the cases of trafficking since the earthquake is concerned, it is very difficult to get accurate data on the cases of trafficking before and after the earthquake. Many cases of trafficking in Nepal remain unreported due to a number of reasons and there is no comprehensive information system in place to record the cases. Without scientific and systematic recording of the cases, it is therefore impossible to say whether trafficking has increased after the earthquake (UNICEF Two Pager, 2015).

3.1.2 Anti-Trafficking Policies in Nepal

The following provisions provide a general legal framework for combatting child trafficking in Nepal:

- Constitution of Nepal, 2015
- Constitution of the Kingdom of Nepal, 1990
- Human Trafficking and Transportation Control Act (HTTA), 2007
- Human Trafficking and Transportation (Control) Regulation, 2008
- Civil Code '*Muluki Ain*', 1963 defined trafficking of humans out of the country as a crime; it also prohibits separation of minors from their legal guardians without consent, or by deception.
- State Cases Act, 1993 defines the crime of trafficking in women and girls as an offense against the State of Nepal
- SAARC Convention on Preventing and Combatting Trafficking in Women and Children for Prostitution (2002)

The Human Trafficking and Transportation Control Act, 1986 suffers from a serious weakness in terms of its definition as it fails to bring within its domain the act of separating any person from his/her legal guardian with the intention of selling him/her into prostitution. Hence, no crime is established against someone engaging in separating women or girls from their guardians, but not having taken the survivor(s) out of the country. Similarly, the act has no provision for penalising a person involved in the purchase of women and girls for prostitution. Although the Constitution of Nepal 2015 (2072 BS) guarantees a fair access to justice irrespective of sex, economic status, political belief, caste and other differences, the criminal justice system of Nepal is largely confession-oriented and the investigation process does not attempt to ascertain the objective and scientific evidences, and consequently, there is tremendous room for violations of human rights to occur.

In Nepal, the Ministry of Home Affairs is the direct and immediate line ministry of the police forces. The judiciary does not have different courts for civil and criminal cases. The same judges preside over both, while the Attorney General has the constitutional responsibility of prosecution of crimes. According to the TdH report (2003), the numbers of traffickers brought to court are extremely low without any improvement over the years and nothing has changed since 1994/1995. However, the situation has improved within a few years. The national report published by MoWCSW in 2071 BS (2015) mentions

that there were a total of 215, 206, and 586 cases brought to the Supreme Court, Appellate Court and District Courts, respectively.

Literature reviewed in the course of this study shows that the survivors are not protected by the laws in Nepal and consequently, they are often exposed to the danger of being threatened or harassed by the accused/suspect (traffickers or other intermediaries) to change their statement or become indifferent to the case. The State has been paying attention to survivors' rescue and rehabilitation. NGOs have been running eight rehabilitation centres with financial support from the government. However, the number of rehabilitation centres is not sufficient for the whole country. According to the key informants of NGOs, rehabilitation centres do not receive adequate financial and logistic support. For example, fines paid by offenders go to the State's exchequer rather than allocating these amounts directly to the survivors. Money collected through penalty has been mentioned as one of the sources of revenue. On the other hand, the same amount of money collected as revenue has never been specifically allocated for the rescue and rehabilitation of trafficked persons. This situation clearly indicates that the revenue generated from the traffickers through penalty in lieu of their crime (trafficking) is a source of revenue for the State, and the State's responsibility is confined just to declaring a judgment rather than granting justice. As a result, further investigation is never carried out if a person prosecuted is not found guilty. In the case of Nepal, majority of the survivors (victims) have no access to lawyers who could represent their interest or concerns and they are left vulnerable to revenge from offenders, since they are not protected by law. They do not file a case because it is expensive to hire a lawyer, takes too much time until the case will be taken up by a court or the procedure is too intimidating. Moreover, the survivors are harassed through long, tedious and treacherous interrogations by the police and other officials.

3.1.3 Measures to prevent trafficking and Support Mechanisms for Survivors.

The Government of Nepal (GoN) has mandated the Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare (MoWCSW) including National Committee for Controlling Human Trafficking (NCCHT), District Women and Children Offices (DWCO) including District Committee for Controlling Human Trafficking (DCCHT) under MoWCSW, Village Committees for Controlling Human Trafficking (VCCHT) under DWCO, Nepal Police, Court, and Attorney General's Office to combat human trafficking.

GoN has developed several institutional arrangements to render support services to the survivors. A Women, Children, Senior Citizens and Social Welfare Committee has been formed under the parliament. There is a Unit against Gender-Based Violence under Human Rights Division of Office of the Prime Minister and Council of Ministers which coordinates and monitors the programmes/activities related to human trafficking. The National Planning Commission is also committed to developing plans and programmes for combating human trafficking.

The Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare (MoWCSW) is the main body which mobilises NCCHT, Human Trafficking and Transportation Control Section, Department of Women and Children, Central Child Welfare Board, District Child Welfare Boards, Rehabilitation and Service Centres, Women Watch Groups, and Women and Children Offices in all the 75 districts and DCCHTs.

The Government of Nepal has been providing funds to diplomatic missions in New Delhi, Kolkata, Bangkok, and UAE for rescuing trafficked persons. GoN has been supporting awareness raising activities in communities, expansion of VCCHTs through formation and mobilisation of VCCHTs in the remaining VDCs and funding eight rehabilitation centres. The government has launched various awareness programmes on trafficking at different levels involving mass media including district level awareness programme, broadcasting from FM radio, flex print, hoarding boards, brochures and pamphlets, etc. The government increased its efforts to combat trafficking, for instance, after the earthquake by suspending inter-country adoption for three months and that children could not be taken from one district to another without legal documents or guardians (UNICEF, 2015).

MoWCSW has also provisioned District Child Welfare Board (DCWB) in all the districts. Village-/municipality-level Child Protection and Welfare sub-committees (*Bal samrakshan tatha sambardhan upasamiti*) have been formed under these DCWBs. In addition to this, a total of 19,454 child clubs and child alliances/networks have also been formed in which a total of 202,616 girls and 231,275 boys have been participating [(MoWCSW, 2071 BS) (2014 AD), pp. 49)].

The Ministry of Home Affairs (MoHA) is also directly concerned to mobilise Nepal Police as one of the main law enforcement agencies. It coordinates and monitors the programmes and activities of the Women and Children Service Directorate and Community Police Service Centres. In order to control child trafficking and transportation after the earthquake and in operational response to the request of MoWCSW, MoHA circulated an order on May 15, 2015 to all the Regional Administrative Offices and District Administration Offices. This order was circulated for prohibiting opening of new Child Care Homes and transportation of children without the permission of District Child Welfare Boards. This circulation also asked for monitoring of existing children homes whether they had completed all the procedures and formalities to establish and run the Child Care Homes. Immediately after the earthquake, the Nepal Police also mobilised additional 14 check-posts in 11 districts along the Nepal-India border. Strategic check-posts were also operationalised in 14 mostly affected districts (Dhungana, 2015). According to the district and village level police officers who participated in key informant interviews and interactions, they had been encountering a number of problems while investigating the cases properly and collecting sufficient evidences against the suspects, the traffickers. For instance, there were varieties of persons (family members, relatives, neighbours, community members, known and unknown outsiders, etc.) involved in the 'trafficking chain'. They also stated that they had been facing problems in identifying the traffickers and investigating about them. Moreover, they had been facing problems due to political interference while investigating the cases.

The Ministry of Labour and Employment is also concerned with human trafficking as the foreign employment sector is also associated with possibilities of increase in human trafficking. The Foreign Employment Policy 2068 BS (2011 AD) is being implemented through the Department of Foreign Employment. Foreign Employment Promotion Board and Foreign Employment Judiciary have been also addressing issues of human trafficking. Moreover, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Federal Affairs and Local Development, Ministry of Law, Constitution and Parliament, the Courts (Supreme, Appellate and District courts), and constitutional bodies and commissions like Office of the Attorney General, National Human Rights Commission and National Women Commission are the institutions dedicated to combatting human trafficking in general and child trafficking in particular.

The Government of Nepal has established eight rehabilitation centres in Jhapa, Kathmandu, Sindhupalchok, Parsa, Chitwan, Rupandehi, Banke and Kailali districts. Service centres have also been established in 17 districts. These centres have been managed in partnership with concerned NGOs. GoN has contracted out management of these centres to these NGOs. Maiti Nepal has been managing three rehabilitation centres in Rupandehi, Parsa and Jhapa. Shakti Samuha, Adarsha Nari Vikas Kendra, ABC Nepal, Sathi and Sirjanshil Samaj have been managing one centre each in Sindhupalchok, Chitwan, Kathmandu, Banke and Kailali, respectively. NGOs have been also running Child Helplines in 12 districts.

There are a number of NGOs engaged in anti-trafficking programmes and activities. Engaged in advocacy and lobbying for anti-trafficking, the Alliance for Action against Trafficking in Women and Children Nepal (AATWIN) has been assisting in district level programmes in relation to national implementation plan to combat human trafficking. It has also been assisting GoN in policy formulation, coordination and monitoring. Shakti Samuha is also one of the active organisations operated/managed by human trafficking survivors/victims themselves. It has been conducting survivors' interactions/workshops, street drama, school level awareness programmes, capacity building, rescue and rehabilitation of the survivors, orientation training to the adolescent girls and boys and interaction with journalists. Child Workers Concern Centre Nepal (CWIN) has been also engaged in rescue and

relief related activities, management of relief centres, legal assistance, training and interactions/workshops. Similarly, Esther Benjamins Memorial Foundation (EBMF) has been engaged in rescue and rehabilitation of the survivor children in Hetauda, Makwanpur.

UNICEF Nepal has been supporting the establishment and strengthening of 84 police stations and checkpoints around the country, including the borders with India and China. As a result, police officials have been checking buses for suspicious passengers and are alert throughout the country. The Department of Immigration with support from UNICEF is providing training to all immigration officials to equip them with knowledge and skills on trafficking. After the earthquake, UNICEF Nepal Child Protection has been scaling up programmes and consequently, it has been supporting the Ministry of Home Affairs, Nepal Police and immigration authorities to control cross-border trafficking. It is also supporting the rescue and rehabilitation camps in the earthquake-affected districts. Besides supporting GoN, UNICEF has been partnering with Maiti Nepal to scale up or establish 12 screening and interception points along the Indian and Chinese borders and create 11 transit centres for survivors of trafficking. UNICEF has also been partnering with Shakti Samuha and supporting surveillance and awareness-raising in the 14 districts.

3.2 Annotated Review of Relevant Literature

In this section, literature on legal frameworks and policies regarding child trafficking, research reports on child trafficking and related issues, theoretical and conceptual articles authored by academicians, and reports of activist organisations are reviewed along with their critical assessment. Details of the annotated review are presented in Annex 2.

The review showed that there are sufficient legal frameworks and policies related to human trafficking in Nepal. However, there are some overlaps between and among these plans and policies and shortcomings in terms of specifications. These plans and policies have not been implemented properly. At the same time, the existing structures are not functioning well due to resource constraints, both human and financial.

All the research reports agree that the problem of trafficking is alarming in Nepal and exploitation and/or violence on women and children has increased their vulnerability to trafficking. They also agree that reliable data is not available and there is no integrated and comprehensive data base system in place. Different agencies have been found using different data. According to the reports, the largest portion of children, especially girl children, is trafficked across the border from Nepal to India, but the entire gamut of human trafficking has been diversified nowadays – including new destinations like Hong Kong, Singapore, Bangkok and the Gulf states. Over the past couple of years, a new trend has also been developed, namely, internal trafficking from rural to urban places for exploitation in the entertainment sector (dance bars and restaurants) and sex markets for prostitution. Some research reports have rightly identified that there is still deep sense of prejudice against the survivors of trafficking due to widespread belief that they have been leaving home willingly and with consent of parents. According to the studies, interventions of the GOs and NGOs are focused on prevention, protection, prosecution, capacity building, and coordination, collaboration and cooperation. However, common people are still not aware of the entire dynamism of child trafficking. Majority of the researches are found focused on policy analysis and available literature based on ground reality-based research is scanty.

CHAPTER IV: SETTING OF THE STUDY

This chapter includes the general features of study districts and the VDCs, general characteristics of the informants/respondents, and demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the sample households.

4.1 General Features of Study Districts

Bara District lies in Narayani Zone of Central Development Region (CDR) of Nepal. In Bara district, only one case of human trafficking was registered officially in the fiscal year 2070/71 BS (2013/14 AD) (MoWCSW, 2071 BS). However, being a transit route to the Indian border and having hill migrants along the Mahendra Highway and peripheral areas, this district is considered as one of the trafficking-prone districts of Nepal.

Dhading district also lies in Bagmati Zone of CDR. In Dhading, according to MoWCSW (2071 BS/2014 AD), only one case of human trafficking was registered in the fiscal year 2068/69 BS (2011/12 AD), two cases in 2069/70 BS (2012/13 AD) and one case in 2070/71 BS (2013/14 AD). However, Tamang and Chepang among the Janjati and Dalits have been reported highly vulnerable in terms of trafficking in women and children.

Similarly, Makwanpur district also lies in Narayani Zone of CDR. In this district, six cases of human trafficking were registered in the fiscal year 2068/69 BS (2011/12 AD), two cases in 2069/70 BS (2012/13 AD) and one case in 2070/71 BS (2013/14 AD) [(MoWCSW, 2071 BS (2014 AD))]. However, this is also one of the vulnerable districts in terms of trafficking in children due to several reasons. First, children and youths belonging to marginalised and poorer groups such as Chepang, Tamang and Dalit leave their homes in search of better earning and livelihood. Secondly, there are a number of outlets connected to the main highways in the district leading to Kathmandu as well as the Indian border. Third, presence of a higher number of organisations working in the district in anti-trafficking clearly reveals the fact that trafficking in women and children is higher in that district.

4.2 General Characteristics of the Sample Households and Population

As mentioned in Chapter Two, a total of 1,134 households were sampled for the survey. One informant each from these households was selected. The study team envisaged to maintain equal number of male (567) and female (567) informants. However, the total number of male informants turned out to be higher than that of females due to very low participation of females in Bara district (Annex 1, Table 1). The veil (*ghunghat*) system prevalent in Madhesi society is often restrictive for women to participate in both research and development programmes. In Dhading and Makwanpur, female participation equalled male participation.

4.2.1 Gender of the Informants

The study team attempted to involve male and female informants proportionately. However, due to unavailability of female enumerators who could select and interview female informants more easily, the number of female informants in Bara district was very low. Of the total informants, 628 (55.4%) are male and 506 (44.6%) are female (Table 1-2). The number of informants by gender is not proportionate due to very low participation of female informants in Bara district. As mentioned above, deep-rooted practice of wearing veil (*ghunghat*) in the Madhesi societies of Nepal often restricts women to participate in research and development programmes. Due to this practice, females do not easily participate in social gathering and interact with outsiders, especially with the males. However, both male and female informants participated in key informant interviews and focus group discussions.

4.2.2 Caste/Ethnicity of the Informants

Of the total informants, 370 (32.6%) are Dalit followed by 343 (30.3%) Janjati, 279 (24.6%) Brahmin/Chhetri, 128 (11.3%) Madhesi, and 14 (1.2%) Muslim (Table 1-2). Even though effort was made to represent all the predetermined three categories of caste/ethnic groups (BCTS, Dalit and Janjati)

proportionately, it could not be maintained due to the absence of some group in a particular district and VDC. Due to the specific caste/ethnic composition of Bara district where Madhesi and Muslim people are dominant, Janjati are fully absent in two VDCs and Brahmin/Chhetri are absent in one VDC. The following figure shows the caste/ethnic distribution of the informants who participated in the household survey.

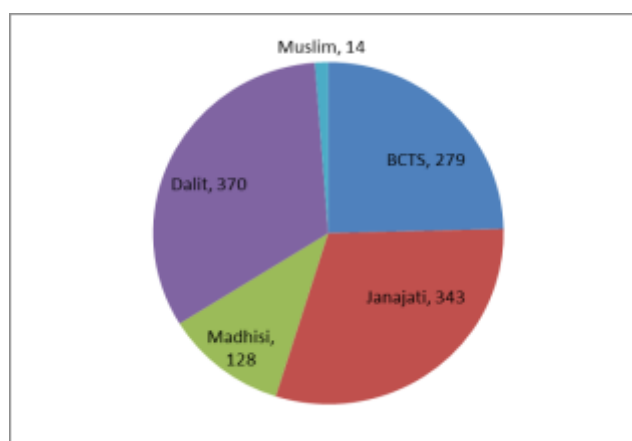


Figure 1: Caste/Ethnic Distribution of the Respondents

4.2.3 Gender, Marital Status and Relation with Household Head

Majority of the households in the study areas are male-headed. Of the total sample households, 948 (83.6%) households were male-headed and the remaining 186 (16.4%) were headed by females (Table 1-2). Of the total of 1,134 household heads, 1,033 (91.1%) were married and had their spouse. It is interesting to note that joint and/or extended families still exist in rural societies of Nepal. Of the total population (6148) of sample households, population of parents-in-law, son-in-law, other relatives, and persons with no consanguinal (lineage based) and affinal (marriage based) relations have been also recorded (Table 70).

4.2.4 Household Size

Average household size is 5.42, which is higher than the national average (4.8) recorded by CBS (2011). Average household size is highest in Bara (5.71) and lowest in Makwanpur (5.21). Among the caste/ethnic categories, it is highest among the Muslim (6.43). The number of persons less than 5 years of age per household is lowest (0.21) among Muslim and highest (0.48) among Madhesi. The number of female members per household is also highest among the Muslims. The number of male persons of 5-14 age group per household is highest in Makwanpur (Table 71-75). The highest number of households reporting their children trafficked after the earthquake corresponds with the largest average household size in Bara district, but due to the smaller number of cases reported, it is difficult to correlate household size with the highest number of children trafficked in the district. A separate study needs to be carried out to verify it.

4.2.5 Occupation of Family Members

Occupational status of an individual member of the family has connection with her/his contribution to the livelihood status of the household. Informants of the household survey were asked about the main occupation of their family members aged 16 years and above. Of the total 4,125 persons above 16 years, 33.4 per cent were found engaged in agriculture and livestock farming, 21.4 per cent were only doing household chores, 13.8 per cent were students, 13 per cent were involved in jobs/services, 9.6 per cent were serving as off-farm labour, 4.5 per cent in business/trade and 4.2 per cent were jobless. Of the total 568 persons reported as students, the highest proportion (38%) comprised Brahmin/Chhetri and the lowest (8%) was found among the Madhesi category (Table 83). Gender disaggregated analysis was also done to know the status of male and female population engaged in different occupations (Table 84-

86). Gender-disaggregated occupational distribution was also analysed for different age groups (Table 87-90).

4.2.6 Educational Status

Education plays a vital role in reducing the rate of child trafficking. If family members are educated and aware of the causes and consequences of trafficking, the traffickers cannot lure them and take away their children. Distribution of average number of members of different age groups in the surveyed households by educational status is given in Table 109-111. Percentage distribution of male and female population by educational status is presented in the following figure.

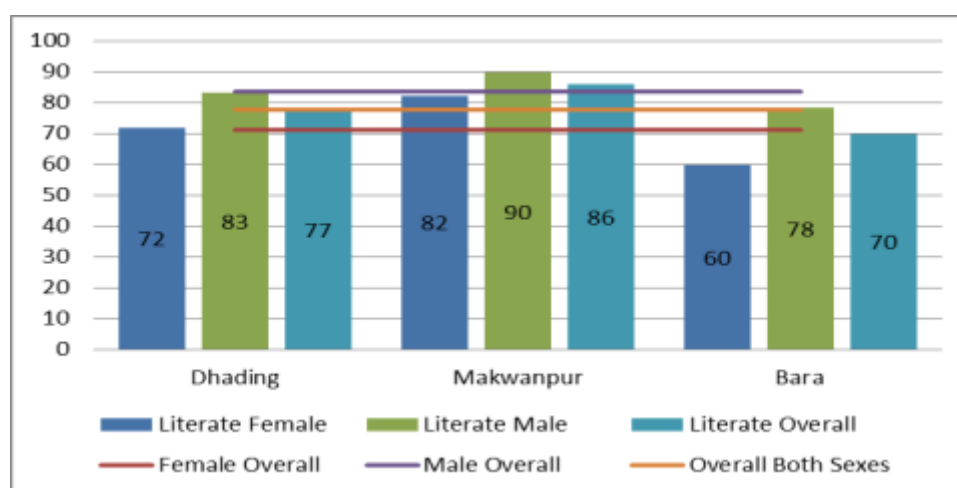


Figure 2: Educational Status by Gender

Average years of schooling by gender are presented in Table 112-115. Almost all the key informants reported that children have been trafficked in their district and communities, specifically from those families in which parents are illiterate and/or are unaware of child trafficking and its consequences.

4.2.7 Schooling of Children

Similar to the discussion found in CI/CN (2010), schooling of children is highly associated with child labour, child migration and child trafficking. In the context of remote rural communities in Nepal, children have not been sent to school either due to parents' inability to afford increasing costs of education, or they must send their children to work for ensuring bread, or existing school environments are not capable of retaining their children in schools.

Of the total of 1552 children in 5-15 age group, 95.1 per cent were found currently in school followed by 3.2 per cent never enrolled school and 1.7 per cent currently not in school. Of the total of 27 children who were going to school before but currently are not going to school, the percentage of Dalit is highest (77%). Of the total of 49 children never been in school, 51 per cent were from Janjati followed by 36 per cent Dalit (Table 116). Gender disaggregated data in relation to the number and percentage of children aged 5-15 years going to school is presented in Table 117 and 118. Percentage distribution of children aged 5-15 years going to school is presented in the following figure.

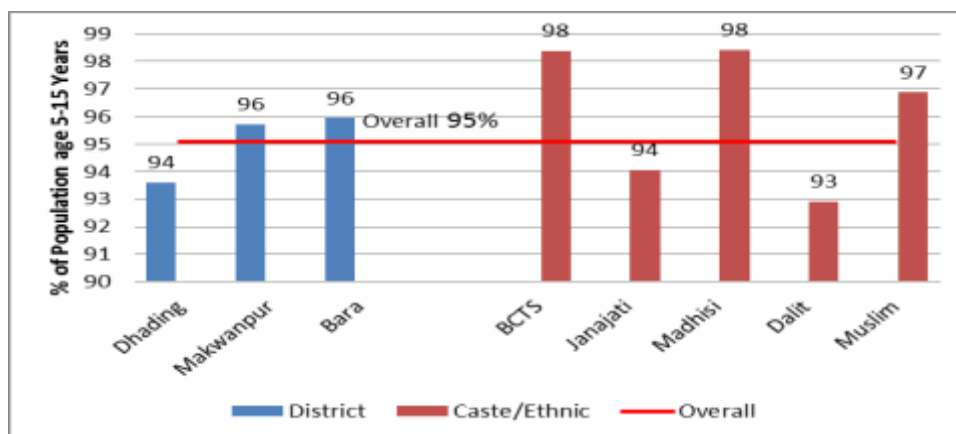


Figure 3: Percentages of Children Aged 5-15 Years Currently at School

There are still some children who have never been in school and some have left the school. Key informants and FGD participants reported that children from poorer families, especially from Dalit and Janjati, which have more than two children have been dropped out from school due to inability to afford the increasing costs of education.

4.2.8 Reasons behind Drop-Out

Those children who do not go to school and those who ever went to school but have been dropped out from schools are expected to be at risk of child labour, migration and trafficking.

Reasons behind school dropout are presented in Table 119. Gender disaggregated data in relation to reasons reported are presented in Table 120 and 121. Percentage distribution by reasons behind drop out is presented in the following figure.

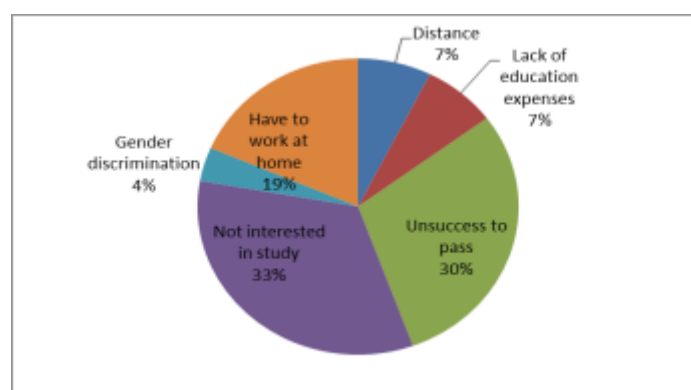


Figure 4: Reasons behind Drop Out

The highest proportion of drop out occurred among Dalit children due to several reasons. One of them is that most of the Dalit families were poorer and they could not afford to pay for their children's education. Another reason is that parents in Dalit families were not educated and they do not possess adequate knowledge about the importance of education.

4.3 Economic Status of the Informant Households

In this section, issues related to household economy are discussed. Information related to land holding, crop and livestock production, annual cash income, expenditure pattern, and engagement in income generating activities have been described. Similarly, sources of livelihoods and food sufficiency have also been discussed.

4.3.1 Land Holding

In the context of Nepali society, ownership of land is considered to be one of the determinants of wellbeing. This is because land is regarded as a valuable property and majority of people still depend on subsistence type of agriculture for their livelihood.

Households are classified into three categories with equal number of household (378 households) in each based on total land owned by the household. Household owning land up to 0.1525 hectare are categorised as “low land holding”, households owning land more than 0.3183 hectare are categorised as “high land holding” and the remaining households who own land between 0.1525-0.3183 hectare are categorised as “medium land holding households” (Table 1 and 2). Similarly, the pattern of land holding and land use has been presented in Table 7-10. As mentioned earlier, landholding is directly related to the livelihood and food security. There is correlation between child labour, child migration and child trafficking with the size and type of landholding. In other words, higher and better the landholding, better the economic status and higher food security due to better production. Consequently, better the economic status and higher the food security, lower the chance of children migrating or trafficked.

4.3.2 Production of Crops

Data related to production of crops is presented in Table 11-13. The surveyed households grew paddy, maize, wheat, barley, vegetables, potato, oil crops, pulses, fruits and spices.

4.3.3 Livestock

Livestock have been always one of the vital components of subsistence farming systems in Nepal. In many cases, having a milking cow or buffalo is more beneficial than ownership of or access to one hectare of land in terms of cash income. The status of livestock holding and production by different products and by-products is presented in Table 14-19.

4.3.4 Annual Cash Income

Households were classified in three categories each with equal number (378 households) based on total annual cash income of the household. All the households were first arranged or indexed in ascending order of total annual cash income. Then the 1134 households were divided into three cash income categories, consisting of 378 households in each category. Cash income is defined as the amount received from the sale of goods and services produced. Hence, the goods and services produced and consumed were neither valued nor taken as cash income. Households earning up to Rs. 110,000 per annum were categorised as "low cash income" households. Households earning between Rs. 110,000-217,000 were categorised as "medium cash income" and the remaining households that earned more than Rs. 217,000 were categorised as high cash income households (Table 1-2). Average cash income across different socioeconomic categories is shown in the following figure.

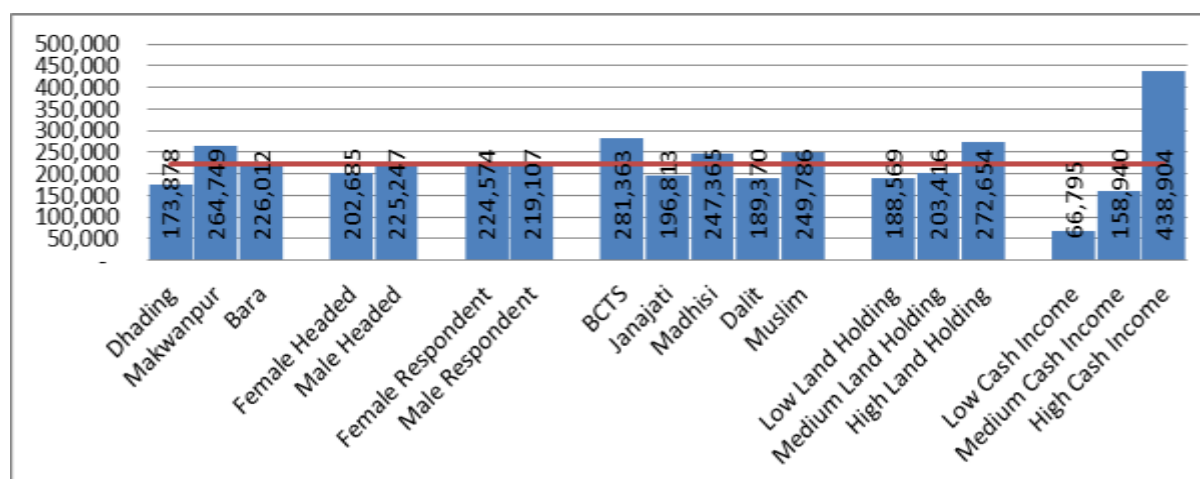


Figure 5: Average Annual Cash Income

Data related to various sources of cash income are presented in Table 25-26 and average annual cash income per household is presented in Table 27. The study found that there is association between the status of cash income on one hand and child labour, child migration and child trafficking on the other. It can also be inferred that lower the cash income or higher the level of poverty, higher the occurrence of child labour, migration and trafficking. Majority of the sample households were not able to meet their livelihood needs through their own on-farm products. They needed to earn cash for it. In those families, where parents were not able to earn cash sufficient to meet household requirements, they were either compelled to send their children to work or children left home without family consent and company, or the traffickers were able to trap them from these families.

4.3.5 Annual Household Expenditure

Surveyed households spent cash for purchasing food grains and other food items, various agricultural inputs (labour, seed, pesticides, draft power, tractor, etc.), livestock-related expenses (feed, medicines, etc.), fuel (kerosene, firewood, gas, etc.), clothes, transportation and communication, health/treatment, education, payment of loan and interest, social functions/feasts/festivals, electricity/energy, cigarette and alcohol (Table 23-24).

Annual household expenditure pattern shows that people have to spend the highest amount of cash in food followed by children's education, fuel and health care/treatments. Moreover, spending higher amounts of cash on feasts and festivals and on alcohol and cigarettes obviously affects expenses on other basic livelihood requirements. Households belonging to Dalit and ethnic groups like Tamang and Chepang were found spending higher amounts on such items compared to other caste/ethnic groups. There were higher incidences of child trafficking from these households. This scenario clearly points out that awareness campaigns conducted in the past put low emphasis on contents related to household food consumption and expenditure patterns.

4.3.6 Engagement in Income Generating Activities

Income generation activities (IGAs) include both on-farm and off-farm works such as goat keeping, vegetable production, handicrafts, sewing and knitting, etc. (Table 96-97). Most of these IGAs were found supported by the government and non-governmental development organisations. All organisations were found targeting the poor, marginal and vulnerable groups of people, especially low income groups. When probed further during key informant interviews, majority of the informants reported that many of the households in the study areas were able to enhance their livelihood through these IGAs. As a result, though indirectly, this has definitely helped to reduce the rate of child labour, migration and trafficking.

4.3.7 Sources of Livelihood

Data related to the sources of livelihood are presented in Table 20. Percentages of households by main source of livelihood are shown in the following figure.

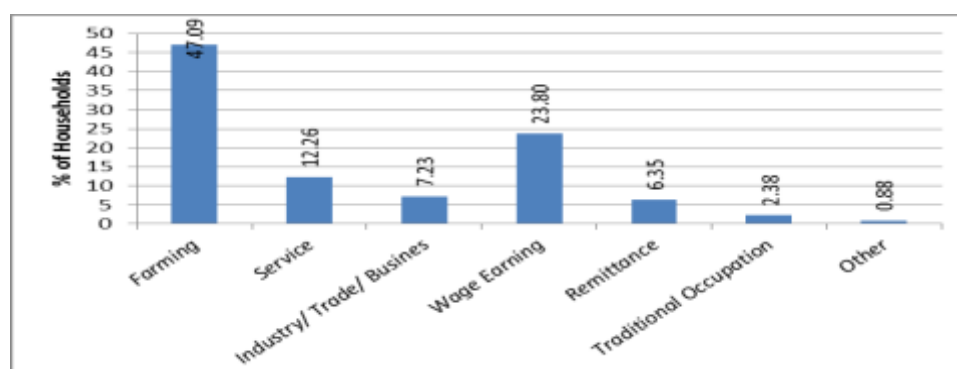


Figure 6: Main Sources of Livelihood

Although agriculture was found as the main source of livelihood for less than one-half of the households surveyed, land holding status discussed in Section 4.3.1 demonstrates that majority of the households

are still engaged in agriculture. However, people's sources of livelihood have been diversified by adopting new sources of cash earning such as foreign employment, wage labouring, regular job/service, and commerce and trade.

4.3.8 Food Sufficiency

In this study, food sufficiency denotes the contribution of own on-farm production to the total annual food requirement of a household. The status of food sufficiency is presented in Table 21. Percentage distribution of households by level of food sufficiency among the caste/ethnic groups is presented in the following figure.

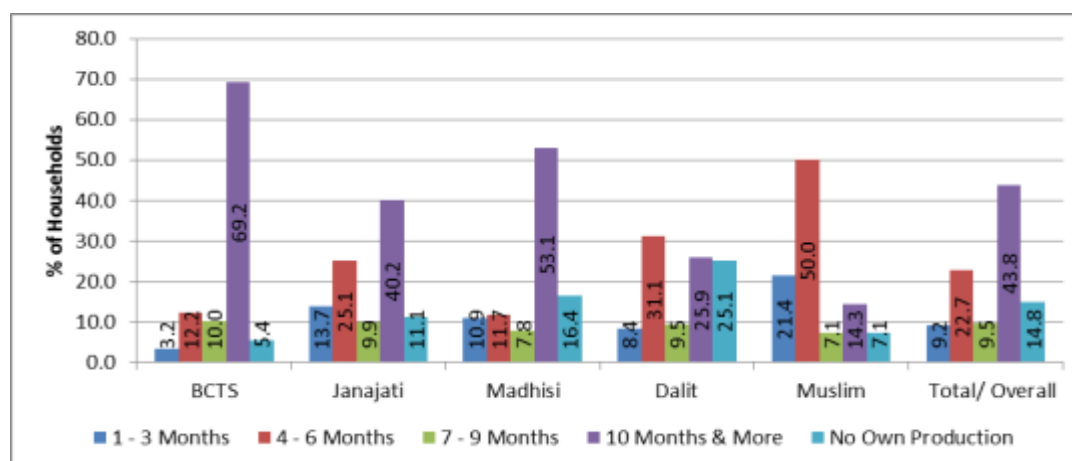


Figure 7: Food Sufficiency Level among Caste/Ethnic Groups

Similarly, percentage distribution of households by level of food sufficiency among the landholding categories is presented in the following figure.

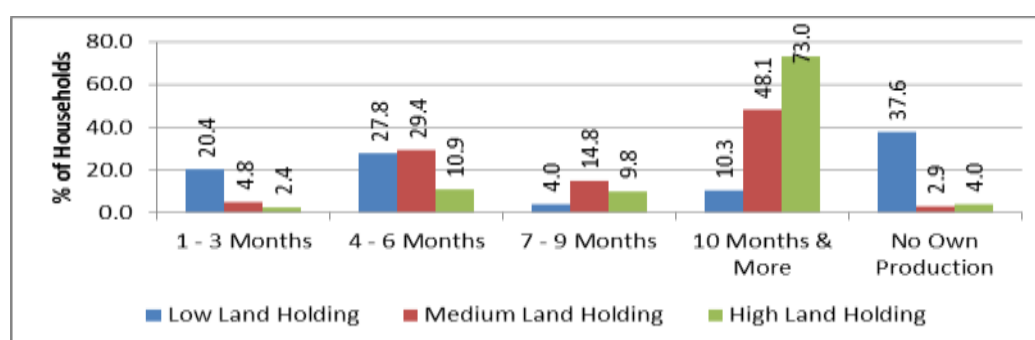


Figure 8: Food Sufficiency by Land Holding

Strategies adopted to cope with food insufficiency are presented in Table 22. Percentage distribution of households adopting different coping strategies is presented in the following figure.

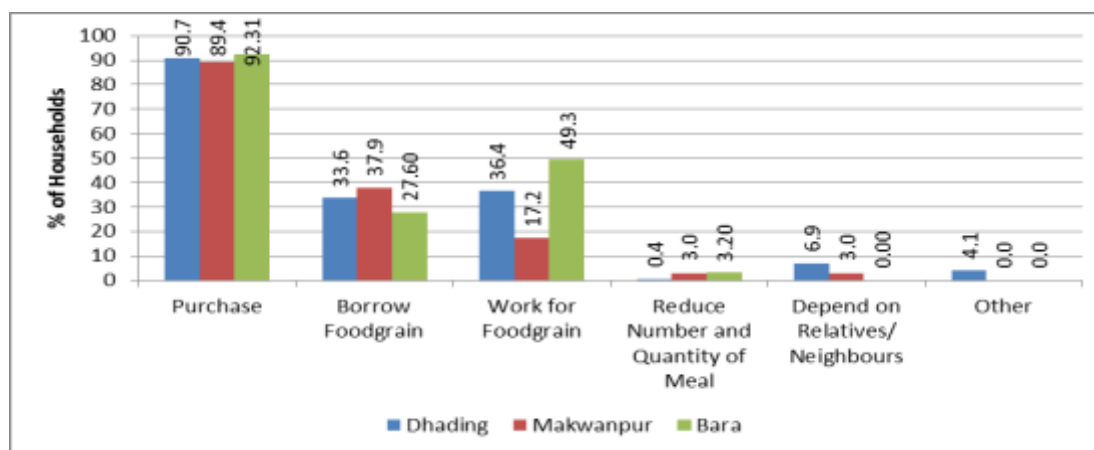


Figure 9: Coping Strategies against Food Insufficiency

In the surveyed communities, members from poorer households which were food insufficient migrated to urban cities, especially Kathmandu, within the country and to India and even overseas.

4.4 Household Level Infrastructure and Facilities

In this section, information regarding sources of energy for cooking and lighting, sources of drinking water, and toilet facilities is discussed.

4.4.1 Sources of Energy for Cooking and Lighting

Households in the surveyed communities used firewood, animal dung cake, LP gas, bio-gas, electricity and kerosene for cooking purposes. Some households, especially well-off ones, have been using multiple sources of energy for cooking. Households in the study districts have been using electricity, kerosene, chargeable electric lights, and solar panels for lighting purposes. Data related to various sources of energy for cooking and lighting is presented in Table 3 and 4.

4.4.2 Sources of Drinking Water

Households of the study districts have been using multiple sources of water for drinking purposes, for both humans and domesticated animals. Data related to the sources of drinking water are presented in Table 5. In many of the communities of remote areas, especially in hilly areas, fetching drinking water is really a difficult household chore. In many households, the task of fetching water is assigned to women, and also to children, and they have to walk for hours. This has really made women's life harder in rural villages in Dhading and Makwanpur districts.

4.4.3 Toilet Facilities

Data related to toilet facility are presented in Table 6. The proportion of households lacking toilet is found higher among Madhesi and Muslim households of Bara district. Data reveal that people in Madhesi community are less aware of sanitation as well as the importance of toilet.

4.5 Affiliation to Local NGO/CBOs

Informants were asked about the affiliation of family members in community-based organisations (CBOs) or local non-governmental organisations (NGOs). The main objective of this enquiry was to know whether people in the study communities had been getting any support from these organisations and whether there were any organisations rendering services related to anti-trafficking. Data related to institutional affiliation are presented in Table 98-100. Similarly, membership in these organisations, and positions held by gender and caste/ethnicity is presented in Table 101-103. Position held by family members having membership in different institutions is presented in Table 104-108. During the survey, informants of both household survey and key informants reported that women's groups, mother groups and child clubs were also engaged in activities related to anti-trafficking through awareness raising. Information obtained from the survey shows that women- and children-led community-based

organisations have been addressing the issue of trafficking in persons. Such awareness-raising activities have helped reduce child trafficking in the communities where these community-based organisations are actively engaged in anti-trafficking campaigns.

4.6 Migration of Family Members

Human trafficking is considered one of the dark sides of the migratory process. Movement of people for purposes of trafficking should not be confused with voluntary migration. Unsafe and forced migration exposes people to greater risk of forced labour or slavery and sometimes even trafficking (ILO, 2006).

In the following sub-sections, information obtained through the survey regarding residential status and migration of family members is presented.

4.6.1 Residential Status of Family Members

Asking respondents directly about trafficking is always problematic in household surveys in the context of Nepali society. Families are compelled to send their children to work due to hand-to-mouth problem. There is a tendency not to divulge the fact that they have sent their children to work. They think that their children are in a better condition than at home. Even if they know that their children are being exploited, they think that it is their fate. In this context, an indirect approach was applied to explore about child labour, migration and trafficking in order to know the linkage between them. Informants were asked whether all the family members lived together or any of the family members had out-migrated.

Average number of household members residing and not residing at home is presented in Tables 77-82. It needs to be noted that this is the age group (5-14 years) from which children are at high risk to trafficking. A higher number of children of this age group who had migrated in Makwanpur may have an association with higher chance of child trafficking in that district.

Enquiry was also made about the residential status in the post-earthquake situation compared to the pre-earthquake situation. As the issue of trafficking is socially and legally sensitive, people are often hesitant to disclose the actual cases of trafficking due to social stigma, embarrassment, shame, and indignity. After a series of discussions and revision of study tools, the study team decided to insert some queries in the household interview schedule seeking information on whether any of the children of a particular family had out-migrated.

The before earthquake period was split into two time brackets, namely, before Ashwin 2071 (before mid-October 2014), seven months before the earthquake (mid October 2014-mid April 2015) and seven months after the earthquake (May-October 2015). It was done in order to make a comparison between before and after earthquake situations applicable to the period of 7 months before and 7 months after the earthquake.

The distribution of persons who migrated before mid-October 2014 is presented in Table 91. Distribution of persons who migrated during the period mid-October 2014 to mid-April 2015 (seven months before the earthquake) is presented in Table 92. Similarly, distribution of the persons migrated during the period of mid-April 2015-October 2015 (seven months after the earthquake) has been presented in Table 93. The aggregate number of family members who migrated before 7 months and after 7 months of the earthquake is presented in Table 94. The proportion of household members who migrated seven months before and after the earthquake is presented in Table 95.

4.6.2 Reasons for Migration

Reported reasons behind migration were search for job, study, migration of family members, business, skill enhancement, influence of returnee migrants, and medication/treatment (Table 223 and 124). Findings of the present survey revealed that majority of the people migrated due to the problem of unemployment. Reasons for migration among all the household members reported by the informants of household survey are presented in the following figure.

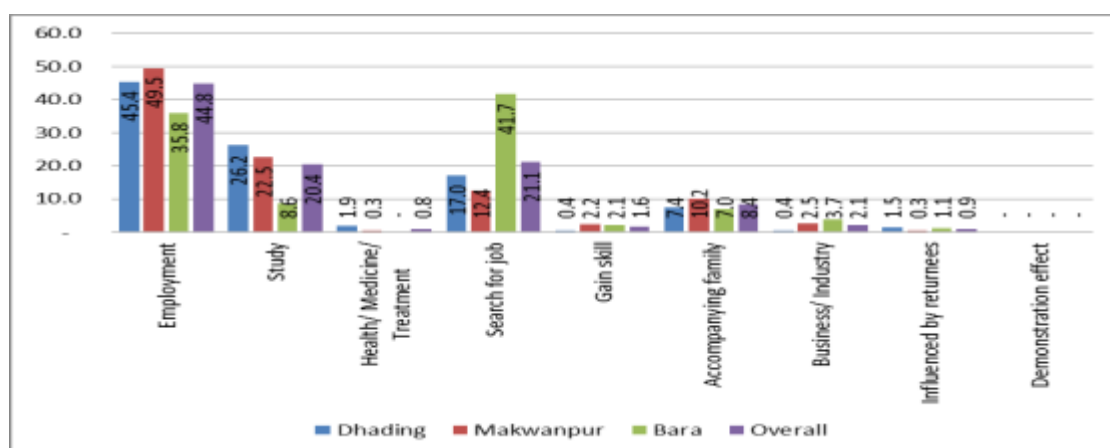


Figure 10: Reasons for migration among all the household members

As mentioned earlier, migration is directly linked with trafficking as the migrants are most vulnerable to being trafficked during the migratory process. In Nepali society, many cases of trafficking have often been taken as normal since children or any other family members migrate searching for work away from home to earn money and support the family financially. Family members, friends or relatives in many instances have been found to have played important roles in encouraging women and children to leave their homes for livelihood opportunities (ILO, 2006). Thus it can be argued that poverty or the problem of livelihood is the main cause behind migration of majority of the people in the surveyed communities.

4.6.3 Consent/Permission of Family for Migration

Data related to consent taken from the family is presented in Table 125. Gender disaggregated data related to the number and percentage of all aged migrants and the status of permission granted by the family is presented in Table 126-128. Findings of the household survey clearly show that members from poorer families from Dalit and Janjati categories do not take or seek consent from their family to leave home. It is extreme poverty they have been suffering from, which compels them to migrate, even without taking consent from the family, for earning bread and butter.

4.6.4 Medium Used for Migration

Information related to the medium used for migration and the persons/institutions involved in the process is presented in Table 129 and 130. The proportion of males migrating alone with friends is higher and this clearly shows that men in the Nepali society are more independent than women. The percentage of migrants by the number of persons/institutions accompanied while migrating is presented in the following figure.

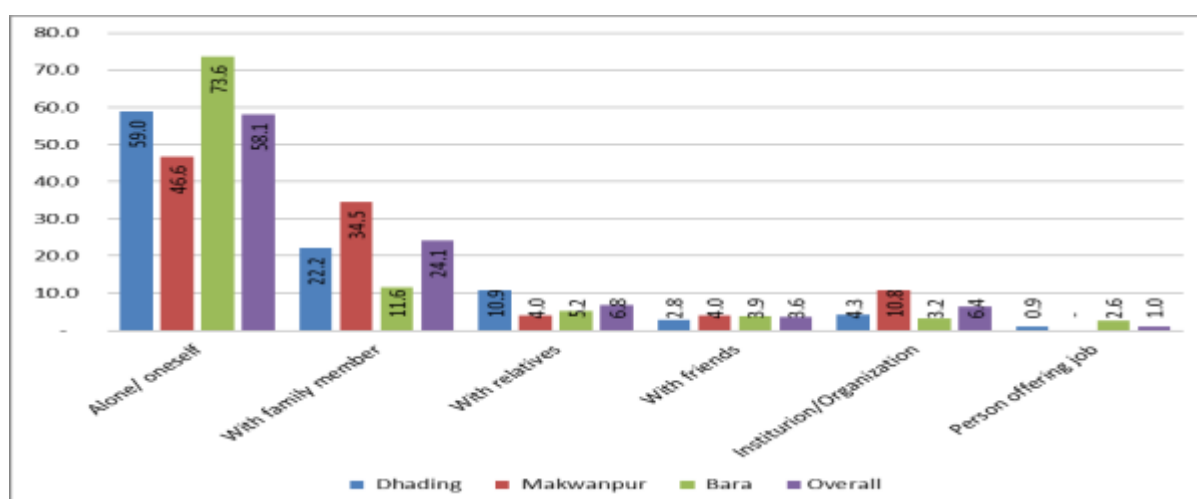


Figure 11: Percentage of Migrants by Persons/Institutions Accompanied with

4.6.5 Work at Destination and Remittance Sent to Family

The nature of work done in destination provides some clues about the level of knowledge and skill acquired by the migrant people. They were engaged in job/service, study, off-farm labour, business/trade, farming and domestic works (Table 131). Gender disaggregated data related to work at destination are presented in Table 132 and 133. Similarly, data related to remittance sent by migrants is presented in Table 134. The percentage of migrants by their engagement in destination is presented in the following figure.

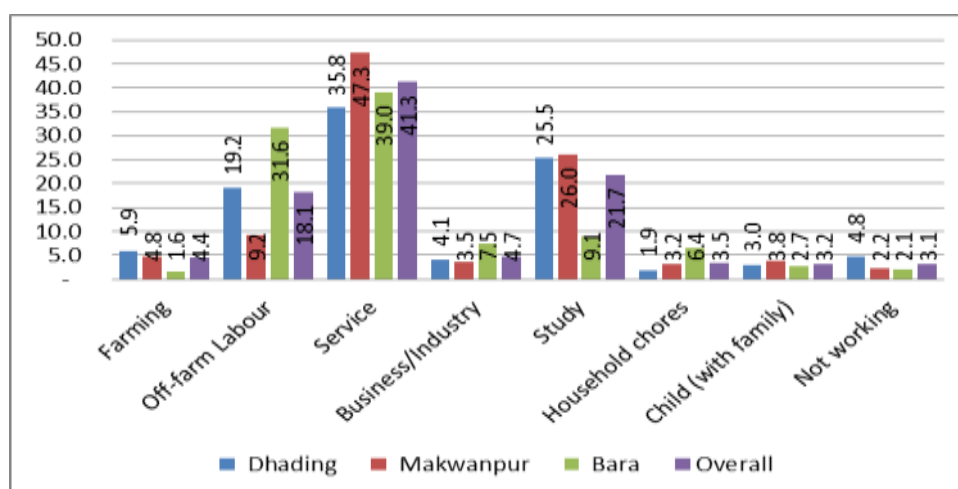


Figure 12: Percentage of Migrants Engagement in the Destination

When probed further about the nature of job/service migrants had been engaged in, it was found that most of the migrants had been working as non-skilled or semi-skilled labourers. It is due to lack of technical and vocational skills that they could acquire before leaving the country.

4.7 Migration of Children

Child migration appears directly associated with child trafficking. In the context of Nepal, especially in rural communities, children from low and medium income and low and medium landholding families have been reported migrating internally to Kathmandu and other urban places and even to Indian cities. Children from these families are either not enrolled in the schools or they are dropouts. Families with two or more children are compelled to drop out of school because they cannot afford the increasing costs of education. Consequently, either the parents send their children to work anywhere outside or children themselves leave home with or without consent of their guardians. For instance, majority of the children from Tamang and Chepang families in Dhading district migrated alone/unaccompanied without taking permission/consent from their family.

It is due to extreme poverty in the family and lack of alternative ways of earning a living that children migrated, especially to urban areas, seeking job. All the key informants and FGD participants also reported the same reason behind child migration. Compulsion to seek job for earning a living, family/household problems like worsened relationship with step-father or step-mother, elopement of mother, father's remarriage and step-mother's misbehaviour, difficulty in doing household chores, death of the parents, divorce between parents, father's departure from home, dreaming of a bright future, difficulty in school level study, hope for better study, and fear caused by the earthquake have been reported as push factors behind child migration. Similarly, possibility of earning cash in urban places, availability of tasty foods and nice cloths, false promises given by others, demonstrations effects, interest to merrymaking, interest to watch movie/cinema and use cell phone have been found the pull factors triggering child migration. According to majority of key informants and FGD participants, most of the children who migrated alone and did not ask or take consent from their family were from families where domestic violence, divorce and remarriage had occurred.

Children who migrate unaccompanied by family members are the most vulnerable and at risk in terms of being abused or trafficked. Dalit and Janjati families were observed giving less priority to education of their children either due to extreme poverty or due to lower level of awareness regarding the importance of education, or due to both of these factors. Rather, they send their children to explore any job that could potentially help in supporting their livelihood. Data obtained from the household survey clearly showed that children who earn cash in destination send remittance to support their family. Almost all children sending remittance to their family are from Dalit and Janjati categories. These social categories have been facing the problems of food insecurity and/or livelihood threats.

4.7.1 Reasons behind Child Migration

Various reasons like job hunting, family/household problems, demonstration effects, dreaming of a bright future, difficulty in study at school, expectation of a better educational opportunity, and fear associated with earthquake have been reported as reasons behind child migration (Table 35). The following figure shows percentage distribution of informants reporting push factors of child migration.

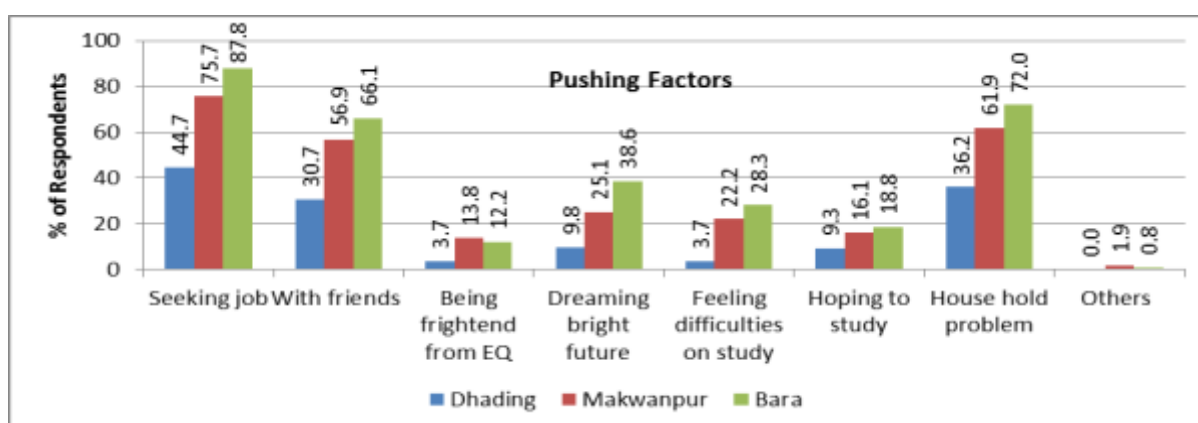


Figure 13: Reasons behind Child Migration (Push Factors)

Problems encountered within families were the main push factors triggering child migration. Data related to household problems are presented in Table 36. The following figure shows the percentage distribution of informants by family-related reason behind outmigration of children in the study districts.

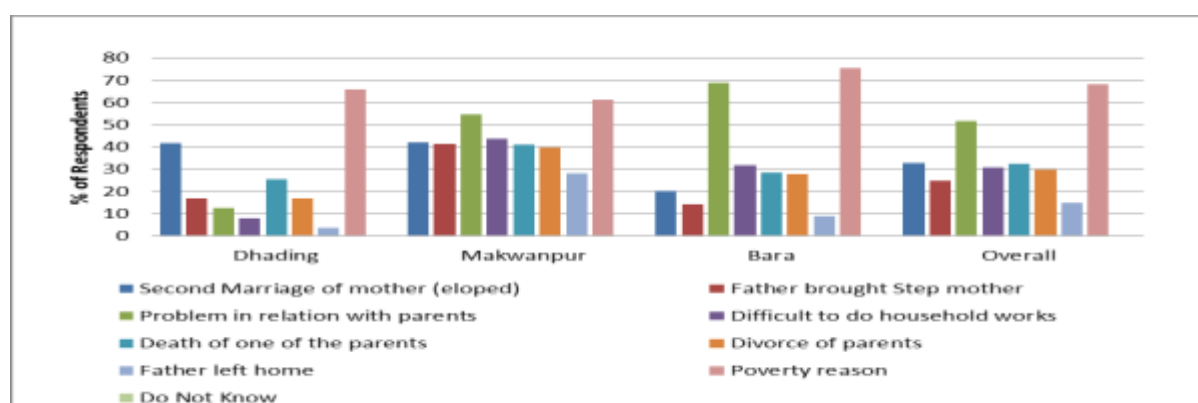


Figure 14: Family Reasons (Household Problems) behind Child Migration

Data related to pull factors triggering child migration are presented in Table 35a. The following figure shows the percentage distribution of the informants reporting pull factors of child migration.

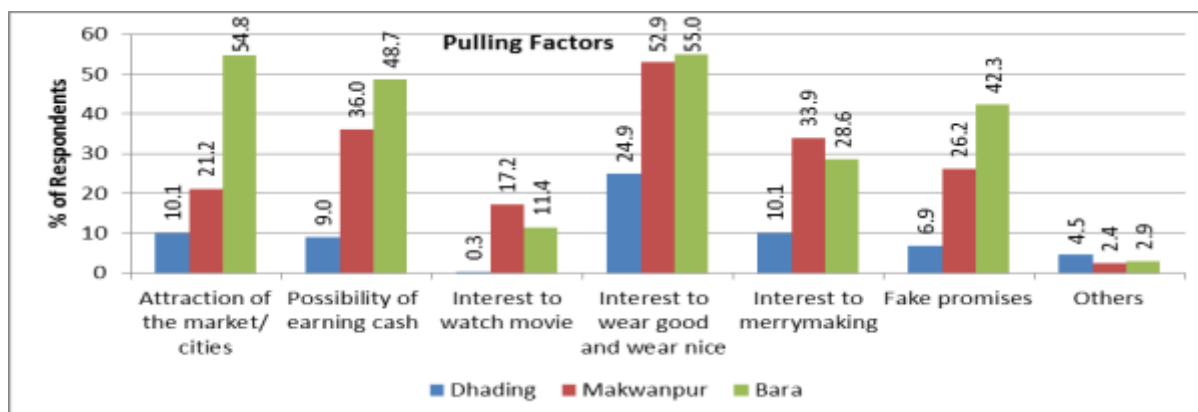


Figure 15: Reasons behind Child Migration (Pull Factors)

Questions about the causes of child migration were asked to households, and key informants and FGD participants. Majority of them asserted that most of the children who migrated alone and did not ask or permitted by their family. These were from families suffering from domestic violence, divorce and remarriage.

The overall reasons behind migration of children are listed in Table 135. Gender-disaggregated data related to reasons for migration of children are presented in Table 136 and 137. The following figure shows the percentages of informants reporting different reasons behind child migration.

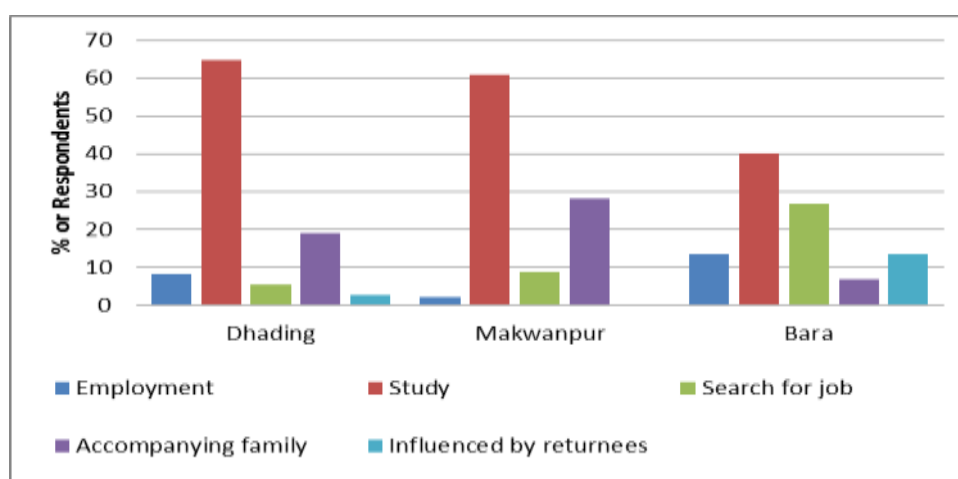


Figure 16: Overall Reasons behind Child Migration

Household survey findings reveal that Brahmin/Chhetri castes give priority to education of their children. On the contrary, Dalit households do not give priority to education; rather, they send their children to explore any job that could support their livelihood.

4.7.2 Consent/Permission of Family for Child Migration

Of the total of 98 children who migrated, 94.9 per cent were given permission by their families and only 4.1 per cent did not ask for any permission. Those who did not ask for permission were from Janjati category (Table 138). Gender disaggregated data related to the status of permission taken from family is presented in Table 139 and 140. Most of the key informants also reported that majority of the children from Chepang and Tamang households do not seek permission to leave home. The following figure shows the percentage of children migrated with or without family consent.

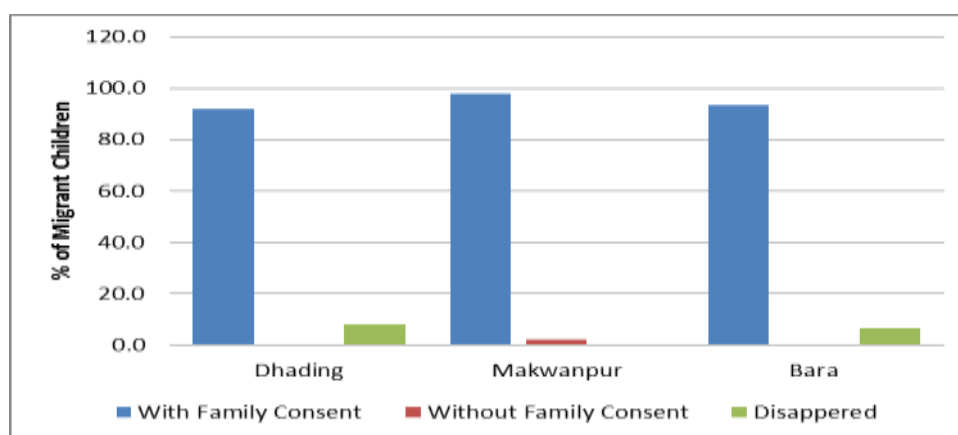


Figure 17: Percentages of Children Who Migrated with or without Family Consent

4.7.3 Medium Used by Children for Migration

While migrating, children were accompanied with several persons. Other than family members, children went outside along with friends and relatives and even with traffickers.

The distribution of household respondents in terms of their knowledge about the person/institution with whom children had accompanied while migrating is presented in Table 37. The following figure shows the percentage distribution of the informants by medium used by children for out-migration in the study districts.

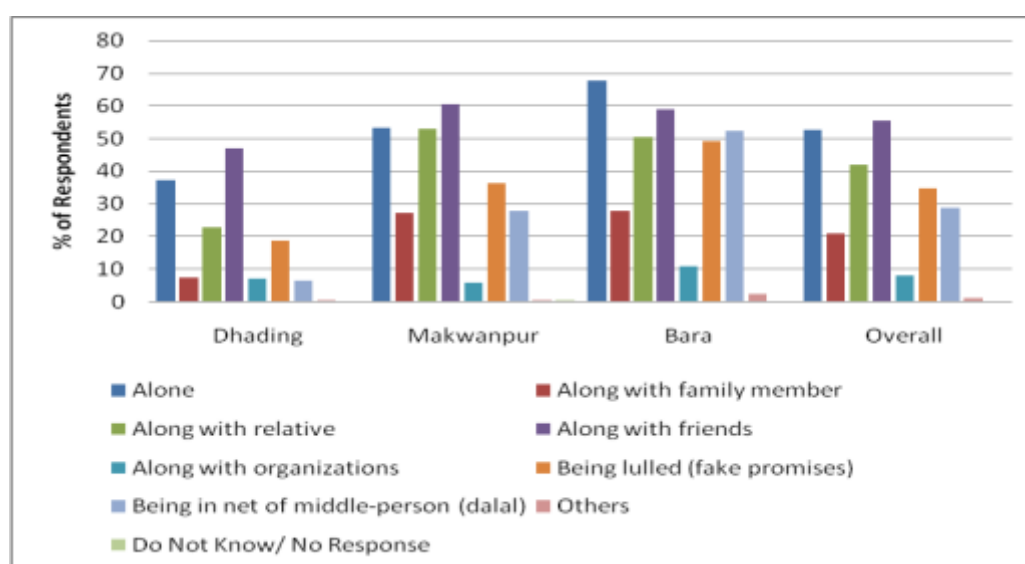


Figure 18: Medium Used for Migration

Key informants and FGD participants were asked about the traffickers who took children to Kathmandu and other places. One of the social mobilisers (key informant) in Dhading district told that bus and truck drivers were more involved in trafficking of children. They first built up relation with children through frequent contacts, and then they extended relations with other children, talked about the employment opportunities and took the children to Kathmandu. FGD participants in Jogimara VDC, Dhading, reported that husband (*logne*) and elder women (*gaunko didi*) were the persons involved in trafficking girls and other children. It has also been reported that majority of Tamang children and some Chepong children from Dhading district migrated alone without taking permission from their family.

Data related to the medium (persons/institutions) used by migrant children while migrating is presented in Table 141. Gender disaggregated data related to the medium used by child migrants are presented in Table 142 and 143.

4.7.4 Work Done by Children at Destination and Remittance Sent to Family

Information gathered regarding the nature of children's involvement in the destination reveals that almost all children have been living a physically risky and vulnerable life. Serving as helper in transportation, working for 16-18 hours a day in hotels/restaurants, or working as domestic worker clearly points out that they are engaged in exploitative and unsafe works. Such unsafe and precarious living conditions provide an attractive environment for child traffickers to lure the victims away from the current pathetic situation.

Data related to the distribution of household respondents in terms of their knowledge regarding the working condition of children in destination is presented in Table 38. The percentage distribution of informants reporting various tasks children were assigned in the destination is shown in the following figure.

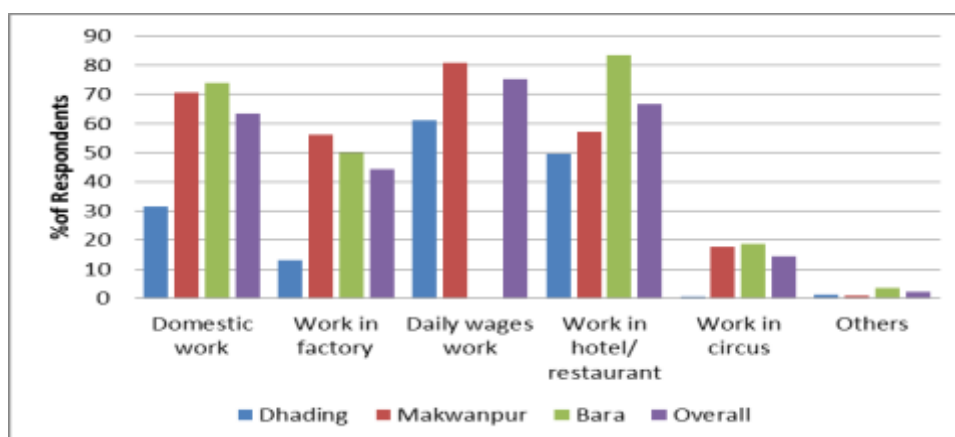


Figure 19: Work Done by Migrant Children

Children were found migrating to different places, especially urban areas, for seeking jobs due to extreme poverty in their family and lack of alternative ways of earning a living. All the key informants and FGD participants also reported the same reason behind child migration.

Data related to engagement of migrant children at destination is presented in Table 144. Gender disaggregated data related to child migrants' work at destination is presented in Table 145 and 146. Percentage distribution of migrant children by their engagement in destination is presented in the following figure.

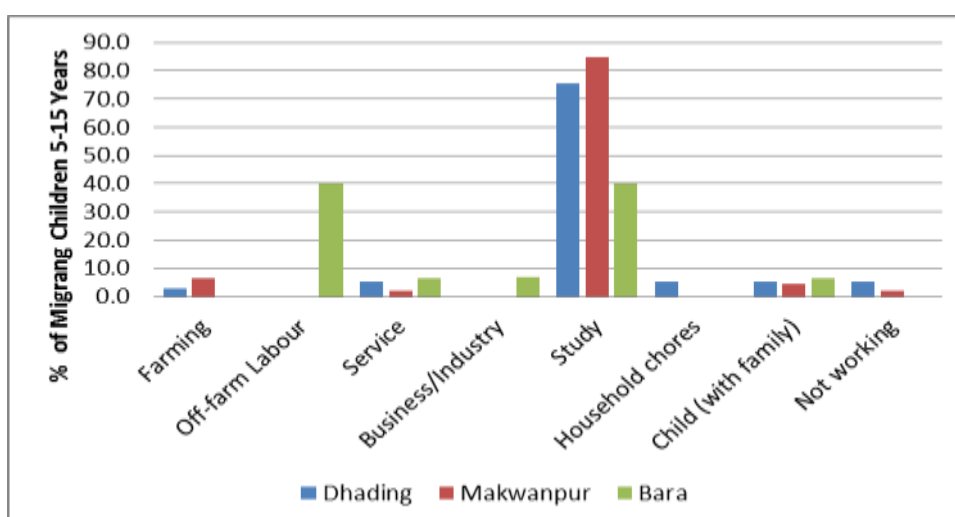


Figure 20: Percentage of Migrant Children by Their Engagement in the Destination

Data related to the status of remittance sent by migrant children is presented in Table 147. The case below suggests that some of the migrated children were able to support their family through their income.

Contribution of eldest daughter to the family

Ms. B (now 15 years) was born in an economically poor and wage labour dependent joint family living in **Bharatgunj Singaul-8, Bara** district. Among three children of the family, she is the eldest daughter. She was dropped out from school while studying eighth grade. Ms. B., frustrated from discontinuation of her study, left home at the age of thirteen without permission of her parents. She went to Kathmandu with a senior colleague and neighbour who worked in a carpet factory. Back home, she was attracted from the changes she observed in that neighbour's family. She first stayed with a relative in a rented room, took training on carpet weaving and started to work. She worked there for two years and now she has returned home with the money she had saved in the festival season of Dashain and Tihar (two major festivals in Nepal). She told that she did not encounter any torture and violence. She told that she was then healthier and more beautiful than before. For the past three months, she is living happily with family members. She has plans to go back to Kathmandu to continue her job in carpet factory with due permission from parents and grandparents so that she can financially contribute to her family.

Household survey data clearly show that family members, especially male members of the family, migrate to earn cash income to support the family. Almost all the children sending remittance to their families are from Dalit and Janjati categories that had been facing food insecurity and livelihood difficulties.

4.8 Community and Household Level Effects of Earthquake

Before asking about the post-earthquake situation of child trafficking, it was relevant to ask first the overall effects of earthquake in order to build rapport with the informants and then ask relevant questions. Distribution of household survey respondents reporting household level effects of the earthquake is presented in Table 28. These effects were total collapse or partial damage of buildings, loss of livestock, physical injury, death of people, and loss of children (Table 29).

Similarly, community level effects of the earthquake are presented in Table 30. Percentage distribution of the informants reporting community level effects of the earthquake is presented in the following figure.

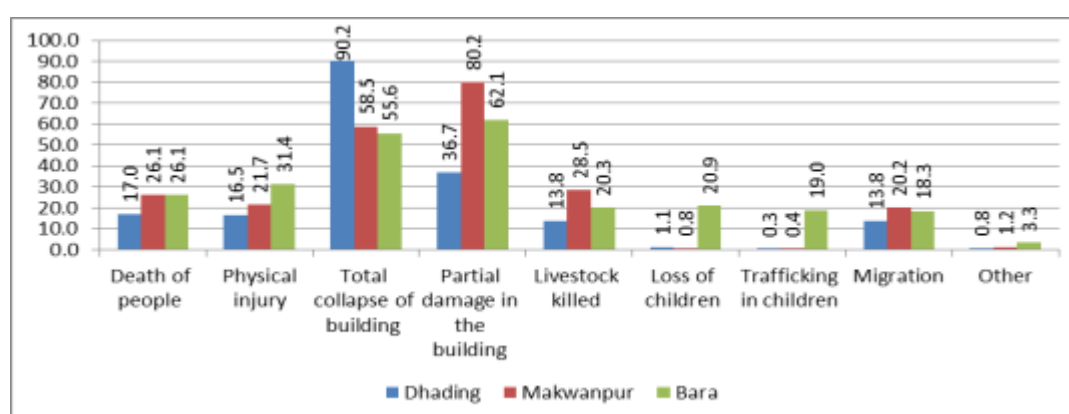


Figure 21: Effects of the Earthquake in the Community

Community level effects of earthquake included total collapse of buildings, partial building damages, death of people, physical injury, loss of livestock, migration/displacement of persons, and loss of children (Table 31).

4.9 Loss/Migration of Children after Earthquake

While discussing about the community level effects of the earthquake, informants mentioned that children had had migrated in the aftermath, and were trafficked away from the community immediately after the earthquake. They had heard about the loss and trafficking of children either from other community members or from local media. Data related to loss/migration of children after the earthquake reported in the household survey is presented in Table 33 and 34. Percentage distribution of informants reporting change in child migration/loss before and after the earthquake is presented in the following figure.

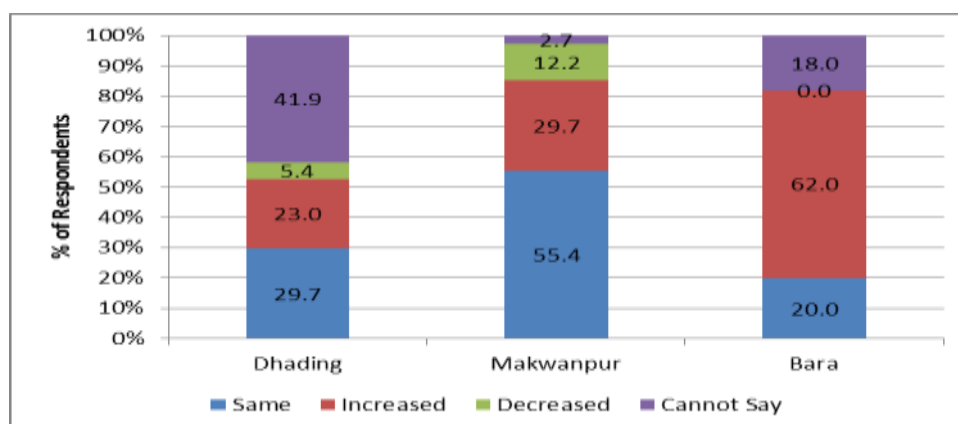


Figure 22: Change in Child Migration before and after the Earthquake

CHAPTER V: CHILD TRAFFICKING IN THE STUDY DISTRICTS

In this chapter, information related to local people's awareness on child trafficking, awareness on legal provisions, causes and consequences of child trafficking and other pertinent issues have been discussed.

5.1 Knowledge/Awareness on Child Trafficking

In the context of Nepali society, parents, especially in poorer, marginalised and disadvantaged families, parents send their children to work voluntarily due to poverty. Those children who migrate or go outside home for work are mostly accompanied either by family or other kin members. Those who are unaccompanied and leave home alone reach their destination on their own risk. This latter group of children is obviously at high risk and prone to be trafficked. However, parents or family members do not worry much about their children whether s/he has been trafficked. They take it for granted and think that their children are anyway living in better condition than at home as if they found something which is better than nothing.

Out of the total 1,134 informants, 57.4 per cent heard about child trafficking. The proportion of informants who ever heard about child trafficking was highest (67.7%) in Bara district and the lowest (43.7%) in Dhading district. Brahman/Chhetri represented the highest proportion (68.5%) among the respondents and Dalit the lowest (53.8%) among other caste/ethnic categories (Table 39). Percentage distribution of informants who heard about children trafficked from their community (Table 41) by district across the caste/ethnic groups is shown in the following figure.

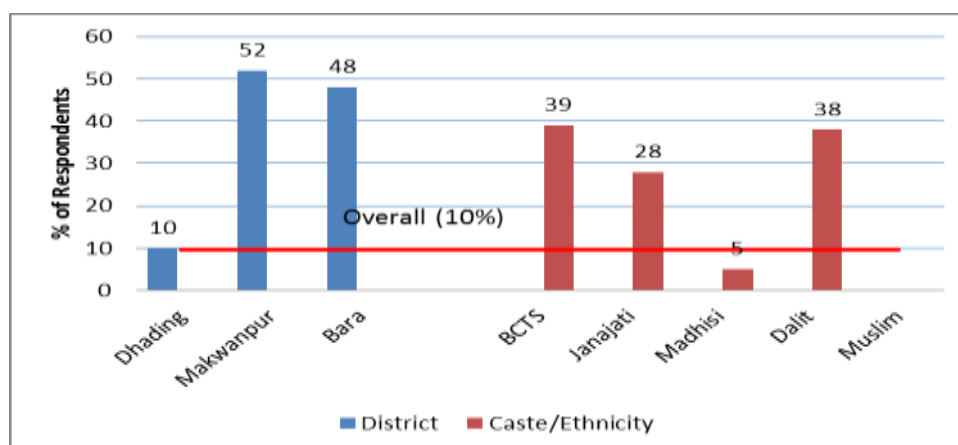


Figure 23: Respondents Knowing About Children Trafficked from Their Community

Informants were asked whether migrated/disappeared children could be susceptible to trafficking. A total of 61.9 per cent of them agreed that the migrated children could be trafficked. Female-headed households represented a higher proportion (70.4%) of such response (Table 40). Participants in group discussions and key informants at both VDC and district levels also opined that except those who had lived with their parents, other unaccompanied migrant children were at a higher risk of being trafficked for different purposes such as domestic help, circuses, kidney removal for transplantation on others, and prostitution.

Family members and relatives as well as unknown persons were reported involved in child trafficking. The case below shows how a close relative (kin member) was involved in trafficking in children.

A Close Relative Can Be a Trafficker

L (now 16 years) was born in an eight-member poor Dalit family (parents, two elder brothers, himself, two younger brothers and one younger sister) living in Namuna Basti, Bharatgunj Singaul-1, Bara. L was dropped out from school while studying Grade 6. His father was a wage labourer. Both of his elder brothers were out of home and the family did not know about their whereabouts. L was persuaded by his cousin to leave home and work in Kathmandu. His cousin said that the work was good and better-earning. L then left home without letting his parents know. According to him, his family members even had approached police with his photograph to trace him but they were unable to find him.

After arriving in Kathmandu, he lived with his cousin's room that was rented in Patan Dhoka area (Lalitpur). L found job in a metal craft factory that was quite heavy and difficult. He quit that job without a prior notice. There are scars on his hands caused by wounds while handling acid which he showed during interview. He tried to return home but could not, because he did not know the direction. While roaming hither and thither, he stumbled at a hotel in Satdobato, Lalitpur and started working there. Coincidentally, one of the elder members of his community saw him working in that hotel. He told this to L's father. L was finally rescued by his father. During the time of interview, he was working in trail road maintenance on a daily wage basis. He says that members of his family and community have become aware of how close relatives like a cousin can be a trafficker.

In contrast, the case below shows how an unknown person can be involved in child trafficking.

Trafficked by Unknown Person

Ms. G, a Dalit girl living in a nuclear family in Jyamire, Manahari-7, Makwanpur, was studying in Grade III when she was 14 years old. An adult male frequently visited and improved relation with G and other three girls and convinced them to go to work in circus in India. As planned by that man, they went to a three-day fare at a three-hour walking distance. She started working in circus with her friends. The man (trafficker) who had taken them there used their six months' salary. Later, the man died. G came back home with Rs. 30 thousand after two years she was trafficked. According to her father, G got married in India. She is now 34 years and lives happily with her husband and a son.

In response to the question whether any of the children in the community had been trafficked, only one out of ten (9.7%) informants mentioned that children were indeed trafficked. Of the total of 110 informants reporting trafficking in children in their community, the proportion of informants is the highest (47.3%) in the case of Makwanpur (Table 41).

About the gender of trafficked children, 911 (80.3%) informants provided the answer. Of them, 59.6 per cent stated that girl child were trafficked most, while 32.4 per cent told that both girls and boys were trafficked and only 8 per cent said that boys were trafficked most. The highest proportion of informants (75.3%) in Bara mentioned that boys were trafficked most and these comprised Madhesi (37%) and Dalit (35.6%) categories (Table 42). In all the districts, participants of group discussion and key informant interviews have also mentioned that girl child is more vulnerable in terms of child trafficking.

Informants were also asked whether they knew about the traffickers. Of the total informants, 538 (47.4%) knew of traffickers. The proportion of Brahmin/Chhetri (30.5%) and male (59.4%) informants is higher than other categories (Table 61). Informants who knew about the traffickers (538 out of 1134 in total) were asked about how they came to know about it. Of them, 73.1 per cent knew about the traffickers from their relatives, 71.4 per cent knew from unknown persons, 54.3 per cent knew from colleagues, 35.7 per cent knew from staff of the employer organisation, and 31.8 per cent knew from trafficked person and person vulnerable to trafficking (Table 62).

It was observed that awareness among the people about child trafficking is very low in Dhading. It may be due to two reasons. One is that both governmental and non-governmental organisations have not reached in these areas with anti-trafficking programmes. Another reason is that even if there are local NGO/CBOs, they lack adequate capacity and resources to implement anti-trafficking awareness programmes.

5.2 Knowledge/Awareness on Legal Provision against Child Trafficking

On the question whether child trafficking is a crime, 99.4 per cent agreed that it is (Table 45). Informants were also asked whether they knew the existing provision of penalty against the traffickers. Of the total of 1,127 informants agreeing that trafficking is a crime, 63.5 per cent knew that there is a provision of imprisonment and fine, 22.9 per cent knew only about imprisonment, 6.8 per cent knew only about fine (Table 46). They knew about the legal provisions through mass media like radio and newspapers and through street drama they had observed. Children participating in group discussions were found less aware about the legal provisions of penalty. All VDC level key informants were more aware of the existing legal provisions and procedures, and penalty against traffickers.

Informants were asked whether they knew about the agency or institutions they could report cases of child trafficking. Nearly eight out of ten (79.2%) answered that they should report to the police authority, more than one-half (51%) answered said they should report to organisations involved in anti-trafficking, about one in five (18.9%) mentioned child club, a little less than that (18.3%) identified women's groups, 15.5 per cent mentioned mothers' group and 5.9 per cent believed that they should report directly to the court (Table 53). In this regard, some key informants stated that people do not often report the cases of trafficking to law enforcement agencies considering that the legal process is intimidating and irksome. The case below shows how a person was involved in child trafficking unknowingly and how he was punished hard without proper investigation.

Punishment to a person accused as trafficker!

P. Tamang, a resident of Jharlang-3, Dhading, stayed 18 days in police custody in a dirty, unventilated and tickly place. He was suspected of trafficking 20 children from Jharlang in May 2015. He told the whole story this way: "After the earthquake of April 2015, a lady from an organisation located in Nakhkhu, Kathmandu, asked me to bring 20-30 children. The lady works for a church and I am also a Pastor of a local church in Jharlang. I discussed this with the members of our church (*mandali*) and we started to collect the list of children to send. My own two sons have been studying in a Christian child home and I visit them frequently. I thought I could help my kin members sending their children for better schooling and for better future of their children. Of the 20 children, 14 were children of my own brothers and 6 were the children of my own sisters. Parents of all these children were happy to send their children for better schooling as they were familiar with my own children and their progress in study. Another friend also collected children from Reegaun VDC and we took the children and reached Dhading Besi, the district headquarters, to collect necessary documents from the District Administration Office (CDO). We were not issued any document. A bus sent from Kathmandu arrived here and we took the children to Kathmandu. We then approached District Child Welfare Office but they said that we had to wait for a few days. Otherwise, we had to take the children back to Dhading. After three days, we received a phone call from the CDO of Dhading and they asked us to bring the children back to Dhading. All the children were put in the District Child Welfare Centre for four days and sent back home with a compensation of Rs. 1500 per person. The Principal of Nirmal School of Nakhkhu, myself and my friend were put under police custody. It was really difficult to stay there during hot weather since it was dirty and uncomfortable. I felt so embarrassed about the whole episode. I had no intention of harming anybody. I have now learnt the hard lesson that I should never be involved in transporting children".

5.3 Knowledge/Awareness on Causes of Child Trafficking

Household respondents were asked about what they considered as the causes of child trafficking. These included: poverty (86.2%), illiteracy or lack of awareness (77%), bad companion (choice of wrong friends)(41.2%), fake promises given by a broker or middleperson (40%), domestic violence (22.5%), death of a cash-earning family member (father in most cases) (18.4%) family disruption caused by divorce, remarriage and migration (18.2%), natural calamity such as earthquake, landslide, drought and flood (9.4%), and displacement caused by development activities (2.4%) (Table 44). Similarly, FGD and KII participants mentioned lack of awareness among the people about human trafficking, gender discrimination, lack of proper care and attention given by parents, and lack of good environment in schools as additional reasons triggering child trafficking. Percentages of informants reporting different causes of child trafficking are presented in the following figure.

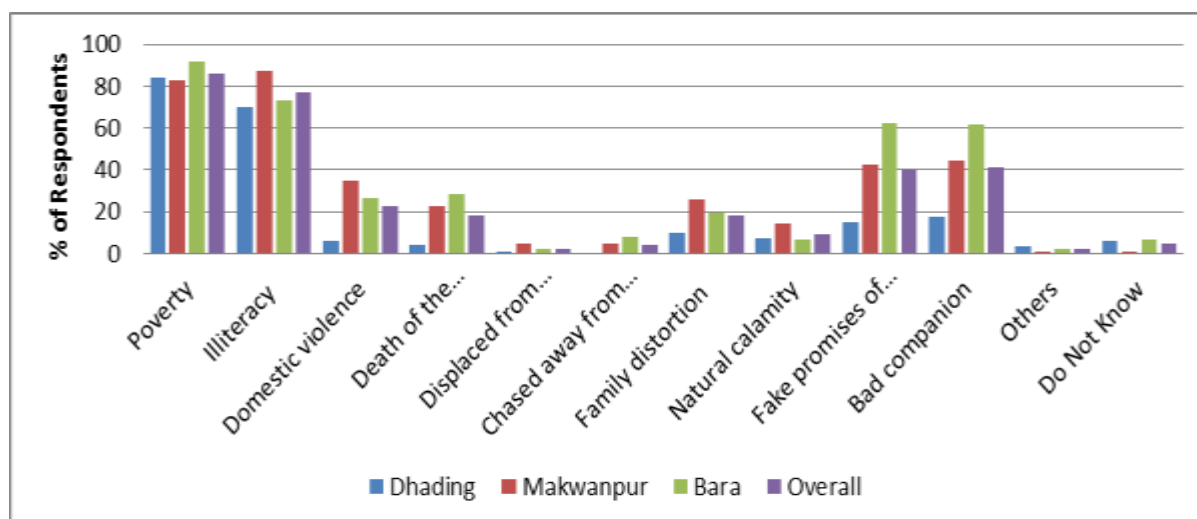


Figure 24: Reported Causes of Child Trafficking

Most of the reasons mentioned by household respondents are similar to the findings of a survey carried out by Esther Benjamins Memorial Foundation in Makwanpur (EBMF, 2014). However, some observations and recommendations differ due to difference in overall methodology including coverage of the study area, sampling and the context that emerged during the post-earthquake period.

The number of trafficked/likely trafficked children is higher among the low and medium cash income categories compared to high cash income category. This is why poverty is the prime driver of child trafficking/migration.

5.4 Knowledge/Awareness on Consequences/Effects of Child Trafficking

Seven out of ten (70.3%) of the informants answered that there is heightened anxiety in the family. Nearly one-half (48.7%) answered that family reputation/image has been damaged while one-third (33.4%) mentioned that their family has been rejected by the society, especially during social gatherings. The proportion of households receiving financial support through child trafficking was only 9.2 per cent. Out of the total of 104 informants answering this question, the highest proportion of such beneficiaries was among Janjati and Dalit categories (Table 50).

Informants were asked whether they knew about societal level effects of child trafficking. More than three-fourths (76%) of them believed that once children in a community were trafficked, it invited a number of ill effects on the society by fostering undesirable tendencies. However, about one-third (34%) maintained that incidences of trafficking increased the awareness in the society and made people more conscious and sensitive. Nearly a quarter (23.1%) mentioned that trafficking had increased and another 11.6 per cent expressed that skills learned and shared by the returnees benefited other members of society (Table 51).

Key informants further elaborated on the consequences of child trafficking. They mentioned that the returnees were found weaker in terms of self-esteem. Social distance between the returnees and the family/community members had also increased. Returnees had to experience social stigma and many of them could not be reintegrated in family/community, especially in the case of girls.

5.5 Knowledge/Awareness on the Return of Trafficked Children

Both negative and positive consequences were reported at the individual, household and community/societal levels. Returnee children came with different chronic diseases, and physical and mental disorders/disabilities and drug addiction. They could not mix up with their peer groups, family members and community people. It was also reported that few of them had themselves become traffickers.

When asked whether or not any of the trafficked children returned to the community, only 122 (10.8%) of the household survey respondents provided information (Table 47).

Regarding their knowledge about the good (desirable) and bad (undesirable) things brought about by the returnees, a total of 122 informants responded. Of them, 44.3 per cent mentioned that the returnees had become more laborious persons, 36.9 per cent said they came with different physical and mental diseases, 35.3 per cent said they had become addicts, 34.4 per cent said they came with new knowledge and skills, 27.9 per cent said they came with physical disabilities, 22.1 per cent said they came with cash and other useful materials (utensils and home appliances), and 7.6 per cent said they came with tricks and tactics for trafficking. Data clearly show that returnees brought both negative and positive things (Table 48). Information obtained from the household survey was verified through information obtained through FGD and KII. Most of the FGD participants and key informants mentioned negative consequences more often than positive ones in terms of changes they observed in personality and character of the returnees. The following figure shows the percentage distribution of informants reporting good and bad things returnee children brought with them.

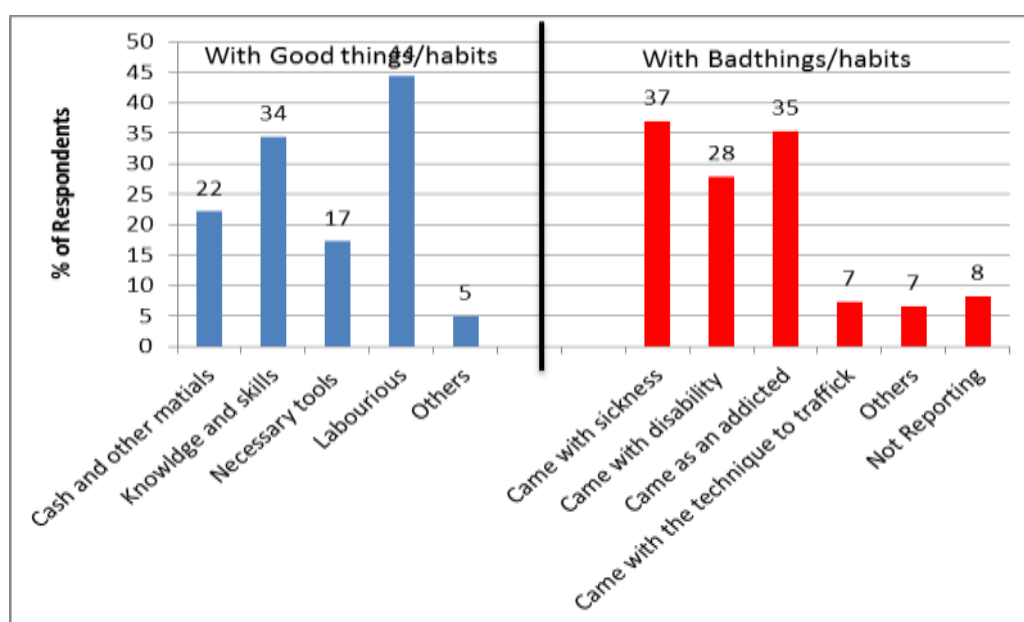


Figure 25: Good and Bad Things Brought by Returnee (Rescued) Children

Informants were also asked about their knowledge regarding the status of the returnees in their family and community. Of the total of 122 informants, 38.5 per cent said that the returnees were living with their family, 23 per cent were neglected by the community, 22.1 per cent did not mix up with family/community members, 18.9 per cent responded that the returnees' family members did not mix up with them, 16.4 per cent found them suffering from diseases and 13.9 per cent told that the returnees had resumed their schooling (Table 49). Information obtained from the household survey does not correspond with the

information provided by key informants. According to the latter, returnees were not accepted in the family/community. The case below shows that some returnees were well-accepted by the family and they were well reintegrated in the community.

Circus Didi is well accepted in family and community!

Ms. Tamang of Manahari was sent by her family to work in a circus due to extreme poverty in the family. According to her, she was sent there under a fixed term contract of seven years with a trafficker who took her to the circus in India. She had to rise early in the morning by 4:00 am and had to run a lot. She had to practise hard for rope-walking, cycling and other circus items. If she did anything wrong, she was physically tortured. She and other children working in the circus could meet their relatives only for a little moment. They were not allowed to talk much with male partners and vice versa. They had to visit different places to organise circus shows. When asked about the places they were taken to, the circus master did not disclose the destined place doubting that they could skip out. Once a friend of the circus master told that Nepal is a good place to stage a circus show and earn good money. She and others were then taken to Pokhara to organise a show for a few days. When something went wrong over there, Ms. Tamang and her fellow workers were beaten severely by the master several times. One of the local persons had seen the master frequently beating the children. He reported the case to the police. Next day, two girls with normal dress came into the circus room, caught them and told that they would send them back home. Ms. Tamang later knew that an NGO named CWIN had rescued them from the circus. She went to her house. After staying at home for a few days, she again went to work in circus. After 7 years, she again came back home. Now, she is a married woman with two daughters, living happily with her husband. She is now popularly called Circus Didi (elder sister).

The following figure shows the percentage distribution of the informants reporting the effects/consequences of child trafficking in the affected family.

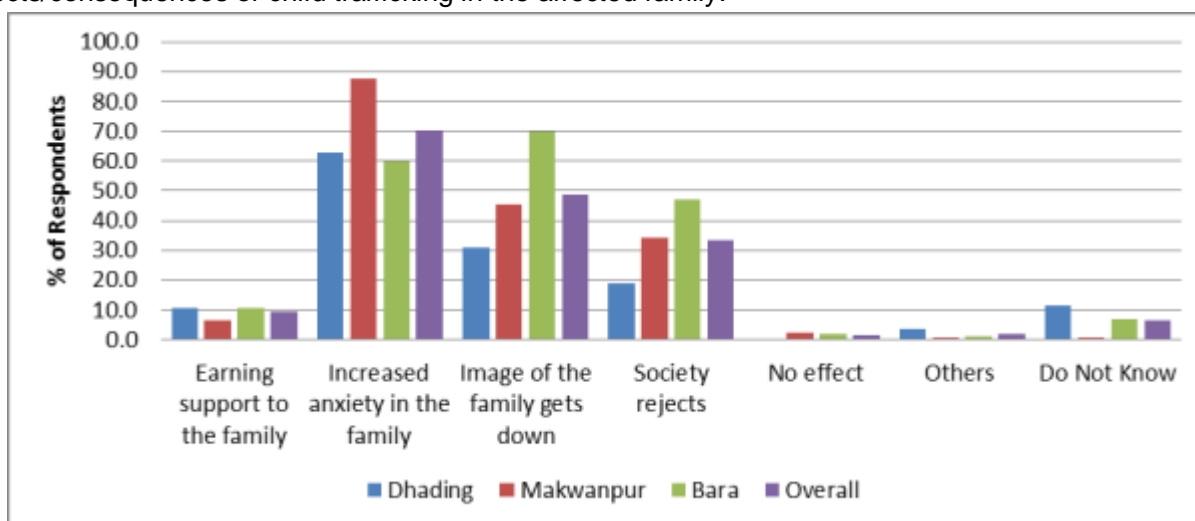


Figure 26: Effects/Consequences of Child Trafficking in Family

Information obtained from household survey was verified through information obtained through FGD and KII. Most of the FGD participants and key informants mentioned negative consequences more than positive ones in terms of changes they observed in personality and character of the returnees. Key informants elaborated the consequences of child trafficking. They mentioned that the returnees appeared weaker in terms of self-esteem and social distance between the returnees and the family/community members had increased. Returnees had to experience social stigma and many of them could not be reintegrated in the family/community, especially in the case of girls.

5.6 Child Trafficking before and after the Earthquake

According to Article 3(a) of UN Trafficking Protocol 2000, trafficking in persons shall mean the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability, or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or removal of organs.

In line with the UN Trafficking Protocol, the Government of Nepal (GoN) has adopted Human Trafficking and Transportation (Control) Act 2007 (hereafter HTTC Act 2007). Following the Trafficking Protocol and HTTC Act 2007 require that the crime of trafficking be defined through a combination of the three constituent elements and not the individual components, though in some cases these individual elements will constitute criminal offences independently and may be charged in different offences such as abduction

Similarly, the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and the International Organization for Migration (IOM) has defined migration of children in the following way:

Unaccompanied migrant children (also called unaccompanied minors) are children, as defined in article 1 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child of 20 November 1989 (Committee on the Rights of the Child), who have been separated from both parents and other relatives and are not being cared for by an adult who, by law or custom, is responsible for doing so. “Separated children’ are children, as defined in article 1 of the CRC, who have been separated from both parents, or from their previous legal or customary primary caregiver, but not necessarily from other relatives. These may, therefore, include children accompanied by other adult family members.”

Common differentiation is between “dependent children” and those under 18 years resident with adult parents, step-parents, adopted parents or adult siblings and “independent children” those without close family members or co residents. Independent child migration is the migration of children who are not refugees and are not coerced or tricked into moving by third persons, it is often carried out with the aim of seeking employment or education.

So far as the assumption on increase in the cases of trafficking since the earthquake is concerned, it is very difficult to get accurate data on trafficking before and after the earthquake. Many cases of trafficking in Nepal remain unreported due to a number of reasons and there is no comprehensive human trafficking information system (HTIS) in place to record the cases.

Household survey respondents were asked whether any of the children in their family was trafficked before and after the earthquake. Only 10 (0.9%) informants told that a child in their family was trafficked before the earthquake. Child trafficking after the earthquake was reported to have slightly increased in Makwanpur and Dhading while the increase was more in Bara due to its proximity to the Indian border and due to increased vulnerability of earthquake-affected hill migrants temporarily settled in clusters along the highway and other transit routes. Of the total of 10 informants reporting trafficking in children in their family before the earthquake, 60 per cent belonged to middle cash income category. Of the total of 40 informants reporting trafficking in children in their family after the earthquake, 40 per cent belonged to Brahman/Chhetri castes and 30 per cent to Dalit group (Table 52).

As discussed in the earlier sections, every child who moves away from home is potentially vulnerable to trafficking, and whilst it is entirely probable that those who have gone without parental consent may be more vulnerable than those who have parental consent, as their own case study demonstrates, relatives can also be traffickers so it is a question of degree. In this regard, children who migrated without family consent and unaccompanied were considered highly vulnerable in terms of the possibility of being trafficked. Of the total 98 migrant children, 11 left home alone, 15 with relatives other than family members and one with friend. The number of male child leaving home alone/unaccompanied is quite higher than the female child (Table 141-43). According to the FGD participants and the key informants,

those who migrated accompanied even with friends and relatives other than family members were also vulnerable.

The survey data revealed that 13 children were migrated from a total of 1,134 households. According to the definition of trafficking mentioned above, these children cannot be considered as trafficked in terms of the elements of the offences involved. However, these children can be considered as "likely trafficked". This is because, according to the participants of focus group discussions and the key informants, unknown persons like bus and truck drivers took them away to Kathmandu and other urban centres. Moreover, these children left their home without family consent and they were not accompanied with family members or other relatives. These "separated" or "independent" children were engaged in physically unsafe and exploitative work and they were under control of their employers. This implies that there are 1.1 children "likely trafficked" per 100 households. Using this norm, the total number of such children has been calculated for the district level. The number of such children in Dhading, Makwanpur and Bara are 812, 947 and 1194, respectively, with a total of 2953 children.

The percentage of children aged below 18 years trafficked before and after seven months of the earthquake is 15.4 and 84.6, respectively. The number of working migrant children moving without family consent has increased 5.5 times after the earthquake. It was 2 children before the earthquake and 11 after the earthquake. As migration of children without family consent is unsafe and most of these children were reported working in most vulnerable conditions, they are at high risk of trafficking to and from the unsafe and vulnerable workplaces. As a child migrating and working outside without family consent, s/he obviously faces various types of exploitations (low wage, extended hours of work, poor residential facilities, etc.), sexual harassment and sale of human organs and many more.

In each district, three VDCs were selected for the survey based on child vulnerability, i.e., one VDC from each of the vulnerability categories, namely, high, medium and low. It is noteworthy that 1.1 children are currently in "likely trafficked" situation and these are mostly from high and medium vulnerable VDCs. Thus the number of such children per 100 households will be much higher in the high vulnerable VDCs.

The highest proportion of household survey respondents reporting trafficking in children in their family after the earthquake belonged to the middle and low cash income group. Key informants and FGD participants both reported that child trafficking occurred more in low cash income or poorer households. Children from low cash income and small landholding families and from Dalit and Janjati groups are at high risk of trafficking. Those families can be supported through integration of livelihood enhancement and educational assistance. The figure below shows the percentages of informants reporting occurrence of child trafficking before and after the earthquake.

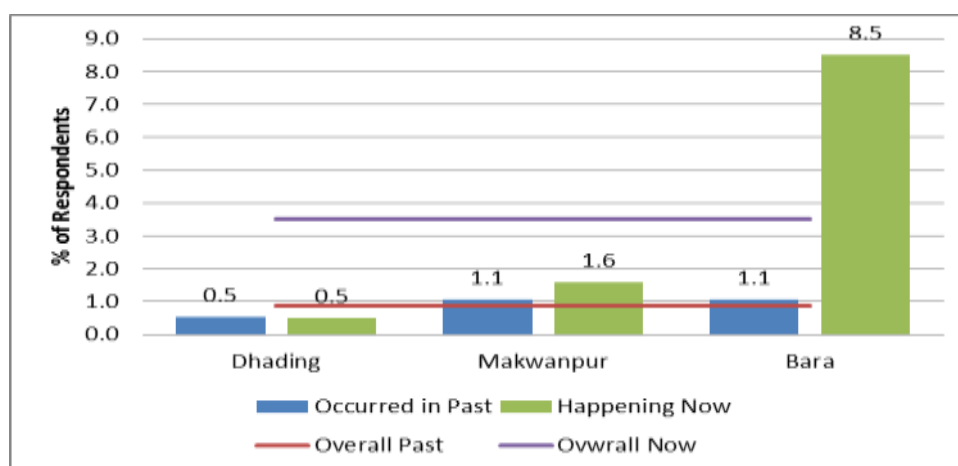


Figure 27: Occurrence of Child Trafficking in the Family

So far as cross-border trafficking after the earthquake is concerned, there are no authentic data regarding the size and nature of such human trafficking in Nepal. However, vulnerability of child trafficking has increased after the earthquake. Two month data based on a newspaper survey (April 25-June 24, 2015) shows that 625 children (out of 1004 total cases) were trafficked to India (AATWIN Resource Centre, 2015).

During discussion, FGD participants in Jogimara-9, Dhading, reported that three children from the Chepang families left school and went to Kathmandu. After the earthquake, other three children from those families gave up their education and went outside. According to them, one of the children had been working as a micro-bus helper in Kathmandu. According to these FGD participants and key informants, almost these children left home unaccompanied and without family consent and the unknown persons like truck and bus drivers were involved in trafficking these children. They also stated that the children were forced to work in an unsafe and hazardous environment.

Traffickers have become more active during the post-earthquake period especially targeting girl children under the pretext of rescue and relief including their schooling. They visited temporary rescue camps, approached the girls, lured them saying that they could help them by providing employment in the childcare centres and the girls were taken to Indian cities. This shows that cross-border trafficking also increased during the post-earthquake period.

5.7 District and Village Level Support Mechanisms to the Survivors

In this section, information regarding institutional/structural arrangements, rescue, rehabilitation and other supports and their effectiveness have been discussed.

5.7.1 Institutional Arrangements

In order to combat human trafficking and transportation in Nepal, national, district and grassroots level structures have been put in place. These are National Committee for Controlling Human Trafficking (NCCHT), District Committee for Controlling Human Trafficking (DCCHT) and Village/Local Committee for Controlling Human Trafficking (VCCHT). Details of their structure and function as per the Human Trafficking and Transportation (Control) Regulation, 2065 (2008) is given in Annex 7.

Since the local level committees (VCCHTs) are a recent phenomenon, these are yet to be formed in many districts and VDCs. Only 136 VCCHTs were formed during fiscal 2070/71 (2013/14 AD) [(MoWCSW, 2071 BS (2014 AD))]. In many places, VCCHTs have been found less effective due to inadequacy of technical and financial support. Those which have been getting such support from (I)NGOs are active and efficient. INGOs like The Asia Foundation have been providing support to form and operationalise VCCHTs. These (I)NGOs have been working in close coordination with the government. Elected local bodies are essential in order to make the local committees more functional, but local level elections have not been held for the past 18 years. As a result, VCCHTs do not receive budget and many of these are not active. Furthermore, it has hindered the formation of new ones without the support of non-state actors or civil society organisations.

Formation of the structures itself is one of the positive moves of the government in order to combat human trafficking at different levels. These structures have created an enabling environment to address the grassroots level issues. Furthermore, these structures have given a forum for anti-trafficking activists other non-state actors to participate and interact with the concerned government agencies. Provision of these committees also gives the message that the government and civil society organisations are working jointly in order to combat human trafficking. It also has internalised the essence of community participation and mobilisation.

Despite all these, according to central and district level key informants, the committees are not functioning expected. Political instability has been one of the hindrances in this area also. Conceptual clarity on the issue among the members is another gap to make them functional. Limited budgetary

provisions made available to the district level committees have constrained their ability to launch essential programmes. So far as the trend in expenditure is concerned, almost half of the budget is used for celebrating the National Anti-Human Trafficking Day that falls on Bhadra 20 (September 5) each year. The committees have been relying largely on NGOs to undertake other programmes.

In terms of way forward, there is urgent need to capacitate these committees and raise awareness of the members on the issues pertinent to child trafficking. Both national and international organisations like EBMF and EBT Nepal have greater opportunity to support the mission of the Government of Nepal to combat child trafficking by providing technical and financial assistance.

A number of NGOs are operating on anti-trafficking in the districts. During key informant interviews, both national and district level stakeholders mentioned that there were some duplications in programmes and activities conducted by these NGOs. This scenario points to the need for capacitating District Women and Children Offices (DWCO) so as to ensure synergetic efforts to combat child trafficking. Similarly, coordination between DDC and DWCO also needs to be strengthened. Majority of the district level key informants stated that rescue and rehabilitation could be made more effective through technical and financial backstopping to Nepal Police and the concerned NGOs.

5.7.2 Rescue, Rehabilitation and Other Support to the Survivors

Nepal Police in cooperation with NGOs working for anti-trafficking activities has been rescuing trafficked children. The Government of Nepal has established eight rehabilitation centres in different districts. These centres are being managed in partnership with the concerned NGOs by contracting out management responsibilities to them. Maiti Nepal, Shakti Samuha, Adarsha Nari Vikas Kendra, ABC Nepal, Sathi and Sirjanshil Samaj are involved in managing these centres. NGOs are also running Child Help Lines in 12 districts. Alliance for Action against Trafficking in Women and Children Nepal (AATWIN) is providing assistance to district level programmes in support of the national implementation plan to combat human trafficking. Child Workers Concern Centre Nepal (CWIN) is also engaged in rescue- and relief-related activities, management of relief centres, legal assistance, training, and interaction workshops. Similarly, Esther Benjamins Memorial Foundation (EBMF) is engaged in rescue and rehabilitation of the survivor children in Hetauda, Makwanpur.

Among the total household survey respondents, only 99 (8.7%) reported that trafficked children had been rescued. Brahmin/Chhetri castes comprised a higher proportion (48%) of the informants reporting rescue of trafficked children while 36 per cent represented medium land holding category. It is interesting to note that none of the Madhesi and Muslim informants mentioned about rescue of trafficked children (Table 54).

Household survey respondents were asked about the institutions involved in rescuing the trafficked children. Of the total of 99 informants, 70.7 per cent singled out the police, 63.6 per cent mentioned organisations involved in anti-trafficking, 12.1 per cent reported women groups, 3 per cent said mothers' groups and for 2 per cent it were child clubs. It is interesting to note that informants of Dhading answered only about the police and informants of Makwanpur did not mention women's group, mothers' group and child club (Table 55). The following figure shows the percentage distribution of informants reporting different institutions/agencies involved in rescuing trafficked children.

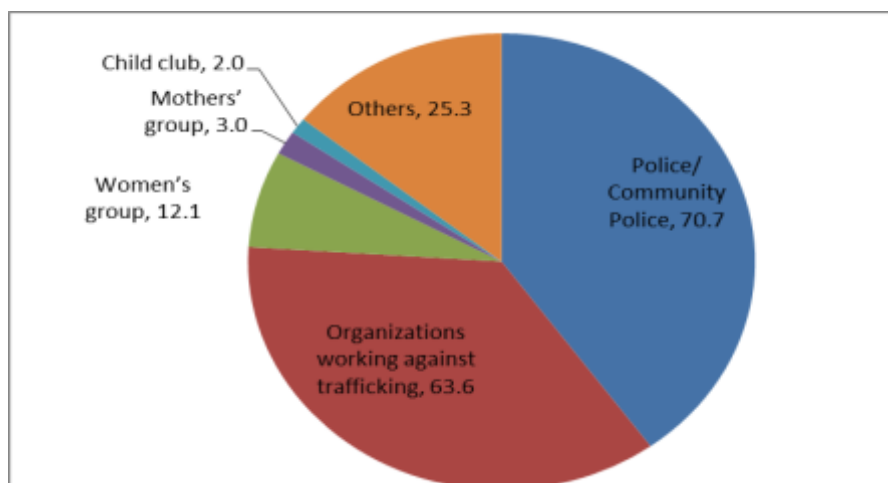


Figure 28: Institutions/Agencies Involved in Rescuing Trafficked Children

Household survey respondents were asked whether or not they knew about the nature and type of rescue and rehabilitation activities carried out by the concerned institutions. A total of 99 informants expressed their views. The responses were the following starting from the highest proportion: institutions were involved in raising awareness (82.8%), institutions made use of information, education and communication (IEC) materials (54.6%), institutions were involved in formation and institutionalisation of monitoring mechanism (47.5%), institutions provided skill-enhancing training (39.4%), institutions were involved in establishing and managing rehabilitation centre/home (22.2%), institutions provided legal support (20.2%), institutions supported income generation activities (18.2%), institutions provided educational support (17.2%), institutions were involved in checking and monitoring exit points in the Nepal-India border (15.2%) and institutions provided counselling services (6.1%) (Table 56).

According to MoWCSW (2071 BS (2014 AD), p. 50), the Child Searching Centre (*Balbalika Khojtalash Kendra*) rescued a total of 463 children (384 boys and 179 girls) in the fiscal year 2070/71 BS (2013/14 AD). Of the total boys and girls who disappeared and/or were trafficked in the surveyed communities, the proportion of rescued boys is higher compared to girls. The proportion of girls is lower because many of the trafficked girls are taken to the brothels in Indian cities and it is hence difficult to rescue them.

There are six Transit Homes in Dhading where 134 children receive rescue and relief services. District Women and Children Office (DWCO) monitors these homes that are managed by local NGOs. Besides, four additional check-posts in Phurke Khola, Baireni, Jogimara and Gajuri have been established and two temporary Awareness Forums (*Chetana Chautari*) were established and mobilised immediately after the earthquake. In Makwanpur, DWCO established Child Friendly Space in 23 VDCs in partnership with UNICEF and 17 Protection Clusters for the purpose of post-earthquake rescue and relief. According to the District Women Development Officer in Bara, they were similarly able to rescue 65 children from Bihar of India in cooperation with an NGO called Nirdesh which has networks in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh in India. According to her, the Child Transit Home is not functioning well in Bara district.

However, information obtained through household survey clearly depicts the fact that majority of people at the grassroots level are not aware of the presence of organisations like DWCO, Nepal Police and several NGOs which have been rescuing and rehabilitating the trafficked children. It suggests that awareness campaigns are not able to target the most vulnerable communities/households.

5.7.3 Effectiveness of Rescue, Rehabilitation and Other Supports

As discussed in Section 5.6.1, there are a number of state and non-state actors engaged in rescue and relief of the survivors of child trafficking. Majority of the district-level key informants stated that rescue and rehabilitation could be made more effective through technical and financial backstopping to the Nepal Police and concerned NGOs.

On the question whether or not rescue and rehabilitation support efforts were effective, nearly six out of ten (58.6%) of household survey respondents reported that these were effective, nearly three in ten (29.3%) said that these were most effective, and only 7.1 per cent and 5.1 per cent reported that these were less effective and non-effective, respectively. It is important to note that all the informants who reported non-effective are from Makwanpur district (Table 57).

Informants who rated the external support as less effective or non-effective were asked to explain. Of the total of 12 informants, 66.7 per cent mentioned that the implementing agencies did not have adequate capacity to manage resources, 41.7 per cent said that available resources were not sufficient, 41.7 per cent mentioned complexity in legal procedures, 25 per cent said it was due to political interference, lack of clear legal provisions and inadequacy of proper coordination among the concerned agencies, and 8.3 per cent each answered lack of provision for compensation and lack of mechanism for protection of witnesses (Table 58).

5.8 Effectiveness of Information, Education and Communication

Both the government and non-governmental organisations have been implementing various programmes and activities such as district level interactions and stakeholder meetings, radio broadcasting, hoarding board displays, publication and distribution of brochures, and awareness-raising classes in schools in order to raise awareness among the general public, children and concerned organisations about child trafficking.

Informants were asked whether the existing mechanisms of information, education and communication (IEC) services against child trafficking were effective. Of the total informants, 568 (50.1%) found the existing IEC services effective. Of the total of 568 respondents, the proportion was little bit higher (38%) in Makwanpur than in the other two districts (Table 59). Informants were asked also about the reasons behind ineffectiveness of existing IEC services. Of the total 566 respondents reporting the IEC services as ineffective, 55.5 per cent answered that people had low access to these services and resources. Moreover, 49.7 per cent answered that IEC services did not reach the vulnerable communities. IEC materials are not prepared in simple and locally common language and this was another reason reported by 36.4 per cent informants. Lack of audio-visual equipment was the given by 27.9 per cent of the informants, 27.2 per cent answered lack of reference materials, and 24.6 per cent cited low priority given by the concerned agencies (Table 60).

Based on information obtained from the household survey, key informants and participants in group discussions, existing strategies related to communication are less satisfactory. It was reported that people have low access to these IEC services and resources. IEC services have not reached the needy and most vulnerable communities. There is a problem in the language. Audio-visual equipments are not available and there is no adequate response from the concerned agencies.

5.9 Tricks and Tactics of the Traffickers

Compared to previous studies (EBMF, 2014; Stallard, 2014, CI/CN, 2010, Subedi, 2002), this study has come up with a more comprehensive information related to the tricks and tactics used by the traffickers. Tricks and tactics used by traffickers have been explored at different phases, namely, while entering the community and establishing relationship with the family, while taking or gaining attention of children and while taking away children from their home. Most of the tricks and tactics discussed in those studies are similar to the tricks and tactics identified in this study.

Household survey respondents were asked about their knowledge regarding the tricks and tactics used by the traffickers to enter the community and families. Of the total of 538 respondents who knew about the traffickers, 75.7 per cent answered that the traffickers used different types of relations with community members. The response of 72.1 per cent was that the traffickers established fake relations saying that he/she is a relative of another member of the community, 56 per cent responded that the

traffickers gave the example of progress after leaving the village/community, 52.6 per cent answered that traffickers showed fake identity posing as someone working a reputed organisation, 46.3 per cent answered that the traffickers posed as wealthy, 41 per cent answered that the traffickers presented themselves as social workers, and 39 per cent answered that the traffickers established friendship with influential persons in the community. The proportion of informants answering that traffickers use relations to enter the community was highest (50.3%) in Bara district. Similarly, percentage of informants answering that traffickers use fake relations is highest among Brahmin/Chhetri (32.7%) and Dalit (31.4%) categories (Table 63). Percentage distribution of informants reporting the tricks and tactics used by the traffickers to gain access in the community and family is given in the following figure.

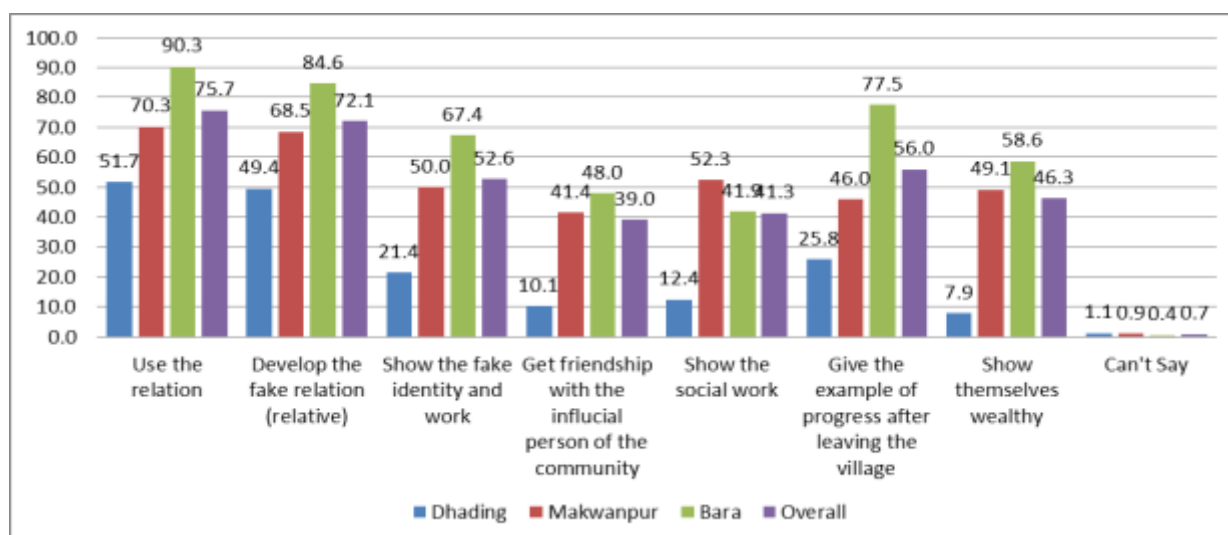


Figure 29: Methods Used by Traffickers to Get into the Community and Family

A total of 538 respondents answered the question on how the traffickers sought attention of the children. About three out of four (76%) responded that the traffickers mixed up with the children, a little lower proportion (74.2%) said that the traffickers spoke high about new places and lifestyles, seven out of ten (69.9%) mentioned that the traffickers gave things that were most liked by the children, 62.1 per cent of them expressed that the traffickers met the children frequently with a gesture of friendliness, and 39.8 per cent answered that the traffickers asked the children to keep their discussion and meeting confidential from family members and other people (Table 64). Percentage distribution of informants reporting the tricks and tactics used by the traffickers to attract and mix up with the children among the districts is presented in the following figure.

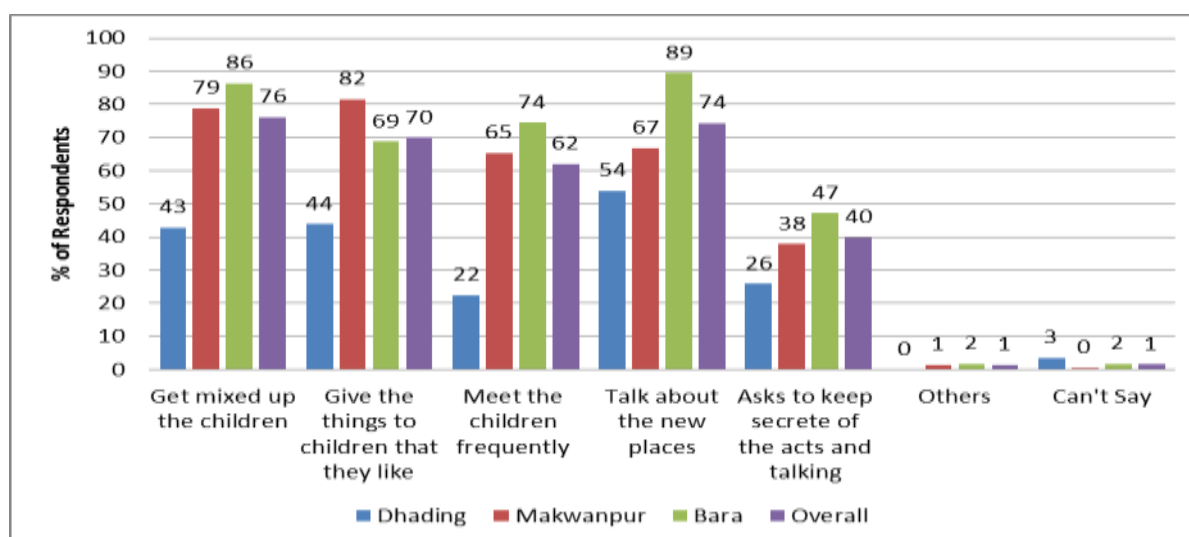


Figure 30: Tricks and Tactics Used by Traffickers to Attract and Mix Up with Children

The following figure shows the percentage distribution of informants reporting the tricks and tactics used by the traffickers to attract and mix up with the children across the caste/ethnic groups.

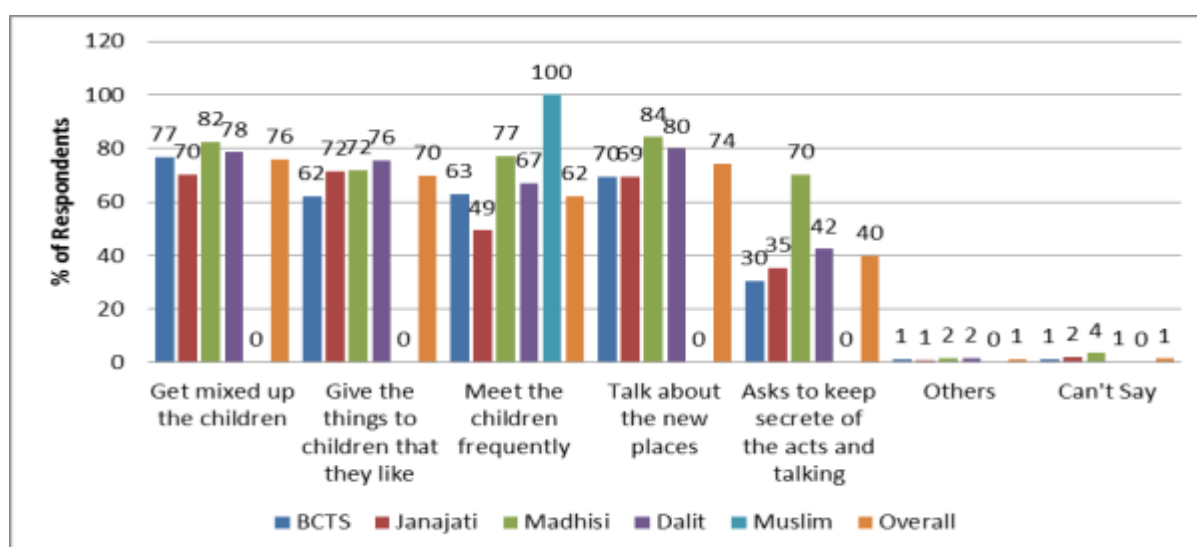


Figure 31: Tricks and Tactics Used by Traffickers to Attract and Mix Up with Children

Informants were further asked about the tricks and tactics used by traffickers to take children away from their family/community. A total of 538 informants responded to this question. Among them, 72.5 per cent stated making false promises with the parents, 70.3 per cent stated making false promises with the children, 65.1 per cent stated not informing the parents, 58.2 per cent stated winning confidence of parents, 36.8 per cent stated abduction, 36.4 per cent stated use of coercion and force, 14.1 per cent stated threatening the parents, and 13.6 stated threatening the children (Table 65).

5.9.1 Changes in Tricks and Tactics Used by the Traffickers

The nature of tricks and tactics used by the traffickers indicates that they take advantage of the weaknesses they observe at different levels: community level, household/family level and individual/child level. The weaknesses included poverty, natural calamities, school dropout and many others. In other words, unless multi-pronged anti-trafficking interventions are designed and implemented, children cannot be safe at home, at school, community and workplaces.

Various organisations and media have reported that child trafficking has increased during the post-earthquake period (Dhungana, 2015; Goldberg, 2015; UNICEF, 2015). According to these news articles, the traffickers became more active during the post-earthquake period in trafficking girl children in the name of rescue and relief. According to Dhungana (2015), traffickers approached temporary rescue camps in Sindhupalchok and Nuwakot districts, established contact with the girls, and influenced them by saying that they could help the girls by providing them employment in childcare centres. But the girls were taken to brothels in the cities of Uttar Pradesh, India (Nagarik Daily, 10th June 2015). This shows that cross-border trafficking increased during the post-earthquake period. Another report that discussed attempted trafficking of children in Dolakha districts also shows that the traffickers were more actively engaged after the earthquake in the name of rescue and relief including education of the children (Dhungana, 2015).

The prime concern of this study was to know if the traffickers changed their strategies for trafficking of the children. A total of 200 (17.6%) informants noticed change in the tricks and tactics of the traffickers after the earthquake. The proportion of male informants in this case is higher (64%) than the female ones. The proportion of responding informants is higher (60%) in Makwanpur compared to other districts (Table 66).

Informants were asked whether they noticed any changes in the tricks and tactics after the earthquake. All the tricks and tactics they mentioned are similar to those discussed earlier (Section 5.8 of this report). But in the post-earthquake period, traffickers were using rescue and relief as the main means to take children outside their home/community.

The case below shows how a child was transported or "nearly trafficked" along with others in the name of rescue after the earthquake.

We heard that we were rescued!

A resident of Jharlang-3, Dhading, S. Tamang is nine years old. Now he is in Grade 2 and lives with his parents. He told his story about how he, along with other children, was taken to Kathmandu and how he returned home. "I played whole days with my friends because schools were closed after the earthquake. One day, my father asked me whether I would like to go to Kathmandu for better schooling. He told that I could eat tasty foods and wear nice dress clothes. I first did not agree. Next day, he again told me that my friends R, P and A were also going to Kathmandu. Then I agreed. My father told me that one of our villagers was taking us to Kathmandu. The next day, my friends called me and we went. We were taken to Dhading Besi, where I first saw shining nights with electricity. We were then taken to Kathmandu on a bus. We reached Kathmandu but I did not know which place we stayed in. I was so much impressed by the sparkling city, I enjoyed. We got biscuits and meals on the way to Kathmandu. After a few days, we were taken back to Dhading. We did not understand what police said with the person who took us to Kathmandu. We were sent back home with our parent. We heard that we were rescued (*khoi, hamilai uddhar gareko bhanthe*). I will not go to Kathmandu again for study. I will study here after the school opens."

The following figure shows the percentage distribution of the informants reporting the change in tricks and tactics used by the traffickers after the earthquake.

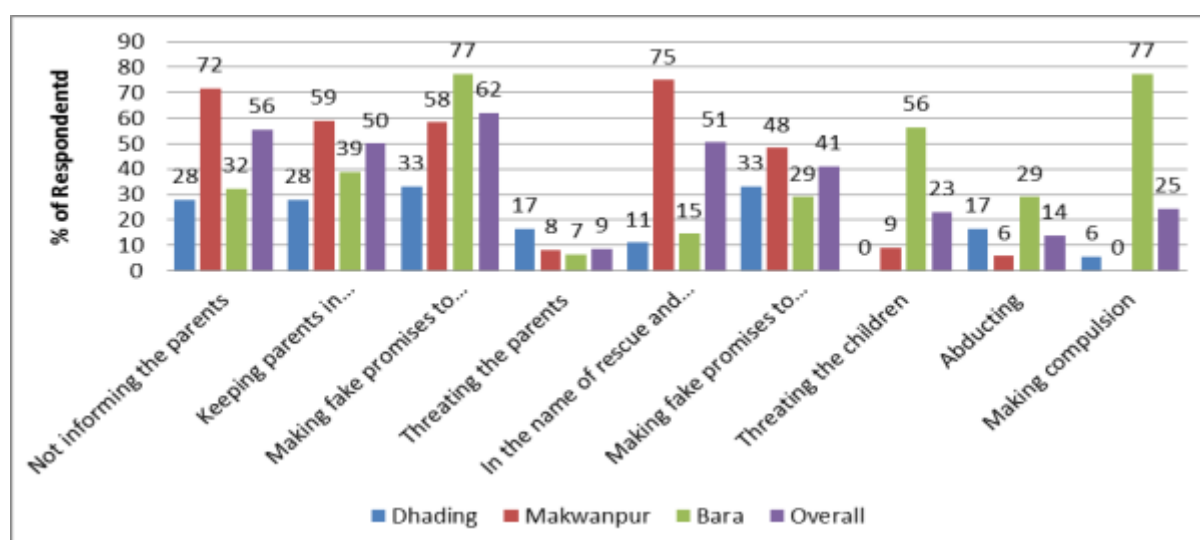


Figure 32: Changed Tricks/Tactics Used for Trafficking Children after Earthquake

A total of 200 respondents reported changes in the tricks and tactics used by the traffickers after the earthquake. Out of them, 101 (50.5%) mentioned that traffickers are now mainly using the pretext rescue and relief. The proportion of respondents reporting such change is highest (89%) in Makwanpur (Table 67).

5.10 Coping Strategies to Deal with Child Trafficking

Informants of the household survey were asked about their knowledge regarding the ways families were following to prevent their children from being trafficked. Of the total informants, 72.2 per cent reported that families were making their children aware of child trafficking, 50.3 per cent told that family members, especially parents, were explaining to their children about the consequences of child trafficking, 50.2 per cent told that parents listened well to the ideas and curiosities of the children and took their concerns positively, 34.8 per cent reported that family members informed their children about the false promises usually spelled out by the traffickers, 32.8 per cent told that parents oriented their children to keep the contact address of family members and relatives, 32.8 per cent told that parents and guardians monitored if their children were getting anything from the strangers or were being attracted, and 30.3 per cent told that parents monitored the strangers who are new to them and their community (Table 68).

Informants were also asked about their opinion regarding the ways communities could follow to prevent their children being trafficked. Of the total respondents, 74.1 per cent suggested that the community should severely punish the person involved in trafficking, 53.8 per cent suggested that the community should ensure effective channels and networks of information and education, 49.6 per cent suggested that community members should comply with the existing laws and its proper implementation, and 38.3 per cent suggested that communities should put pressure on the concerned authorities to follow a fast-track approach to address the issue of child trafficking (Table 69).

CHAPTER VI: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Conclusions

Review of relevant literature reveals that child trafficking in Nepal has a long history. It was being practised since the Rana Regime and accelerated with the growth of the carpet industry, increased demand for child labour in urban areas, increased demand for children for circuses in India, and increased demand for girl children in brothels of Indian cities.

Poverty is found as the main cause of child trafficking along with other causes like food insecurity, increasing gap between the rich and the poor, limited access to free education, domestic violence and gender discrimination. Trafficking in children is often a direct result of migration. When this group of people migrates from one place to another, it may obviously become vulnerable to abuses and that trafficking in them can take place in the migratory process.

Adequate quantitative data on child trafficking is not available in Nepal due to lack of well-designed human trafficking information system (HTIS). Gathering quantitative data is also difficult due to the covert nature of research required and because trafficking is a crime-related issue and that people are often reluctant to tell the truth.

As a signatory to many international conventions, Nepal has passed the Human Trafficking Act and related action/implementation plans to address the issue. However, such plans have not been effective due to inadequacies, overlaps and inconsistencies in them and due to lack of proper implementation. MoWCSW including NCCHT, DWCO including DCCHT and VCCHT, Nepal Police, the court system, and Attorney General's Office are responsible to combat trafficking in children. GoN has increased its efforts to combat trafficking after the earthquake. For instance, it suspended inter-country adoption and made a decision according to which children were not allowed to be taken from one district to another without legal documents or guardians. UNICEF Nepal has also been supporting establishment and strengthening of 84 police stations and checkpoints. The Department of Immigration has provided training on human trafficking to its officials. Besides, NGOs like CWIN, Maiti Nepal, Shakti Samuha, and EBMF have been engaged in anti-trafficking related activities including rescue and rehabilitation.

Children are sent to urban places for better education, to serve as domestic helpers and even in circuses with parental consent. Some children leave their home without consent of their family members. Majority of the children leaving home belong to families from low economic status and from families where domestic violence and other problems do occur. After the earthquake, attempt was made to traffic some children in Dhading and the case was under investigation during the survey. Increase in migration and/or disappearance of children after the earthquake has been reported. Among many factors, trauma created by the earthquake and its aftershocks one of the reasons behind it. Many of the children have left home alone, or with their friends and relatives.

Majority of the migrated children were engaged in daily wage labouring and domestic work. The Constitution of Nepal and a number of laws contain important provisions for the protection and advancement of the interests of children and child workers. These laws set the minimum age for employment at 14 years and prohibit children less than 16 years of age from engaging in such occupations as tourism, carpet weaving, factory work, mining or other forms of hazardous work that can be harmful to their health or life. However, the laws generally cover only the formal sector, which leaves the majority of children who are employed in the informal sector without any legal protection. Efforts made by the state actors like MoWCSW and Nepal Police and the non-state actors like ILO, UNICEF, Save the Children, CWIN and other concerned NGOs have been found instrumental in addressing the issues of such forms of child labour.

Overall knowledge on child trafficking, its causes and consequences, changing tricks and tactics of the traffickers, existing legal provisions to combat child trafficking and support mechanism for the survivors has been found moderately good among the informants. However, awareness among the people of

Dhading is very low. Key informants mentioned that marginal and weaker sections of society, especially women, Dalit and Janjati, are less aware of human trafficking in general and child trafficking in particular. This situation clearly points to the need for further intervention in the form of awareness raising campaigns.

The returnees mostly had negative experiences. Along with low self-esteem and increased social distance, the returnees had to experience social stigma, and consequently, many of them could not be reintegrated in the family/community, especially in the case of girls.

The number of child trafficking cases after the earthquake seems nominal among the sample households. As reported by household respondents, increase in trafficking in children after the earthquake was higher in Makawanpur than in Dhading. It is to be noted that Bara was selected to represent Terai districts bordering India. Reporting of child trafficking in this district became higher due to vulnerability of the people who migrated from earthquake-affected adjoining hill districts to different clusters along the East-West Highway and other transit routes.

At the community level, VCCHTs have not been formed yet in many VDCs. In places where these committees have been formed, they are less effective due to resource constraints and poor coordination. Nepal police and NGOs are involved in anti-trafficking and rescue and rehabilitation as are women groups, mothers' groups and child clubs. Organisations in Makwanpur and Dhading have been reported as more active. These institutions are involved in raising awareness, forming and institutionalising monitoring bodies, providing skill-enhancing training, establishing rehabilitation centre/home, providing legal support, supporting education and income generation, checking and monitoring exit points along the border, and providing counselling. Financial and other forms of supports provided by these institutions have been moderately effective. All of these institutions have been facing the problems of insufficiency of resources, inadequate capacity to manage available resources, complexity in legal procedures, political interference, lack of clarity in legal provisions, and less effective coordination. Lack of provision for compensation to the survivors and the witness and lack of protection of the witness are the reasons behind non-effectiveness of these local institutions. Efforts to provide information, education and communication services were also reported less effective due to low access to these services, failure to prepare IEC materials in native language, inadequacy of audio-visual equipment and inadequate responsiveness of the concerned local institutions.

Traffickers have been reported using both the existing as well as newly established fake relations. Giving examples of progress achieved after leaving the village/community, showing fake identity and working status in a reputed organisation, posing as wealthy persons, presenting her/himself as a social worker, establishing friendship with influential persons in the community, attempting to mix with and befriend children, talking high about new places and lifestyles, giving things most liked by the children, meeting the children frequently, asking the children to keep their discussion and meeting confidential from family members, making false promises to the parents and children, keeping parents in confidence, abduction, using coercion and threats are the generally observed tricks and tactics adopted by the traffickers. Convincing parents and children in the name of rescue and relief is the changed trick and tactic used by the traffickers after the earthquake.

Making the children aware of child trafficking and its consequences, listening well to the ideas, curiosities and aspirations of the children positively, orienting children to keep the contact address of family members and relatives, monitoring children if they are getting any gifts or are being lured, and monitoring and inspecting the persons who are new to them and to the community, provisioning of strong penalty against the person involved in trafficking, ensuring effective channels and networks of information and education, complying with existing laws and their proper implementation, and putting pressure on the concerned authorities to follow a fast-track approach to address the issue of child trafficking are the suggestions provided by the informants to prevent child trafficking.

6.2 Recommendations

Overall findings of this anti-trafficking survey suggest that child trafficking has been increasing in Nepal. Based on the findings of this study and previous studies, it is clear that child trafficking has increased in the post-earthquake situation. In this regard, both governmental and non-governmental organisations, will have to act more effectively to implement anti-trafficking programmes. EBT Nepal's initiation on exploring field-based facts through this survey has come up with some conclusive observations and recommendations. The following are ways forward through which EBT Nepal can initiate and continue its endeavours to combat child trafficking in Nepal.

- Information obtained through the household survey, key informant interviews and focus group discussions points out that further intervention is essential in awareness-raising programmes. These awareness programmes should focus on imparting knowledge on child-trafficking to different groups of people, namely, families/parents, children, and general public. They can be oriented through non-formal education (NFE) and/or REFLECT sessions, school-based extra classes, community level street drama and village/community level mass meetings and broadcasting more effective and locally explicable jingle-type public service announcements (PSA) through audio-visual media covering the issues about the nature and types of child labour, child migration and child trafficking, child smuggling and child prostitution, and their causes and consequences. A quick assessment including content analysis and audience response also seems imperative. Findings also point out that people spend substantial amounts of cash in social/cultural functions and feasts/festivals, and also in cigarette and alcohol consumption. In this context, awareness campaigns should also focus on considering contents in their PSAs for encouraging people to exercise thrift and pursue simple lifestyles.
- There is a need to support livelihood enhancement programmes including locally feasible and sustainable income generating micro-enterprise development activities for the needy families. Poverty is the prime cause of child trafficking and it occurs more among the low cash income category of households. This is why integrated efforts are needed to combat child trafficking focusing on livelihood support for poorer and marginal groups of people. Almost all support mechanisms adopted by both governmental non-governmental organisations have reached the community level but the problem lies at the household level. In this context, there is a great need for addressing these problems by considering household/family as the main unit of intervention in livelihood support.
- Overall findings of the survey point out that the nature of child trafficking in the study districts falls under the soft form of trafficking. Hence, there is a need for formulating programmes to address the issues pertaining to awareness-raising, educational support, livelihood support, and rescue and rehabilitation of the trafficked children. Awareness-raising on how the family members' activities result in child trafficking and suffering also needs to be addressed. Mobilisation of all stakeholders at the local level against child trafficking needs to be effective. Ward Citizen Forum can be the best forum for operationalising more effective anti-child trafficking awareness campaigns.
- Information obtained from key informants, FGD participants and literature review points to the need for an integrated approach. Combination of support to children's education and support to livelihood of the families should get higher priority while designing further anti-trafficking programmes. Children who dropped out school were migrated to Kathmandu and other urban centres for earning a better living and supporting their family. They were reportedly engaged in low-paid hazardous workplaces like brick kilns, public transportation, small hotels and restaurants, and dance bars. School dropout, child migration and child trafficking are interrelated. In this context, integration of educational and livelihood support helps reduce the rate of school dropout and child trafficking.
- Information obtained through literature review points to the need for initiating and/or continuing efforts to rescue and rehabilitate the children from the places like dance bars, restaurants, massage parlours, brick kilns, etc., where children have been exploited. This is because over the past couple of years, a new trend has also been developed, namely, in-country trafficking from rural to urban places for exploitation in the entertainment sector (for instance, massage parlours, dance bars and restaurants, etc.) and sex markets for prostitution.

- Overall survey findings show that unsafe migration can result in trafficking and suffering. When children leave home without family consent and unaccompanied by a relative, there is high possibility of children being trafficked. In this context, there is a need for reaching out the most vulnerable communities and families with appropriate awareness-raising campaigns and support activities. Such awareness campaigns should concentrate on the content related to the causes and consequences of unsafe migration and their relation with child trafficking. This further helps to ensure safe migration. Agencies with social mobilisation skills can more effectively conduct such awareness campaigns.
- Information obtained through key informant interviews and review of literature depicts the fact that DCCHTs need to be assisted to form and mobilise VCCHTs and these VCCHTs need to be capacitated/strengthened. VCCHTs have not yet been formed in many districts and VDCs. In districts, DCCHTs also were not functioning well due to resource constraints and due to lack of proper coordination. VCCHTs which were already formed were reportedly functioning when they received external support. This situation obviously raises questions about sustainability of these local structures/mechanisms. In order to ensure their sustainable outcomes, programmes should be designed in order to institutionalise these state-led structures/mechanisms through assistance from (I)NGOs like EBT/EBMF.
- A reliable database on child trafficking is lacking. Hence, a human trafficking information system (HTIS) needs to be developed and implemented. Collaboration and coordination among the governmental line agencies (MoWCSW, MoHA, MoLJPA, etc.) and non-governmental organisations (UNICEF, ILO, EBT Nepal, Save the Children, Plan International Nepal, AATWIN, Shakti Samuha, CWIN, etc.) is essential to develop HTIS. All the relevant organisations need to be brought under a common network and the database child trafficking should be updated regularly.
- There is need for initiating district and VDC level stakeholder interactions. There were organisations, especially non-governmental organisations, engaging in similar type of anti-trafficking activities within a single district/VDC. Such duplication and/or overlap in programmes points to the need to foster close coordination across the concerned agencies. Any (I)NGOs working in the districts, for instance EBMF in Makwanpur, can assist DDC in taking a lead role in organising such interactions/workshops in order to develop district level mechanisms for better coordination as well as networking among the concerned organisations. Moreover, these organisations should focus on interventions that contribute to institutional development, networking and collaboration. In this regard, resource mapping can be one of the options.
- A strong coordination is essential among all the concerned organisations in matters of programme monitoring and implementation. A Child Protection Policy and Code of Conduct should be developed. As transpired during consultation with MoWCSW, AATWIN, and (I)NGOs, there is no effective mechanism in place to monitor the concerned organisation's regarding whether they have developed and followed the Code of Conduct for their staff members. Consequently, many of the staff members of the concerned organisations were reported involved in violating child rights. In order to make anti-child trafficking efforts more effective, efficient and sustainable, non-governmental organisations like EBT Nepal can play a crucial role in ensuring improved coordination while working together with MoWCSW and Women and Children Offices. It can assist the concerned organisations in preparing the Code of Conduct and Child Protection Policy for them. EBT/EBMF should share its knowledge and experience in adopting a Code of Conduct and Child Protection Policy with other concerned organisations which have not yet done so.
- It is essential to prepare a separate policy and implementation plan for the rescue and rehabilitation of trafficked children. The existing Implementation Plan for combatting human trafficking does not address child trafficking specifically, and as a result, most of the implemented programmes and activities have focused more on women rather than children. Furthermore, there is a lack of case management plan (CMP) including follow up plan to support the survivors of child trafficking. This situation points to the need for developing CMP in coordination with the concerned stakeholders.
- There is need for further studies to identify the degree and dimensions of the in-country child trafficking. In-country trafficking has evolved as a major issue among the children in the study districts. This is similar to the findings of the survey carried out by EBMF in Makwanpur in 2014. Children were migrated and trafficked to Kathmandu and other urban centres within the country and

almost all children were engaged as domestic child labour, child labour in entertainment sectors like dance bars and restaurants, transportation sector, and illegal prostitution. In order to trace the causes and consequences of recently emerged in-country child migration and trafficking, especially in the entertainment sector, Master of Arts degree or Ph.D. students from anthropology and sociology can be engaged through research apprenticeship. This is also useful for continuation of academic discourses on the theme.

- An ethnographic study is essential to obtain qualitative and subjective nature of information regarding association between impacts of earthquake and child trafficking. Many of the children in the Dhading and Makwanpur were reported migrating to Kathmandu and other places within the country after the earthquake. The SEEPORT study team realises that unless researchers adopt a more participatory approach through intensive and extended stay in the communities, it is very difficult to come up with realities behind child trafficking and its subjective dimensions. In order understand a more comprehensive and holistic picture of child migration and trafficking before and after the earthquake in earthquake-affected districts, students of anthropology/sociology who need to prepare thesis as an academic requirement should be engaged through research apprenticeship.
- There is need for policy ethnography for more in-depth critical review of legal provisions and gaps. There are some shortcomings and overlaps in plans and policies, operational guidelines, structural adjustment and their execution. Unless the limitations/hindrances inherent in the legal frameworks are identified and gaps between policies and implementation are explored, efforts of state and non-state actors engaged in anti-trafficking cannot be expected to succeed effectively in an efficient and sustainable manner.

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