**Girls Advocacy Alliance submission to the**

**General Recommendation of the CEDAW Committee on**

**Trafficking in Women and Girls in the Context of Global Migration**

Launched in 2016, the Girls Advocacy Alliance (GAA) is a joint initiative which aims at eliminating Gender-Based Violence (GBV) and Economic Exclusion (EE) of girls and young women through strategic lobby and advocacy both at the national level in 10 countries, as well as at the international level. The International Programme of GAA is implemented in Geneva and New York by Plan International, Terre des Hommes International Federation, Defence for Children International Secretariat and ECPAT International.

# Introduction:

Girls have the right to be protected from trafficking under Article 6 of the CEDAW Convention and Article 35 of the CRC Convention. Girls’ specific vulnerabilities to trafficking, particularly for sexual exploitation, must be understood as a continuum of wider gender- and age-based discrimination, in which sexual abuse and violence take place. The experience of girls is in some ways similar to adult women, but in other ways quite different: girls have less access to information and resources, fewer means to seek justice, and more difficulty accessing means of transportation, among others.

The purpose of this submission is to highlight the particular ways in which girls experience migration and trafficking, as different from their older female counterparts, in order to tailor differential approaches in fighting the trafficking of girls[[1]](#footnote-1). The submission will be structured in the following way: section II provides an overview of the global state of trafficking of girls, and section III examines the patterns and experiences of adolescent girls’ migration[[2]](#footnote-2). Section IV brings the two issues together, exploring the ways in which girls experience trafficking in the particular context of global migration, and provides a few case studies of the way in which the Girls Advocacy Alliance is tackling the issue.

# Trafficking of girls: an overview

Numbers of detected victims

According to the latest Global Report on Trafficking in Persons from the UN Office on Drugs and Crime[[3]](#footnote-3), the majority (72%) of all victims of trafficking globally are females, one third of whom are girls. Additionally, the vast majority of the detected victims of trafficking for sexual exploitation are females, and 35 per cent of the victims trafficked for forced labour are also females, both women and girls.[[4]](#footnote-4)

## Figure 1: Shares of detected victims of trafficking in persons globally, by age group and sex (2018)[[5]](#footnote-5)

Although in absolute terms, adults are more than twice as likely to be victims of trafficking than children, when looking at the gender distribution of victims amongst adults and children, the differences are striking. Amongst adult victims of trafficking, women are two times more likely than men to be victims. Amongst child victims of trafficking, however, girls are three times more likely than boys to be victims.

## Figure 2: Gender ratio of detected victims amongst adults as compared to children (2018)[[6]](#footnote-6)



Looking at regional distribution of detected victims, it is interesting to note that Central America and the Caribbean and West Africa have the highest shares of girl victims, as compared to the three other demographic groups, with around 55% and 43% of victims detected in these regions being girls, respectively. Central Asia and North Africa have the lowest shares of girl victims.[[7]](#footnote-7)

Types of exploitation

Some patterns emerge when analysing the way in which age and gender determine the forms of exploitation experienced by detected victims. For girls, their gender seems to play a more decisive role than their age. Between women and girls, girls are only slightly less likely than women to be trafficked for sexual exploitation (72% for girls as compared to 83% for women), and slightly more likely to be trafficked for forced labour (21% for girls as compared to 13% for women).[[8]](#footnote-8)

We see, however, that a child’s gender is a better determinant of the form of trafficking she or he may experience. For example, girls are approximately three times more likely than boys to be trafficked for purposes of sexual exploitation (72% for girls as compared to 27% for boys), and half as likely to be trafficked for forced labour.

## Figure 3: Age vs. gender as determinants of types of exploitation experienced (2018)[[9]](#footnote-9)

This being said, the gendered differences between the types of exploitation in trafficking experienced by girls and boys are less noticeable than the differences between adult women and adult men. For example, adult women are approximately eight times more likely than men to be trafficked for sexual exploitation, whereas girls are only three times more likely than boys to be trafficked for sexual exploitation. Conversely, men are approximately six times more likely than women to be trafficked for forced labour, whereas boys are only about twice as likely to be trafficked for forced labour than girls.[[10]](#footnote-10)

So we see that although gender plays a much more significant role for children than for adults in determining *whether* they will be trafficked, it plays a less important role in determining the *types* of trafficking they will experience. That is, there is more convergence between girls and boys in the types of exploitation than for adults.

This is perhaps unsurprising. As a girl moves through adolescence into young adulthood, she is increasingly viewed as a sexual being and increasingly likely to be trafficked for purposes of sexual exploitation. Similarly, as a boy moves through adolescence and into young adulthood, he is increasingly viewed as a body for physical labour. Here we understand the way in which age plays an important role in solidifying gender roles: as girls and boys move through adolescence, they increasingly enter into the gender-based stereotypes that render them more likely to be trafficked for different purposes.

# Migration of adolescent girls[[11]](#footnote-11)

### Adolescent girls’ experience of migration

Scale

Women and girls account for around 49% percent of the world’s migrants, but it is difficult to estimate how many of these are adolescent girls. Although data collection has improved in the past decades, sex and age disaggregated information is often missing in migration data sets and analyses.[[12]](#footnote-12), [[13]](#footnote-13) But the evidence does indicate a few patterns: 1) more adolescent girls age 15-19 are migrating to urban settings than adolescent boys; 2) adolescent girl migrants are often from poor but not *very* poor families.[[14]](#footnote-14)

In terms of forced displacement, it is estimated that around half of the total number of refugees are women and girls.[[15]](#footnote-15) Many forcibly displaced persons crossing international borders undertake journeys in multiple stages, although this varies by age and gender. Among unaccompanied and separated children (UASC), for example, those remaining in the first country of asylum include a significant number of girls and children younger than 14.[[16]](#footnote-16) In contrast, the majority of those who move onwards to claim asylum, including to industrialised countries, are older boys.[[17]](#footnote-17)

Motivations

In addition to the scale of migration, adolescent girls seem to migrate for different reasons than their male counterparts.

* **More opportunities:** Although many adolescent girls do migrate for the purposes of education, it seems that they do so less than adolescent boys. Work, however, is a primary reason for girls to migrate.[[18]](#footnote-18)
* **Family duties:** Some girls migrate in order to provide for their family, whether by their own choice or because of pressure from family members. It is also not uncommon for girls to migrant for family care work (to care for sick or elderly family members in order villages or cities, for example).[[19]](#footnote-19)
* **Marriage:** Understandably, far more adolescent girls than boys cite marriage as the primary reason for migration, and in some settings, marriage is the main reason girls migrate.[[20]](#footnote-20)
* **Escaping gender-based discrimination:** Some adolescent girls report choosing to migrate away from their families and communities in order to escape gender-based discrimination and restrictions. For example, some girls choose to move in order to have more freedom in their sexuality, to have sexual and/or romantic partners without the knowledge or judgment of their family or community. Other girls report simply wanting to have more freedom than their families allowed them to have, and do so by moving to cities or abroad.[[21]](#footnote-21)
* **Escaping gender-based violence:** Adolescent girls report migrating in order to escape from violence or harmful traditional practices.

### Migration of young adolescent girls

It is of utmost importance to flag, in any discussion of migration and trafficking of adolescent girls that data for the youngest cohort of adolescent girls is missing. One study conducted in Uganda[[22]](#footnote-22) indicated that 55% of adolescent girls who were trafficked became victims age 14 or younger. However, most demographic surveys do not interview females under age 15, leaving a gap in knowledge about the risks and benefits facing young migrants.[[23]](#footnote-23)

### Girls’ agency in migration

Traditionally, girls’ migration has been conflated with trafficking. From the perspective of child protection, this is understandable. However, such an approach fails to recognize the agency of adolescent girls in the migration process.[[24]](#footnote-24) This assumption has several implications. First, evidence and data has tended to be skewed towards worst-case scenarios, and migrant girls often only become visible to policymakers when they indeed have been trafficked. Secondly, such a worst-case scenario approach therefore fails to emphasize prevention, looking at the entirety of girls’ migration journeys and identifying potential weak spots.[[25]](#footnote-25) Finally, solutions may assume that girls have been trafficked while they are actually migrating of their own free will. There is an urgent need in all policies regulating and ensuring safe migration to listen to the voices of adolescent girls to understand their experiences.

# Trafficking of adolescent girls in the context of global migration

### Paths to trafficking of migrant girls

Evidence indicates that girls are more likely than boys to become trafficking victims or fall victim to sexual exploitation. Determining the proportion of migrant girls who are trafficked has been difficult, although one study suggests that it is low, estimating that 2.3% of all female migrants (adult and children) are trafficked. [[26]](#footnote-26) In the context of migration, girls who fall victim to trafficking do so either:

* **While migrating:** Adolescent girls who migrate on their own (or accompanied by an intermediary) may land in the hands of traffickers.
* **After migrating:** Trafficking also may occur later in the migration process, after a girl is settled.

Certain groups of girls may face particular vulnerability to trafficking, including girls from backgrounds of extreme poverty, girls who have been excluded from inheritance, those from marginalized religious, ethnic, caste or social groups; girls escaping violent/abusive family situations or harmful practices such as forced marriage or female genital mutilation; and those who are affected by humanitarian crises. Girls from these groups may be more actively targeted by traffickers, and more willing to accept offers from them out of desperation.

### Barriers to safe migration for adolescent girls

* **Amount and accuracy of information on departure**: Studies indicate that girls who knew more about their journey were more likely to, for example, have transport fare, someone to meet them on arrival, and a place to spend the first few nights at their destination.[[27]](#footnote-27) Unfortunately however, restrictions on female mobility in many societies, alongside lack of literacy and lack of financial resources, can mean that often girls are dependent on relatives, community members or recruiters to arrange their travel, with decisions regarding their means of travel, destination and other factors lying with these individuals rather than with girls themselves.
* **Support from family:** Girls who migrate to escape difficult circumstances often lack the support from their families or trusted members of their communities. Without this support, they may rely on strangers who may have ulterior motives, or turn to, for example, prostitution, to pay their trip.[[28]](#footnote-28)
* **Legal status**: One of the key sources of vulnerability of girls is their legal status in the country, as some countries may exclude irregular migrants from accessing services. Even in countries that not do so, adolescent migrant girls may lack information on their rights and may fear the consequences of their irregular status being found out by authorities.[[29]](#footnote-29)
* **Limited or no social network**: Migrant girls may experience greater social isolation upon arrival than adolescent boys. This may be in part due to the type of work that migrant girls enter into (for example, domestic or sex work, which allows limited contact with the outside world), or due to so-called “protective” deprivation of liberty by the relative with whom the girl lives.

The increased vulnerability of migrant girls due to the aforementioned factors may lead to negative outcomes, which include, for example:

* **Lack of access to services:** Migrant girls face many barriers in accessing services. For example, migrant girls are less likely than their non-migrant counterparts to be in education They also face greater challenges accessing sexual and reproductive health services, and tend to have less information about their sexual and reproductive health.[[30]](#footnote-30) The barriers migrant adolescent girls face in accessing these services stem from various sources. Some of these are administrative in nature, where service providers ask for documentation (not least of all proof of identity and/or legal status). Migrant girls may be excluded because of discrimination or because they lack information on available services.
* **Exploitation by employers (excluding child labour)**: Migrant girls are more likely to be in waged employment than non-migrant girls of the same age.[[31]](#footnote-31) However, for the reasons mentioned above, they are more vulnerable to exploitation in employment, for example being subjected to extended unpaid probation periods, working long hours, and receiving limited or no pay. Although both migrant boys and girls can find themselves in exploitative work, girls tend to be in employment that pays lower and has worse protection, as young migrant women often have less power to negotiate their living and working conditions with their employers.
* **Sexual exploitation:** There is also evidence of a strong link between adolescent girls’ migration and commercial sexual exploitation. Some studies have found that migrants made up anywhere from 30-90% of all sexual exploited young people. Girls cite pressure to support their families as one reason they end up sexually exploited.[[32]](#footnote-32)

### Humanitarian contexts:

In many cities, groups of migrant girls include some who were forced to move by humanitarian emergencies. Estimates of the total number of displaced adolescent girls are uncertain; this absence of quantitative evidence on displaced adolescent girls highlights another research priority.[[33]](#footnote-33) Forcibly displaced adolescent girls have much in common with girls who move in response to personal or family crises such as the death of a family member, since these girls tend to change residence frequently and experience numerous social and health problems[[34]](#footnote-34), [[35]](#footnote-35)

Forced displacement renders children, particularly girls and unaccompanied and separated children (UASC), extremely vulnerable to human trafficking at all stages of displacement – including on journeys and in refugee or displacement camps. Trafficking victims can be forced into commercial sexual exploitation, especially prostitution, and other forms of exploitation including domestic labour.[[36]](#footnote-36), [[37]](#footnote-37) In conflict settings, it is estimated that between 10 and 30 percent of children used for military purposes are girls, and it is likely that the actual number is higher, given that use of girls by armed groups or forced are often more hidden – for example as domestic servants, cooks, wives - and they are particularly vulnerable to sexual exploitation.[[38]](#footnote-38), [[39]](#footnote-39)

Pre-crisis gender norms, stereotypes and power dynamics are often amplified in humanitarian settings, resulting in distinctive perils for girls. Multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination based on gender and age mean that girls hold little to no political, social or economic power. Humanitarian situations not only exacerbate girls’ vulnerability to violations of their rights but also strain and even break down familial and societal structures that previously would have protected girls.[[40]](#footnote-40)

### Marriage, migration and trafficking

* **Migration for the purposes of marriage:** Marriage is sometimes cited as a primary motivation for adolescent girls’ migration.[[41]](#footnote-41)
* **Child marriage as a form of trafficking:** Studies have shown that some child marriages have enslavement-like characteristics similar to those of child trafficking and can thus be argued to be a form of trafficking: girls coerced into forced marriage can be made to engage in acts similar to victims of sex and labour trafficking[[42]](#footnote-42), [[43]](#footnote-43)[[44]](#footnote-44)
* **Marriage as a pretext for trafficking**: In other cases, girls can be trafficked under the pretext of marriage, are imprisoned, threatened and abused upon reaching their destination, and forced into activities such as prostitution and domestic servitude[[45]](#footnote-45).

### Facilitators of safe migration for adolescent girls

In order to ensure safety for girls in the context of global migration and ensure they do not become victims of trafficking, it is critical to work at all stages of the migration process.

Pre-migration facilitators

Before migration, steps can be taken to provide options for adolescent girls to stay home if they choose to, or to ensure that they have the resources (information, finances, network, etc.) to be able to migrate safely if they choose to do so. This can be done through providing adolescent girls with:[[46]](#footnote-46)

* Accessible and relevant education (formal and non-formal)
* Life skills
* Vocational training and access to decent and sustainable livelihoods
* Bank accounts (such as mobile savings accounts)
* Portable assets such as birth certificates and identity cards

Facilitators in-transit and upon arrival

Once adolescent girls embark on their migration journey, there are a number of factors that facilitate their safe migration. These include:[[47]](#footnote-47)

* Trustworthy travel companion
* Adequate travel funds
* Information in transit hubs: transit hubs such as bus and train stations can be particularly dangerous for unaccompanied girls, who may be easily preyed upon as they enter cities.
* Access to mobile phones
* Safe accommodation immediately upon arrival: risks to migrant girls are likely the most significant in the few days and weeks following arrival, where their social isolation is the greatest. It is therefore important that they have a place to go as soon as they arrive, and that they know the address or have someone to pick them up.
* Access to migrant or community groups

Facilitators when settling in

Once the initial period after arrival has passed, adolescent girls have greater chances to settle into life at the destination safely. However, continued efforts must be made to ensure that they are able to continue to protect themselves from risks. This includes:

* Accessible and relevant education (formal and non-formal)
* High quality, accessible health services
* Structured and regular access to same-sex peers by connecting migrant girls with associations or community groups
* Technology to stay in touch with family and friends
* Safe employment opportunities: Access to economic opportunities and decent work is a key component for an effective preventive strategy against trafficking in women and girls.
* Access to savings programs

# Addressing trafficking of girls

### Gaps in current programming for girls to ensure safe migration:

Current approaches to reach migrant girls have had limited impact. As mentioned previously, programmes tend to be built around the worst outcomes, rather than taking into account the diversity of migrant girls’ experiences. The result of such an approach is that programmes emphasize preventing those worst outcomes rather than maximizing the benefits of migration for girls. Additionally, programming that targets migrant youth is generally poorly adapted to the most at-risk group – that is adolescent girls. On the other hand, programming that targets “migrants” as a category doesn’t always work, because many adolescent migrant girls do not self-identity as “migrants”.[[48]](#footnote-48)

Another important gap in programming is so-called “reintegration programmes”. These programmes aim to return migrant adolescents home, under the assumption that all migration is exploitative or dangerous. These programmes can fail to consider the best interests of migrant girls, ignoring their motivations for leaving home. Sending a girl back can put her at risk of forced marriage or other situations that could threaten her safety, health, and well-being. What’s more, girls who have been exploited face stigma and ostracisation on return, leaving them vulnerable to further exploitation, not to mention the stigma and shame many migrant girls who have faced (especially sexual) exploitation may experience from their families.[[49]](#footnote-49)

### Good practices from the Girls Advocacy Alliance

*Ethiopia*

The Girls Advocacy Alliance (GAA) has been taking action to address child trafficking doing lobby and advocacy with communities, local and religious leaders, government actors, CSOs and the private sector on how to reduce child trafficking in Ethiopia.

* **Communities:** The GAA has been mobilizing community leaders and community-based organisations (CBOs) (including youth associations), using traditional networks to collect money to support victims of trafficking and risky migration. Additionally, media campaigns through local radio and television channels are being used to sensitize the broader public about trafficking.
* **Religious leaders:** Religious leaders have also played key role in educating their congregations, and in some districts, priests have started organizing monthly sessions to teach on the subject of trafficking and risky migration.
* **Private sector:** Quite a large number of private sector actors have been approached by the GAA to ensure that workplace safety is ensured for girls and young women employed by them, and some have already put measures in place to this end.
* **Government:** District-level government offices included issues of child trafficking in their annual action plans, and some have already allocated budget to this end.

*Africa Regional Programme*

The GAA Africa Regional Programme has been working on addressing trafficking of girls in Sierra Leone, Liberia and Ghana together with local civil society organisations (CSOs), with the goal of setting the agenda for future sub-regional policy advocacy on child protection including child trafficking.

* **Awareness-raising on regional and international agreements:** the GAA raised awareness of local CSOs on international and regional instruments and recommendations on trafficking.
* **Linking national networks:** The GAA in various countries of West Africa, together with local CSOs, developed a joint cross-country advocacy strategy on child trafficking and ending GBV, linking up their national child protection and child trafficking networks with each other. Importantly, they worked together to conduct data collection and sharing with decision makers.
* **Working at the border:** At the national level, the GAA organised a meeting at the Sierra Leone border involving CSOs, security and immigration officials deployed at the border, community leaders and government officials from both countries to discuss cross-border trafficking of girls.
* **Developing Standard Operating Procedures (SOP):** At the regional level, the GAA has worked with local authorities to draft Standard Operating Procedures (SOP) that define objectives and areas of collaboration between frontline security officials, community leaders and civil society actors to end cross-border trafficking at the border between Sierra Leone and Liberia. The GAA have lobbied their governments to work on the implementation of the SOP with the involvement of all relevant authorities.
* **Prosecution:** The GAA is advocating for the prosecution of child traffickers and the importance of the full implementation of national laws on child trafficking, and lobbied to officials to get the trafficked girls back home.

# Four pillar approach to trafficking of migrant adolescent girls[[50]](#footnote-50)

The current policy and funding climate on trafficking and exploitation of girls tends to heavily emphasize prosecution of these crimes, and particularly “raid and rescue” operations, at the expense of prevention, protection and partnerships[[51]](#footnote-51). The Girls Advocacy Alliance aligns itself with the Call to Action to End Forced Labour, Modern Slavery and Human Trafficking[[52]](#footnote-52), launched in 2017 at the 72nd session of the UN General Assembly and endorsed by 84 Member and Observer States[[53]](#footnote-53) of the UN. The Call to Action outlines a comprehensive approach as comprising the four pillars of prevention, protection, prosecution and partnerships. Clearly, prosecution should be part of the response but a shift from a solely law enforcement focussed approach to more human rights–based approaches is urgently needed. These include immediate assistance and alternative livelihood training for trafficked girls, along with efforts to address the root causes of trafficking: poverty, marginalisation of minorities, and gender-based discrimination and violence.[[54]](#footnote-54)

### Prevention

Reducing inequalities

Wage inequalities between countries combined with tight immigration controls in wealthier nations create the conditions for trafficking as a profitable business. Realistic and attractive local livelihood options, as well as social protection mechanisms may incentivise some adolescent girls and young women to remain in their place of origin and avoid the risks associated with low wage economic migration. The lack of a quality education is also an important factor. However, for those who decide to go, their rights need to be protected, throughout their journeys.[[55]](#footnote-55)

Working with families

Evidence suggests that familiesplay an important role in facilitating migration for girls. Migrant girls often describe mothers as confidantes, assistants, funders, and even collaborators when fathers oppose their plans. In order to protect girls, interventions must also target families and help inform their decisions. It is particularly important to work with mothers, in order to raise their awareness on the risks of migration to allow them to support daughters migrating unaccompanied to do so safely.[[56]](#footnote-56)

It is also important to address gender-based violence in communities, so women and girls do not have to migrate to escape abuse and violence. Policies that incentivise families to keep girls in school can help protect them from exploitation. Family awareness can also help inform families about the psychological distress that adolescents and young women often experience in the aftermath of trafficking.[[57]](#footnote-57)

Importance of personal documentation

In many countries, adolescent girls lack personal identification such as birth certificates, national identity cards, or other forms of documentation that show their age, birth date, identity of biological parents, legal surname, or health records. Personal documentation is critical to ensuring safe migration, avoid exploitation and gain access to health, education and social services.[[58]](#footnote-58)

### Protection

It is critical that governments scale up assistance for trafficked women and girls, to encompass housing, training and work opportunities. The health sector also has an important role, especially in relation to injuries, HIV and STIs, unwanted pregnancy and mental health. Where women and girls have been trafficked overseas, cooperation between host countries and countries of origin is needed to prepare women and girls for their return and to ensure effective follow up.[[59]](#footnote-59)

### Prosecution

Holding perpetrators to account is clearly vital, but some evidence[[60]](#footnote-60) suggests that the current response is disproportionately focussed on law enforcement, and that an over emphasis on “rescue” operations in the sex industry may have detracted from more effective prevention strategies. There is a need to increase investment across all four pillars.

There is consistent indication that corruption by officialsplays an important role in human trafficking[[61]](#footnote-61). Gateways include recruitment, procurement of documents, transport, immigration and profit laundering. Police, immigration and customs officers, officials and the private sector (e.g. transport, financial institutions) may be tolerating, facilitating or organising human trafficking. Governments must prosecute those involved, monitor vulnerable sectors, and use information to prevent further cases. [[62]](#footnote-62)

### Partnerships

A systemic and integrated approach to tackling the exploitation of women and girls in modern slavery requires cross-sector, cross-regional and international partnerships. Policy-making in migration for example has been conducted within sector silos (e.g. international development, security, immigration, trade and labour) with different and often incompatible goals. While the needs and rights of women and girls have received increased international attention over recent years, human trafficking action plans are often developed and implemented as an isolated set of actions, rarely reflecting these wider trends or actively including survivors in their formulation. Governments should make a concerted effort to integrate anti-trafficking policy within larger sector policies, shifting from a heavy law enforcement focus to one that encompasses social, gender, micro-economic and health and wellbeing issues and much more. Integration between anti-trafficking and anti-corruption efforts is also key, giving voice to victims and fostering law enforcement, transparency and accountability of governments, as is work across regions and nations. [[63]](#footnote-63)

1. “Girls” in this submission refers to all female children under the age of 18. [↑](#footnote-ref-1)
2. Here, the focus is on adolescent girls (ages 10-19), given that few girls under age 10 are migrating on their own. [↑](#footnote-ref-2)
3. UNODC. *Global Report on Trafficking in Persons*. 2018. Available at: https://www.courtinnovation.org/publications/fact-sheet-intersection-domestic-violence-sexual-assault-and-human-trafficking [↑](#footnote-ref-3)
4. id. [↑](#footnote-ref-4)
5. id. [↑](#footnote-ref-5)
6. id. [↑](#footnote-ref-6)
7. id. [↑](#footnote-ref-7)
8. id. [↑](#footnote-ref-8)
9. id. [↑](#footnote-ref-9)
10. id. [↑](#footnote-ref-10)
11. The age group “adolescents” (defined as 10-19) is used in some places here because of availability of data. [↑](#footnote-ref-11)
12. Population Council. *Girls on the Move: Adolescent girls & migration in the developing world.* 2013. [↑](#footnote-ref-12)
13. Grabska, K., del Franco, N., de Regt, M. Time to Look at Girls: Adolescent Girls’ Migration in the South. 2016. [↑](#footnote-ref-13)
14. Plan UK. “The Exploitation of Adolescent Girls and Young Women in Modern Slavery: Evidence For Action”. 2018. [↑](#footnote-ref-14)
15. UNHCR. “Safeguarding Individuals: Women”. (n.d.) Accessed 13 February 2019. Available at: http://www.unhcr.org/uk/women.html [↑](#footnote-ref-15)
16. See, *UNHCR registration data as of October 2016 for countries of first asylum where UASC populations exceed 1,000 persons.* [↑](#footnote-ref-16)
17. See, *Procon.org (2016) Unaccompanied Immigrant Children - Demographic Data: Research on the Unauthorized Minors Arriving at US Border Crossings. Available at: http://immigration.procon.org/view.resource.php?resourceID=006411* [↑](#footnote-ref-17)
18. Population Council, 2013. [↑](#footnote-ref-18)
19. id. [↑](#footnote-ref-19)
20. id. [↑](#footnote-ref-20)
21. id. [↑](#footnote-ref-21)
22. Plan UK, 2018. [↑](#footnote-ref-22)
23. Population Council, 2013. [↑](#footnote-ref-23)
24. Grabska, et al. 2016. [↑](#footnote-ref-24)
25. Population Council, 2013. [↑](#footnote-ref-25)
26. id. [↑](#footnote-ref-26)
27. id. [↑](#footnote-ref-27)
28. id. [↑](#footnote-ref-28)
29. Grabska, et al. 2016. [↑](#footnote-ref-29)
30. Population Council, 2013. [↑](#footnote-ref-30)
31. id. [↑](#footnote-ref-31)
32. id. [↑](#footnote-ref-32)
33. Albuja, S. and Ceballos, M. “Urban displacement and migration in Colombia”. *Forced Migration Review* 34 (2010): page 10. [↑](#footnote-ref-33)
34. Haour-Knipe, M. :Families, children, migration and AIDS”. *AIDS Care* 21(S1) (2009). [↑](#footnote-ref-34)
35. Van Blerk, L. and Ansell, N. “Children's Experiences of Migration: Moving in the Wake of AIDS in Southern Africa”. *Environment and Planning D: Society and Space* 24(3) (2006): pages 449-471. [↑](#footnote-ref-35)
36. UNICEF and ILO. “Understanding child trafficking”. *Training manual to fight trafficking in children for labour, sexual and other forms of exploitation.* 2009. Available at: <https://www.unicef.org/protection/Textbook_1.pdf> [↑](#footnote-ref-36)
37. Child Soldiers International. “Who are child soldiers?” Available at: <https://www.child-soldiers.org/Pages/FAQs/Category/faqs>. Accessed 06 February 2019. [↑](#footnote-ref-37)
38. id. [↑](#footnote-ref-38)
39. United Nations. *Report of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General for Children and Armed Conflict*. 2018. [↑](#footnote-ref-39)
40. Plan International. *Adolescent Girls in Crisis: experiences of risk and resilience across three humanitarian settings.* 2018. [↑](#footnote-ref-40)
41. Population Council, 2013. [↑](#footnote-ref-41)
42. Warria, A. “Forced child marriages as a form of child trafficking”. *Children and Youth Services Review* 79 (2017): pages 274–279. [↑](#footnote-ref-42)
43. Girls Bot Brides. “When does child marriage become slavery?”. Available at: <http://www.girlsnotbrides.org/when-does-child-marriage-become-slavery>. Accessed 06 February 2019. [↑](#footnote-ref-43)
44. ECPAT International and Plan International. *Unrecognised Sexual Abuse and Exploitation of Children in Child, Early and Forced Marriage.* 2015. [↑](#footnote-ref-44)
45. Anti-Slavery International. “Out of the Shadows: Child marriage and slavery”. Available at: <http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Issues/Women/WRGS/ForcedMarriage/NGO/AntiSlaveryInternational2.pdf>. Accessed 06 February 2019. [↑](#footnote-ref-45)
46. Population Council, 2013. [↑](#footnote-ref-46)
47. id. [↑](#footnote-ref-47)
48. Population Council, 2013. [↑](#footnote-ref-48)
49. Population Council, 2013. [↑](#footnote-ref-49)
50. Several of the findings in this section are drawn from a recent briefing by Plan International UK , released during the 2018 UN General Assembly to profile some of the early findings from a wider research study with the International Organisation for Migration and the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine. The fuller research draws on interviews with adolescent girls and young women survivors of exploitation in Uganda, Nepal and Nigeria, as well as on the IOM datasets on victims of trafficking for these three countries. The full study aims at improving understanding of the patterns and distribution of exploitation among adolescent girls and young women, alongside the particular gender- and age-related risk factors for this population and the care needs of survivors. The full report will be published later in 2019 and the Girls Advocacy Alliance will be keen to share its findings with the CEDAW Committee. [↑](#footnote-ref-50)
51. Plan UK, 2018. [↑](#footnote-ref-51)
52. The Call to Action to End Forced Labour, Modern Slavery and Human Trafficking is not legally binding and does not affect the states’ existing obligations under applicable international and domestic law, but rather reflects the political commitments of the states represented. [↑](#footnote-ref-52)
53. Afghanistan; China; Albania; Colombia; Argentina; Costa Rica; Armenia; Côte D’Ivoire; Australia; Cyprus; Bahrain; Czech Republic; Bangladesh; Denmark; Belarus; Dominican ; Republic; Belgium; El Salvador; Bolivia; eSwatini; Bosnia and ; Herzegovina; Ethiopia; Brazil; Gabon; Bulgaria; Gambia; Cambodia; Georgia; Canada; Ghana; Grenada; Mauritius; Guinea; Mexico; Guyana; Montenegro; Holy See; Nepal; Hungary; Netherlands ; Iceland; New Zealand; Israel; Nigeria; Italy; Norway; Japan; Paraguay; Jordan; Peru; Kenya; Philippines; Liberia; Poland; Liechtenstein; Qatar; Malawi; Republic of Korea; Malaysia; Republic of ; Moldova; Malta; Rwanda; Saint Lucia; Sri Lanka; Saint Vincent and The Grenadines; Sudan; Samoa; Suriname; Saudi Arabia; Switzerland; Senegal; The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia; Serbia; Turkey; Seychelles; United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland; Sierra Leone; United Republic of Tanzania; Singapore; United States of America; Slovakia; Uruguay; Spain; Zambia. [↑](#footnote-ref-53)
54. UNICEF. “Background paper on child trafficking in Central and Eastern Europe / Commonwealth of independent states,” 2006. [↑](#footnote-ref-54)
55. Plan UK, 2018. [↑](#footnote-ref-55)
56. Population Council, 2013. [↑](#footnote-ref-56)
57. Plan UK, 2018. [↑](#footnote-ref-57)
58. Population Council, 2013. [↑](#footnote-ref-58)
59. Plan UK, 2018. [↑](#footnote-ref-59)
60. Jones, Stephanie, Julie King, and Niki Edwards. "Human-trafficking prevention is not “sexy”: Impact of the rescue industry on Thailand NGO programs and the need for a human rights approach." Journal of Human Trafficking 4.3 (2018): 231-255. [↑](#footnote-ref-60)
61. UNODC. “The role of corruption in trafficking in persons.” 2011. [↑](#footnote-ref-61)
62. Plan UK, 2018. [↑](#footnote-ref-62)
63. Plan UK, 2018. [↑](#footnote-ref-63)