



Household Economic Strengthening in Support of Prevention of Family-Child Separation and Children's Reintegration in Family Care



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ACRONYMS LIST

ASPIRES	Accelerating Strategies for Practical Innovation and Research in Economic Strengthening
CBO	Community-based organizations
CCT	Conditional cash transfer
CI <i>F</i>	Child's <i>i</i> Foundation
CSA	Child savings accounts
DCOF	Displaced Children and Orphans Fund
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DRC	Democratic Republic of the Congo
ES	Economic strengthening
HES	Household economic strengthening
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
IGA	Income generating activity
IRC	International Rescue Committee
LEAP	Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty Programme
LIFT	Livelihoods and Food Security Technical Assistance
MVC	Most vulnerable children
NGO	Non-governmental organization
OVC	Orphans and vulnerable children
SCORE	Sustainable, Comprehensive Responses for Vulnerable Children and their Families
SG+	Savings groups plus
SOP	Standard operating procedures
STRIVE	Supporting Transformation by Reducing Insecurity and Vulnerability with Economic Strengthening
TVET	Technical and vocational education and training
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VSLA	Village savings and loan association
VUP	Rwanda's Vision 2020 <i>Umurenge</i> Programme

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This paper summarizes learning related to prevention of family-child separation, reintegration of children in family care, and economic interventions that might support these aims. It was prepared to inform the focus and development of a project that aims to use rigorous research to develop the evidence base related to the ways in which household-level economic strengthening interventions in low- and middle-income countries can help prevent the separation of children from their families and assist in reintegrating separated children in family care. It is shared as an accessible information resource that can help child protection and economic strengthening practitioners to envision and design programming together.

The paper draws on recent literature reviews, studies, program reports, resource documents and other gray literature to briefly describe the domain of work called economic strengthening (ES) or household economic strengthening (HES), provide an overview of children outside of family care and highlight international policy frameworks and guidance relevant to these children. It then addresses the following questions:

- What causes family-child separation?
- What do prevention of family-child separation and reintegration of children in family care programs look like and what economic interventions do they include?
- What is the state of evidence about HES and other economic interventions in support of preventing separation and reintegrating children in family care?
- What can programs aimed at preventing separation and reintegrating children in family care learn from programs that involve economic activities to improve outcomes for vulnerable children?

This paper then reviews findings, makes recommendations, and proposes a number of questions for further research. A substantial proportion of the existing studies and gray literature that touch on the topic of children outside of family care or care of orphans and vulnerable children (OVC) focuses on children affected by HIV/AIDS. This paper takes a broader view of children outside of family care and considers programming addressing other reasons for family-child separation, although it draws on literature related to the HIV/AIDS-affected child population.

Household Economic Strengthening

A widely-shared definition of HES does not exist. HES differs from more systemic, government-led social protection programs, although it may be an element of those programs, in that it may not be government-led, it may have a more local focus, and it may place a greater emphasis on development of economic assets and capacities (PEPFAR 2012, Markel and Getliffe 2015 working draft). HES interventions tend to be associated with sustainable livelihood approaches,

address vulnerable populations, and may use combined or integrated multi-sectoral approaches that address multiple dimensions of vulnerability and well-being for both children and caregivers (Markel and Getliffe 2015 working draft). There is a growing sense of the need to tailor HES inputs to household-level circumstances; strengthen individual, household and/or community capacities by developing assets that make ongoing development possible and support resilience to shocks; and offer sequenced interventions that can provide a pathway out of poverty (PEPFAR 2012, Evans et al. 2013, Sabates-Wheeler and Devereaux 2013, de Montesquiou 2014, Markel and Getliffe 2015 working draft). The effects of HES interventions on child-level outcomes are not well understood (Chaffin 2011, Marcus 2014). Strengthening the knowledge base in this area could lead to more effective programs, avoidance of unintended negative outcomes, and potentially address drivers of family-child separation.

Children Outside of Family Care

Millions of children in low- and middle-income countries live outside of family care or in situations in which the ability of the family to remain together is at risk. While these children comprise a tiny proportion of the world's children, they are a population of great concern, since children outside of parental care are more likely to be neglected and exposed to abuse and exploitation, are more vulnerable to health and behavioral problems, and can face challenges in developing relationships, a sense of identity, and self-esteem (Wedge 2013, Bakker et al. 2009, Tobis 2000, Dozier et al. 2012, Browne 2009, Save the Children 2009). There is growing interest in, and policy commitment to, promoting family care for children and addressing the issues of children outside of family care in low- and middle-income countries (United Nations 2010, Cantwell et al. 2012). Programming is often organized, and funded, according to contexts in which children are outside of family care, such as children in residential care, children on the street, children in emergencies, children affected by HIV/AIDS, trafficked or exploited children, or children associated with armed forces and armed groups (Boothby, Balster et al. 2012, Wedge 2013). While a focus on particular groups of children or contexts can lead to effective tailoring of programs, it also contributes to technical silos that inhibit sharing of knowledge, tools and effective strategies, risks losing children in need of support, and may lead to inefficient use of resources (Boothby et al. 2012, Boothby, Balster et al. 2012). The body of evidence related to effective and sustainable prevention of family-child separation and reintegration of separated children in family care in these contexts is extremely limited (Fluke et al. 2012, Boothby, Balster et al. 2012).

Poverty is widely recognized as a major driver of family and child vulnerability to a variety of risks and threats, including family-child separation—often in interaction with other drivers such as child abuse, parent migration for work, or natural disaster (Campbell et al. 2008, Akwara et al. 2010, UNICEF Data and Analytics Section 2014, Williamson and Greenberg 2010). Economic interventions that address poverty are an important element of broader strategies that can help prevent family-child separation, support children's reintegration in family care, and improve outcomes for children, but practitioners highlight the frequent lack of technical expertise in economic interventions in programs addressing family-child separation, with implications for

program success (Chaffin and Kalyanpur 2014).

Findings Related to Economic Interventions, Family-Child Separation, and Children's Vulnerabilities

There is a diversity of drivers of family-child separation and more to learn about decision-making leading to family-child separation: There are a number of factors associated with family-child separation and poverty is a common, but rarely the only, factor (Delap 2013, Sofovik et al. 2012, Adefrsew 2011, Guntzberger 2013, Banos Smith 2014a and b, Republic of Rwanda Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion and Children 2012, Walakira et al. 2014, Roelen and Chettri 2014, Republic of Malawi Ministry of Gender and Unicef 2011, Kingdom of Cambodia Ministry of Social Affairs, Veterans and Youth Rehabilitation 2011, Irwanto and Kusumanigrum 2014). More work needs to be done to understand parent and child decision-making processes that lead to separation and the role that household economic considerations play in those decisions. A more nuanced understanding of the nature of poverty in separated families and families at risk of separation could aid in this, as could information on family separation gathered through broader programs targeting vulnerable children and households.

Comprehensive approaches are needed to support children's reintegration in family care and prevent family-child separation: Economic interventions may be necessary, but alone are likely insufficient in many cases to successfully support children's reintegration in family care and prevent family-child separation (Chaffin and Kalyanpur 2014, Mattingly 2015). More comprehensive case analysis and case management may be needed. In contexts where caseloads are large, and/or grow suddenly, such as in emergencies, different approaches, such as those that use sampling to understand trends, may be required to understand key drivers of separation and how best to target support for families efficiently and effectively.

Child-focused programs are more effective at addressing child-level outcomes: Evidence from social protection programs suggests that child-focused programs undergirded by policy commitment to address children's vulnerabilities have the greatest effect on child-level outcomes (Sanfilippo et al. 2012). It is possible that a similar effect might be found in programs that aim to increase household economic capacity; they may be more likely to contribute to broad prevention of family-child separation, if they include a focus on child protection and well-being and seek to reduce the social desirability of family-child separation for economic reasons.

Income support for consumption may address multiple drivers of family-child separation: Income support interventions (such as cash transfer, provision of food and public works programs) aim to prevent a fall into further poverty, rather than to provide a push along a path to greater prosperity. There is some evidence that unconditional cash transfers through government-led social protection programs can reduce family-child separation (Barrientos et al. 2013, Thompson 2012). There is also some evidence indicating that well-designed and well-targeted government-led social protection programs and other income support programs can address possible drivers of family-child separation because they may reduce child poverty, child labor,

and early marriage/sexual initiation, increase legal identity documentation of children and access to education and improve child nutrition (Adato and Basett 2012, Barrientos et al. 2013, Chaluda 2015, Roelen and Chettri 2014, Roelen and Shelmerdine 2014, Sanfilippo et al. 2012). Income support interventions may also help to reduce caregiver stress and hence improve household dynamics (Barrientos et al. 2013). Program design is important: for example, income transfers that are too small may lead to poor child-level results and some designs may lead to increased child labor, within-household inequities, and/or poorer care of children (Barrientos et al. 2013, Roelen and Shelmerdine 2014). Income support programs do not necessarily protect families from economic shocks; coupling them with support for development of assets and sustainable income may increase resilience to these shocks. Large-scale programs of long duration are not realistic outside the public sector for reasons of cost, capacity of coverage, and equity of access issues; they are also beyond the capacity of the public sector in a number of countries.

More evidence is needed on HES interventions and their impact on children: Practitioners use a variety of HES interventions in reintegration programs, including provision of consumable items, microloans, small grants, start-up kits for business and agricultural activities, vocational skills training for older children, links with savings programs and support for income-generation activities (Chaffin and Kalyanpur 2014). Selection of activities in these programs is often based on implementer familiarity with the intervention, rather than a detailed assessment of household capacity and a related theory of change, and practitioners face challenges in adequately supporting geographically dispersed families and in their technical capacity to support HES activities with them (Chaffin and Kalyanpur 2014). There is very little rigorous evidence related to economic interventions and family-child separation and this review found less information about HES and prevention of family-child separation than about HES in the context of reintegration of children in family care.

Learning about economic interventions and children's vulnerabilities more broadly speaking provides some insight useful to thinking about HES as an aid in preventing family-child separation and in reintegrating children into family care. For example:

- Microcredit may be effective for some households, but may not be for those with labor constraints and/or grappling with the emotional effects of separation and integration (Brown 2015, STRIVE symposium discussion). Microcredit may also contribute to reducing children's education and recreation time if new or expanded household enterprises require their labor for the enterprise or household work that might otherwise have been done by adults, with possible implications for family preservation (Brown 2015).
- While there is limited rigorous evidence related to other asset-building interventions such as savings groups, institutional savings and financial education (for children or adults) on child-level outcomes, there are indications that economic asset-building interventions, coupled with other interventions, may affect attitudes and some behaviors or care practices, family dynamics, and perceptions of risk to children, in addition to creating

saving and developing money management skills; they may also create social networking benefits (Annan et al. 2013, Gash et al. 2015, Katz et al. 2014, Lowicki-Zucca et al. 2014, Parr and Bachay 2015).

More work remains to understand how HES interventions relate to drivers of family-child separation and the nature of interventions that might address those drivers and be appropriate to family circumstances.

Recommendations

This paper suggests a number of questions for future research and makes the following recommendations for programmers working on HES to help prevent family-child separation and reintegration of children in family care:

- Link families with government-led social protection and local economic empowerment programs where relevant and appropriate.
- Consider holding emergency funds to help families reintegrating children or at very high risk of separation cope with shocks.
- Investigate sequenced HES approaches with realistic expectations, bearing in mind both family and implementing agency capacity, programming timeframes, and geographic constraints.
- Work on tools and approaches to capture separation risk and durability of reintegration, taking into account the challenges associated with finding and reaching the small proportion of children at risk of separation or reintegrating into family care.
- Hypothesize and test causal pathways related to HES interventions and drivers of family-child separation.

INTRODUCTION

Millions of children in low- and middle-income countries live outside of family care or in situations in which the ability of the family to remain together is at risk, threatening these children's development, well-being, and life chances. While these children comprise a tiny proportion of the world's children, they are a population of great concern. Although in some cases parental care is not possible or in the child's best interest, it is generally recognized that children outside of parental care are more likely to be neglected and exposed to abuse and exploitation, are more vulnerable to health and behavioral problems, and can face challenges in developing relationships, a sense of identity, and self-esteem (Wedge 2013, Bakker et al. 2009, Tobis 2000, Dozier et al. 2012, Browne 2009, Save the Children 2009).

There is growing interest in, and policy commitment to, promoting family care for children and addressing issues related to children outside of family care in low- and middle-income countries. This interest has been highlighted by the United Nations General Assembly's consensus acceptance of the non-binding Guidelines for the Alternative Care of Children (United Nations 2010). Subsequent government action to implement those guidelines has been supported with advocacy and technical assistance by international, national, and local organizations and networks. However, the body of evidence related to effective and sustainable prevention of family-child separation and reintegration of separated children in family care in these contexts is extremely limited (Fluke et al. 2012, Boothby, Balster et al. 2012).

Poverty is widely recognized as a major driver of family and child vulnerability to a variety of risks and threats, including family-child separation—often in interaction with other drivers such as child abuse, parent migration for work, or natural disaster (Campbell et al. 2008, Akwara et al. 2010, UNICEF Data and Analytics Section 2014, Williamson and Greenberg 2010). Economic interventions that address poverty are seen as part of a set of strategies that can help prevent family-child separation, support children's reintegration in family care, and improve outcomes for children (Chaffin and Kalyanpur 2014, United Nations 2010).¹ However, working on child care and development issues falls outside of the traditional remit of livelihoods-oriented practitioners, while the technical capacity of child protection practitioners to design and implement economic interventions is weak (Chaffin and Kalyanpur 2014). The frameworks, priorities, assumptions and language used in the two domains may differ as well. Although interest exists in programming that “integrates” interventions in support of prevention of family-child separation and reintegration of children in family care, how to do this effectively in low- and middle-income countries is not well understood.

This paper summarizes learning related to prevention of family-child separation, reintegration of children in family care, and economic interventions that might support these aims. It was prepared to inform the focus and development of a project, supported by USAID's Displaced

¹ These economic interventions range from government social grant programs to support for income generation activities (IGAs), employability skills development, asset creation, and material assistance, among others.

Children and Orphans Fund (DCOF)² under the US Government-supported ASPIRES mechanism,³ that aims to use rigorous research to develop the evidence base related to the ways in which household-level economic strengthening interventions can help prevent the unnecessary separation of children from their families and support reintegrating separated children in family care in low- and middle-income countries.⁴ ASPIRES is sharing this paper as an information resource with the wider interested community given the perceived need for resources that are accessible and comprehensible to both child protection and economic strengthening practitioners and that can help them envision and design programming.

The paper draws on recent literature reviews, studies, program reports, resource documents and other gray literature to briefly describe the domain of work called economic strengthening (ES) or household economic strengthening (HES), describe issues of children outside of family care, and international policy frameworks and guidance relevant to them. It then addresses the following questions:

- What causes family-child separation?
- What do prevention of family-child separation and reintegration of children in family care programs look like and what economic interventions do they include?
- What is the state of evidence about HES and other economic interventions in support of preventing separation and reintegrating children in family care?
- What can programs aimed at preventing separation and reintegrating children in family care learn from programs that involve economic activities to improve outcomes for vulnerable children?

This paper then reviews findings, suggests some recommendations, and proposes a number of research questions for further research.

A substantial proportion of existing studies and gray literature that touches on the topic of children outside of family care or care of OVC focuses on children affected by HIV/AIDS. This paper takes a broader view of children outside of family care and considers programming addressing other reasons for family-child separation, although it draws on literature related to

² “USAID’s DCOF provides financial and technical assistance for the care and protection of vulnerable children, particularly those who are separated from their families or are at risk of losing family care and protection. In its implementation of DCOF, USAID has given particular attention to children in institutional care, those affected by war, or those on the street, as well as children with disabilities and other disenfranchised or unaccompanied children. Some of these children are orphans who have lost both parents; most are not.”

<http://www.usaid.gov/documents/1866/programs-vulnerable-populations-displaced-children-and-orphans-fund>, accessed March 19, 2015.

³ ASPIRES is funded by USAID and PEPFAR and supports evidence-based, gender-sensitive programming and learning to strengthen the economic capacities of vulnerable individuals, families, and children.

⁴ The DCOF-supported project aims to develop evidence and program guidance for matching contextually appropriate economic interventions with targeted households to reintegrate separated children into their families and prevent unnecessary separation of children from their families in low- and middle-income countries. To do this, it will support two pilot projects that will serve as sites for operational research and draw on learning from other projects addressing reintegration and prevention of separation and related issues. It is anticipated that this project will help to illuminate how to identify at-risk families, how to reach them, the types and nature of appropriate support, and how to match families with appropriate HES interventions.

the HIV/AIDS-affected child population.

Methodology

For this paper, an academic database search focused on reintegration and prevention of separation and economic support in low- and middle-income countries was conducted in November 2014 for the period 2000–2014 to confirm the comprehensiveness of earlier efforts to survey the literature related to the topic, such as those of Chaffin and Kalyanpur (2014) and Wedge (2013), and to identify recently published literature. A second database search using a modified version of the search terms used in Chaffin (2011) was conducted in December 2014 for the period 2009–2014 to identify recently published literature related to ES and vulnerable children. These searches confirmed the paucity of rigorous studies that address HES interventions in relation to preventing children’s separation from their families and reintegrating children in family care and the existence of a limited body of evidence related to HES and child protection issues. Additional online searching identified gray literature on the emerging policy environment relating to children without parental care; risk factors and conditions related to family separation; program examples and findings related to preventing separation of children from family care and supporting reintegration of children in family care; and promising HES interventions that can address children’s vulnerability and well-being and may contribute to preventing separation and reintegrating children in family care. Online searching also helped to identify key actors and develop indicative lists of organizations and projects that directly or indirectly address child separation and/or prevention of separation to gain a sense of the communities of interest to which learning that emerges through this ASPIRES project has likely relevance and the nature of their economic programming (this information is included in Annexes A, B, and C).

UNDERSTANDING HOUSEHOLD ECONOMIC STRENGTHENING

Practitioners and researchers involved in reintegrating children in family care and preventing family-child separation agree that household poverty often plays a role in parting children from their families (Chaffin and Kalyanpur 2014, Wedge 2013). In some contexts, government-led social protection programs may provide the income safety net that can help families avoid separation for economic reasons. In others, such as resource-poor environments and crisis situations, these safety nets may not exist or be inadequate. These programs also face limitations in their ability to strengthen families’ resilience to sudden shocks leading to increased economic vulnerability and possible separation. HES interventions aimed at improving household economic capacity may help to strengthen this resilience. This section reviews ways in which assistance actors understand HES, describes its relationship to social protection, discusses interest in cash transfers and sequenced asset-building approaches to HES, and highlights our limited understanding of how HES specifically addresses children’s vulnerabilities.

Defining Household Economic Strengthening

The scope and intended function of economic interventions with respect to vulnerable children are under discussion. In 2014, the SEEP Network, a US-based NGO and economic development industry association, conducted a review intended to explore ES as a field of practice, particularly as it relates to improving the well-being of OVC (Markel and Getliffe 2015 working draft). The review involved assessment of documents, online surveys, group discussions, and key informant interviews. It found that the terms ES and/or HES began to be used in the late 1990s in vulnerable children and HIV/AIDS programming as concerns grew about the effects of deteriorating economic circumstances on AIDS-affected households. The terms are often used interchangeably and a broadly-shared definition and statement of purpose of HES interventions has yet to be agreed. Existing definitions demonstrate differing focuses on livelihoods, living conditions or well-being and on the accumulation and spending of money versus access to money or an increase in, or the capacity to obtain, a broader set of assets that may be physical, natural, financial, human, or social in nature. The paper authors observe that HES interventions tend to align with sustainable livelihoods approaches to economic development and “most HES interventions are designed to reduce extreme poverty and vulnerability, often in the context of HIV/AIDS;” in so doing, they often take a multi-sector approach to address the complex dynamics associated with vulnerability (Markel and Getliffe 2015 working draft, p. 8).

The SEEP review found that the definitions of HES used by various organizations often do not identify a clear target population for this work; one resulting challenge is that it is not clear from these definitions whether the ultimate aim of HES interventions is to benefit the most vulnerable populations generally, and children in particular.⁵ Practitioners responding to a question in an online survey conducted for the review, however, pointed to household income/wealth and food security as factors that should be used to identify target populations for HES programming for OVC.

As noted above, the SEEP review found that organizations that do HES work often try to address the complex dynamics related to vulnerability by taking a highly participatory and multi-sector approach. What these organizations consider to be HES work includes a variety of interventions. Respondents to the review’s survey of practitioners and researchers identified the following activities (in order of frequency reported): savings groups (typically 15-20 member groups that are self-managed, and provide members saving, lending, and sometimes other

⁵ In the SEEP review, orphans and vulnerable children often relates to children affected by HIV/AIDS. For the purposes of the programming it supports, PEPFAR defines an orphan or vulnerable child as “a child, 0-17 years old, who is either orphaned or made more vulnerable because of HIV/AIDS” (The President’s Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief 2006, p. 2). In this definition, an orphan is defined as having lost one or both parents to HIV/AIDS; a vulnerable child is more vulnerable because he or she “is HIV-positive; lives without adequate adult support (e.g., in a household with chronically ill parents, a household that has experienced a recent death from chronic illness, a household headed by a grandparent, and/or a household headed by a child); lives outside of family care (e.g., in residential care or on the streets); or is marginalized, stigmatized, or discriminated against (p. 2). UNICEF’s definition refers to single or double orphans or a chronically ill parent, while the World Bank refers to “children more at risk than their peers...most likely to fall through regular program cracks...experience negative outcomes” (Markel and Getliffe 2015 working draft, p. 11).

services such as insurance), informal and vocational education, business development and entrepreneurship, market development and agricultural extension, food security and nutrition, financial education, “other,” education and literacy, water/sanitation/hygiene promotion, and asset provision and social protection (Markel and Getliffe 2015 working draft).

The SEEP review highlights a lack of consensus or clear direction in the literature around topics associated with targeting (related to whether HES targets the individual, family, or household; whether interventions should focus on child well-being; and who OVC are), the age range of children HES programming should benefit, and whether HES interventions should directly touch caregivers, systems, or children themselves. Through its survey, focus groups, and review of interventions it found that most practitioners identified OVC as being under the age of 18. The review also identified a shared sense that HES should focus on “the economic prospects and well-being of the most vulnerable households, with the goal of improving outcomes for children” (p.34); a sense that while addressing the unique needs of HIV/AIDS-affected households is important, it is no longer the exclusive focus of HES; a consensus that combined or integrated multi-sectoral approaches that address dimensions of well-being for both children and caregivers are important; and a growing sense of the need to tailor inputs to household-level circumstances. The report proposes that HES interventions for improving the well-being of OVC might be considered as those that are “designed to improve the well-being of vulnerable children and adolescents by increasing individual or household assets (financial, physical, social, or human) and/or the capacity to obtain them” and take “an integrated approach which includes psychosocial, educational, and/or health-related objectives” (p. 36). It acknowledges that this definition may be so broad as to include almost all development activities and that further refinement is required.

HES is Different from, but Related to Social Protection

While some of the SEEP survey respondents referenced above included the grouping “asset provision and social protection” among the interventions they identified as ES interventions, social protection is commonly seen as different from, although connected to, HES. Social protection, for which there is no single, generally-accepted definition, is broadly taken to refer to government-led instruments that, through policy development, operational programming, and sometimes system/service integration, address deprivation, vulnerability, and risk through mechanisms that may include social assistance (such as conditional or unconditional cash or income transfers, social pensions, grants, school feeding, or public works), social insurance (such as contributory and/or subsidized health insurance), access to services, and labor market interventions, and are often seen as ways to reduce poverty, inequality, and social exclusion (United Nations Research Institute for Social Development 2010, Sanfilippo et al. 2012, PEPFAR 2012). In UNICEF’s framework, social protection should be child-sensitive; support children’s rights; recognize children’s vulnerability at different ages; promote equity; and reflect a multigenerational approach and an understanding that children’s poverty has spiritual and emotional dimensions as well as material ones and that economic poverty is dynamic (UNICEF 2012).

Cash Programming is a Strategy in Both Social Protection and HES

Provision of cash as income support is not the sole domain of social protection, however. The United Kingdom's Department for International Development (2011) suggests that cash transfers by various actors can play roles in prevention of harm from economic shocks, in protection by raising living standards, in promotion by improving capabilities of and opportunities for poor and vulnerable households, and in transformation by changing power relations. It proposes that providing cash is an efficient way to get resources to people and to reduce poverty and exclusion, but notes that it cannot solve supply side issues such as gaps in service availability. The last decade has seen a growing interest in the use of cash by the nongovernmental sector. The Cash Learning Partnership maintains that “cash transfers and vouchers can be appropriate and effective tools to support people affected by disasters in a way that maintains dignity and choice for beneficiaries while stimulating local economies and markets” (The Cash Learning Partnership).

Sequenced Approaches to HES

The domains of HES and, more recently, social protection both use the notion of pathways to refer to the sequenced progress of extremely poor households through forms of economic assistance which link social protection support, often cash or other resource transfers to support consumption and prevent a slide into deeper poverty, with other assistance to promote livelihoods, such as savings, asset transfer, financial service, training and coaching to build confidence, and enable entry into the market economy (Sabates-Wheeler and Devereaux 2013, de Montesquiou et al. 2014). The logic of the pathways concept is supported by PEPFAR's *Guidance for Orphans and Vulnerable Children Programming* (PEPFAR 2012) and the related LIFT Program *Economic Strengthening for Vulnerable Children: Resource Guide* (Evans et al. 2013), which recommends that “HES is most effective when activities are well-matched to the specific needs and capacities of targeted children and adult caregivers” (p. 4). This guidance describes three levels of household poverty—in destitution, struggling to make ends meet, and prepared to grow—and related levels of intervention that may best address their situation, as shown in Table 1, below. It recommends that programs and activities should be designed to help beneficiaries move up the continuum of livelihood strategies and related activities and with child outcomes in mind.

Table 1. Household Poverty Levels and Related Interventions*

Households that are...	Are ready for livelihood...	Which includes strategies to...	Often through this type of activity:	Which could involve:
Prepared to grow	Promotion	Grow income and expenses	Enterprise Development	High-risk, high-return activities such as private sector development Low-risk, medium-return activities such as income generation
Struggling to make ends meet	Protection	Match income to expenses	Money Management	Medium-risk, medium-return activities such as group savings Low-risk, medium-return activities such as financial literacy
In destitution	Provision	Meet basic needs	Consumption Support	Low-risk, low-return activities such as cash transfers and asset transfers

*This table combines information from two tables on pages 4-5 of Evans et al. 2013.

The CGAP-Ford Foundation Graduation Approach adapts a model originally used by BRAC in Bangladesh that “seeks to reduce inequality by moving greater numbers of highly vulnerable households into sustainable livelihoods and toward economic stability” (de Montesquiou et al. 2014, p. 8). The model engages elements of social protection (such as consumption support and service linkages), livelihoods development and access to finance. Following participant targeting⁶ and market analysis to understand appropriate livelihood options, the HES process takes place over a period of 36 months and leads to outcomes including food security, sustainable livelihoods, income diversification, asset accumulation, improved income management, savings for shocks, increased self-confidence, improved hygiene and sanitation, and visibility in the community, supporting families to “graduate” from needing support (de Montesquiou et al. 2014).

Sabates-Wheeler and Devereaux (2013) identify five factors that may enable or constrain movement along the pathway out of poverty: the market context, initial resource conditions and efficiency of existing assets, the scale and coverage (i.e., number of people benefitting) of the transfer, incentives households have to move along the pathway, and environmental context (including natural shocks). They also remind us that some individuals and households, such as those with no labor capacity, may lack graduation potential and always need social, family, or community assistance. Samson (2015) suggests that micro-oriented developmental programs aimed at development impact such as livelihood promotion might be most effective when situated in a broader macro-level development framework that also includes, but stretches the inter-sector networking and aspiration of, social protection programs that address poverty,

⁶ De Montesquiou et al. (2014) recommend that implementers use up to four targeting approaches (including geographic targeting, community input on wealth ranking, household means test and cross-verification of data) when government or other household databases are not available or not accurate.

vulnerability and social exclusion.

In a paper aimed at understanding how to situate BRAC graduation model programming in the social protection and safety net landscape, Marston and Grady (2014) propose “guideposts” for “how to get governments, foundations, and civil society organizations more focused on improving the well-being of the ultra-poor” (p. 33). They suggest strengthening the argument for graduation programming and the ways in which cash and asset transfers can cost-effectively contribute to poverty eradication, establishing the relationship between the graduation approach and results of concern to the international development and human rights communities (such as addressing inequality, empowering beneficiaries, tackling intergenerational poverty, and improving accountability), and purposefully linking with donor assistance frameworks. They also recommend strengthening local government ownership through building training capacity, developing urban work, experimenting with electronic payments to reach the ultra-poor, and working on ways to bridge the humanitarian-development divide.

HES and Children

Much HES work aims for household level effects. The effects of HES interventions on child well-being and child protection outcomes in general are not well understood (Chaffin 2011, Marcus 2014). The rigorous, quantitative evidence on economic interventions broadly speaking and their effects on children’s well-being (assessed in terms of outcomes related to health, nutrition, education, mental health, and child care, for example) in low- and low-middle-income countries is fairly small, with the exception of a substantial body of studies related to social protection programs that involve social assistance and/or social insurance and their impacts on education, health, and food consumption and nutrition (Chaffin 2011, Sanfilippo et al. 2012, Adato and Bassett 2012). There is some evidence that targeting women as beneficiaries of economic interventions can lead to better outcomes for children in relation to nutrition, clothing, and spending on education (see discussion in Chaffin 2011, p. 8), and some evidence that some social protection and HES interventions may have negative effects on child protection and child well-being outcomes such as, for example, increases in child labor, and that effects may vary by age and gender of the child (Brown 2015, Sanfilippo et al. 2012, Barrientos et al. 2013). The evidence base on the role of economic interventions in prevention of family separation and support for reintegration of children in family care in these countries is even sparser, although some evidence about possible relationships is emerging from studies of social assistance programs (Barrientos et al. 2013). To a large extent, it seems that program decision-making about HES interventions may not flow from clear, supported theories of change about how this programming will affect children.

Later sections of this paper describe the evidence base related to economic interventions, reintegration of children in family care, and prevention of separation. The following section provides information about the population of interest in this paper—children outside of family care—and the emerging global framework to support them.

UNDERSTANDING CHILDREN OUTSIDE OF FAMILY CARE

This section reviews a definition of children outside of family care and describes contexts in which these children are found. It then provides an overview of the global framework for care and common models for support to children and families, highlighting useful resource documents. In some contexts, economic actors may have limited interaction with children outside of family care and child protection and family support structures. Strengthening their understanding of the nature of children's separation and the mechanisms and structures intended to support them can improve the program design, assist in identifying potential stakeholders and collaborators, and increase the child-sensitivity of programming.

Who are Children Outside of Family Care?

Describing and quantifying children outside of family care is challenging. In a 2013 conceptual framework, Family for Every Child, a network of national civil society organizations focused on child care, highlights the varied forms that families can take, including children living with biological, adoptive, or step parent(s), children living with extended family members or in kinship networks, and children in foster care (although foster care is generally not intended to be permanent) (Delap 2013). It identifies children outside of family care as children in non-family formal or informal care, children in supervised independent living arrangements, and children living outside the care of any adult, including children in child-only households without adult supervision, children living on the streets without adult caregivers, and "children living with adults who do not take on the responsibility to care for and protect children. This group may include children who live with employers, children who have been recruited into fighting forces or groups, or who have married" (Delap 2013, p.29). Children outside of family care are found in a variety of contexts; the most common contexts of concern in low- and low-middle-income countries include emergency and conflict, migration, trafficking for sex or other forms of labor, street-connectedness, being affected by the HIV/AIDS epidemic, and/or situations in which residential child care institutions are seen as solutions to address household poverty, parental neglect and abuse of children, lack of education access, or parenting challenges (Wedge 2013, Ismayilova et al. 2014, Irwanto and Kusumaningrum 2014, Roby 2011).

In 2009, United Kingdom-based NGO EveryChild estimated that the number of children without parental care potentially exceeded 24 million globally (2009).⁷ While two of the most important globally-implemented and nationally-representative survey mechanisms for collecting data related to population, health, nutrition, and well-being, USAID's Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) and UNICEF's Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS), aim to collect household-level data on living arrangements, these surveys currently cover only children living in the surveyed households, not children missing from those households. These surveys also do not identify primary caregivers and their relationships to children and are hampered by non-uniform

⁷ This calculation was based on worldwide estimates of the numbers of children in institutions, trafficked children, children who have lost both parents, and children in detention.

reporting of indicators (including sometimes dropping indicators on living arrangements and survivorship of children’s biological parents) (Roby 2011, Martin and Zulaika 2014).⁸ There is an incompletely-counted child population outside of family care, about which not enough is known.

UNICEF (2009) estimates that there are at least two million children, and probably many more, living in child care facilities. Not all governments report data on children in residential care (such as orphanages or juvenile detention facilities), and those that do may not be able to or may chose not to collect information for all public and private institutions (Engle et al. 2011). In addition to children in residential care, there are large numbers of other children outside of protective family care, including, for example, tens of thousands of children who are associated with armed forces or armed groups, some portion of the estimated 17.2 million children in domestic service with third parties or employers (International Labor Organization 2013), some portion of the estimated 100 million children who live and/or work on the street, an estimated 1.8 million children who are victims of sex trafficking, and an estimated 1.1 million children who are trafficked for forced labor (Boothby, Balster et al. 2012). The fact that the statistical proportion of households from which children leave family care entirely, as opposed to living with extended family members, is quite small can make it challenging to find and support these children.⁹

In a background paper prepared for the 2012 US Government Evidence Summit on Protecting Children Outside of Family Care, Boothby, Balster and colleagues (2012) observe that while children without family care often experience multiple vulnerabilities, programming to address children’s vulnerabilities tends to “divide children into different issue areas based on categories of vulnerability, survival, poverty, and child rights” (p. 744), which can be an inefficient use of resources. This situation reflects the related issues of scarce funding and the need or desire to respond to exigencies in the context of resource limitation, limited donor coordination, and the distinct orientations that practitioners in different fields bring to the table (Boothby et al. 2012, Boothby, Balster, et al. 2012). In some situations, this programming is performed by local and international nongovernmental actors, with limited government oversight, involvement, or coordination.

Concurrent with the somewhat fragmented programming approaches referenced above is a growing commitment of states and other actors to the development of child protection systems that include “the set of laws, policies, regulations, and services needed across all social sectors—especially social welfare, education, health, security, and justice—to support prevention and response to protection-related risks” for all children (United Nations Children’s Fund Executive Board 2008). A brief review of the global framework and service delivery

⁸ There is currently interagency advocacy and discussion aimed at improving collection and analysis of data related to child care through these surveys. See, for example, documentation of the Better Care Network and Child Protection in Crisis Network State of the Evidence on Children’s Care Symposium available at <http://www.bettercarenetwork.org/BCN/KeyInitiatives.asp>.

⁹ Roby (2011), for example, finds that the vast majority of children in informal care live within their extended family network and that a critical mass is with their grandparents and even in countries with large residential care populations, it seems that only a tiny fraction of the child population may be in such care (John Williamson, personal communication).

models for support to children without parental care or at risk of losing parental care is useful in underlining the broader outcomes that ES interventions are intended to facilitate and in understanding the context of support for these children—more fully developed in some countries than in others, and only aspirational in some—in which these interventions take place.

Global Guidelines for Alternative Care of Children

The Convention on the Rights of the Child asserts a child’s right to protection from harm and to grow up in a nurturing family environment, establishes the right of the child not to be separated from his or her parents unless it is in his or her best interest, and articulates the duty of states to protect children’s rights, undertake special protections for children without family care, provide alternative care placement, and monitor children in care. This duty is further elaborated in the non-binding *Guidelines for Alternative Care of Children*, which spell out the responsibilities of the state to support parents not to relinquish care of a child (via counseling and social support, which may include economic support); identify through professional means and support alternative care placements for children who need them; protect child-headed households; and undertake actions to prevent the need for alternative care by addressing the root causes of family separation (United Nations 2010).

The *Guidelines for Alternative Care of Children* reflect respect for two key principles: the principle of necessity (being sure that alternative care is truly needed) and the principle of suitability (if alternative care is required, ensuring that the care provided is appropriate). Respect for these principles should guide actors toward reducing the perceived need for alternative care, discouraging recourse to alternative care, ensuring that formal alternative care settings meet minimum standards, and ensuring that the care setting meets the needs of the child (Cantwell et al. 2012).¹⁰ Recommended actions in support of these principles include such steps as implementing interventions to prevent the separation of children from parental care, ensuring gatekeeping functions to avoid unnecessary placement of children in alternative care, and ensuring that funding systems do not facilitate unnecessary separation of children or retention of children in alternative care. This might include providing full access to basic services outside of care settings and establishing oversight of care settings, and placing gatekeeping functions in the hands of qualified professionals able to assess the appropriateness of care settings for children.

A companion piece, *Moving Forward: Implementing the ‘Guidelines for Alternative Care of Children’* (Cantwell et al. 2012) was developed to explain the *Guidelines* to concerned actors and outline needed policy responses. It identifies three levels of preventing separation of

¹⁰ The *Guidelines for Alternative Care of Children* identify two basic types of alternative care: care in an existing family (kinship care, foster care, and other family-based care outside a foster care service) and residential care in a variety of other settings (such as “family-like” care in small group settings, emergency shelters, and large residential facilities). Cantwell and colleagues (2012) highlight a somewhat fuzzy distinction between residential facilities and institutions, the latter of which are seen as often harmful to children, as much for a culture that may isolate children from the outside world and fail to nurture children’s individuality or address their psychological and emotional needs as for their often large size.

children from family care.

- The **primary level of prevention** is aimed at enabling parents to care for their children and is supported by ensuring access to basic services, social justice, and human rights, often targeting root causes of vulnerability and family separation through “policies and actions with general application to tackle societal factors that can lead a parent to abandon or relinquish a child. These wide-ranging measures include strategies to combat poverty, discrimination, and stigmatization, to change attitudes toward disability and single parenthood, and to adopt social policies promoting family empowerment and parenting skills” (p. 54).
- The **secondary level of prevention** for children and families especially at risk, and for whom primary prevention measures may not have been adequate, involves individual counseling and tailored family support, and may involve investigating potential alternative care arrangements with relatives. Economic support at this level might include financial assistance and income generation opportunities. This level of prevention often poses challenges in terms of the trained human resources and financial resources required to respond to cases of children referred for intervention, identify children/families at risk, and address their needs.
- The **tertiary level of prevention** addresses situations in which separation is unavoidable and aims at supporting conditions that enable a child’s return to family; it involves a careful assessment of the family to determine whether a return is appropriate and if the problems leading to placement in alternative care have been resolved, and of the child’s attachments and wishes. It also involves careful and participatory preparation for the child’s return and follow-up support to the family.

Approaches to Case Management and Social Work

Much of the work to support states’ obligations under the *Guidelines for Alternative Care of Children* falls under the scope of what is considered social work, whether directly implemented by the state or through other means. An EveryChild review of social work practices in resource poor countries identifies and describes four broad approaches that occur most commonly in the literature and briefly references other approaches that may be useful, bulleted below (EveryChild 2012). The authors observe that models for social work support vary by—and should be appropriate to—the context and suggest that actors should be open to innovation and lesser-used strategies that might be more effective.

- The “**traditional**” **case work model** in social welfare utilizes trained and qualified social workers who directly provide or purchase services (followed in South Africa, Bulgaria, Romania, and Ukraine). Although not specifically referenced in the review, provision of services is likely to include linking/referral to economic assistance such as government grants and workforce services and related services through the private and nonprofit sectors.
- In the **case management model**, social worker case managers are involved in

assessment and overall management of the care plan and its outcomes, while services are contracted out. A number of Central and Eastern Europe/Commonwealth of Independent States countries, including Lithuania, Romania, Kazakhstan, and Bulgaria, aspire to this model, although implementation is limited and work needs to be done to establish the market framework.

- In a variety of **community engagement approaches**, social work engages with community mechanisms to ensure children's needs are met rather than working with individual children. For example, social workers connected with state or local authorities might collaborate with local child protection mechanisms to identify families to be targeted with economic assistance or other assistance, monitor children's well-being, or identify foster care, as in South Africa, Kenya, Sierra Leone, and Namibia.
- In **social protection programs that involve income or consumption transfers**, social workers provide some kind of "accompaniment" to families in a program. In Chile, for example, social workers accompany families and monitor progress on "contracts" in a conditional cash transfer program; in Moldova, social workers support vulnerable families who receive six months of support aimed at increasing access to services and household income. The authors of the review observe that a potentially positive aspect of engaging social workers in social protection is that it connects them to responses to the structural issues of poverty and social inclusion that many government responses to children without parental care do not address. Potentially negative aspects include time-intensive involvement of social workers in the administration of the cash benefit, sometimes to the detriment of other support and care functions, and the risk that scarce resources may be diverted from direct support to children who need it to cash transfers and the cash transfer process.
- Other approaches may be appropriate in some situations, such as strengthening families in contexts where kinship care is common (rather than focusing on the case management of the child), enabling clients to select and buy services they feel are appropriate to their needs, and using community-based rehabilitation models that recognize disability as a social issue to develop services for children with disabilities.

While the models above demonstrate a diversity of approaches, one of the commonalities that they share is the role that formal or informal social workers can play, among their multiple functions, in linking families to economic supports and services. The Better Care Network's recent guidance document *The Role of Social Service Workforce in Care Reform* states that the process of care reform includes strengthening preventive and family support services and helping to change attitudes in the social service workforce about the care of children, along with developing alternative services, reducing reliance on residential care, and reintegrating children in family care (Better Care Network and Global Social Service Workforce Alliance 2015). This social service workforce includes a diverse set of formal and informal workers that help the social service system function and contribute to supporting children. To this end, in some contexts, members of the social service workforce might benefit from stronger links with economic services and workers and a better and more nuanced understanding of how to invest

in and leverage economic opportunities to assist families.

The Role of Social Service Workforce in Care Reform also stresses the importance of allied workers, such as actors in the legal system, teachers, and health workers, who also have a role to play in children's protection and well-being and supporting child care reform (Better Care Network and Global Social Service Workforce Alliance 2015).¹¹ While this document does not explicitly include workers in HES programs as allied workers connected to the social service system, it seems logical to think of them in this group when programming focuses on vulnerable children, with implications for their training/professional preparation, how they conceptualize their work, and how they strategize to address economic, and potentially other, drivers of family-child separation.

This section of the paper has described children outside of family care and the contexts in which they are found; reviewed the global frameworks guiding their protection and care and overarching strategies for preventing unnecessary family-child separation; and briefly summarized mechanisms for providing protection and care. It suggests that strengthening formal and informal social service worker knowledge about, and links to, appropriate economic supports and services and considering workers in HES programs as allied with the social service system (and preparing them appropriately) could improve the quality and relevance of HES interventions linked to prevention of family-child separation and reintegration of children in family care. The next section considers the multiplicity of conditions or factors that are thought to contribute to family-child separation.

WHAT ARE THE CAUSES OF FAMILY-CHILD SEPARATION?

The causes of family separation appear to be complex and may vary by setting. In low- and middle-income contexts, poverty often combines with other conditions to separate families. The decision to separate may be made by parents or other family members, children may make this decision themselves, or external events (such as conflict or a natural disaster) may intervene (Wedge 2013). This section discusses conditions or factors associated with family-child separation; while poverty is one factor, it is generally not the only one.

Family for Every Child's 2013 conceptual framework identifies a number of common factors that can lead to family-child separation (Delap 2013). These factors include poverty; violence, abuse

¹¹ *The Role of Social Service Workforce in Care Reform* provides a useful overview of care reform, defined as "the changes to the systems and mechanisms that promote and strengthen the capacity of families and communities to care for their children, address the care and protection needs of vulnerable or at-risk children to prevent separation from their families, and ensure appropriate family-based care options are available" (Better Care Network and Global Social Service Workforce Alliance 2015, p. 47). It states that this process requires the engagement and collaboration of a diverse set of actors to inform policy, build awareness, link service providers to change processes, build capacity and support professionalization of the workforce, support and connect community-based family support mechanisms and services, research and assess strategies for workforce development and new care approaches, and engagement of parents and children. It also involves substantial public and donor investment of resources, the latter not only from bilateral and multilateral sources, but also from NGOs, foundations, and the faith-based community.

and neglect in the home, and drug or alcohol abuse; disability, death or physical or mental ill health of caregivers or children; adult migration; lack of access to quality education; conflict, climate change, and natural disasters; unwanted pregnancies, or/and pregnancy outside of marriage in settings where there is considerable stigma associated with this; remarriage, with children commonly being rejected by step families; lack of diversionary and non-custodial sentencing for children (which leads to children being placed in detention away from families); and cultural norms and values, such as stigma associated with disability or valuing collective or institutional care of children, which may support separation or affect the other factors identified (Delap 2013, p. 13).

The table below illustrates the variety of conditions that contribute to children’s placement in formal care. It was developed using information from recent reports (cited in the note to the table below) addressing children in residential care. It should be noted that not all of the reports reviewed intended to provide a complete list of all conditions contributing to decisions to place children in care and that they did not use a common list of these conditions, so there is some overlap and variation in the conditions listed. That said, the information extracted from the reports suggests that reasons for placement of children in residential care are fairly consistent with factors Family for Every Child identifies as related to risk of separation (EveryChild 2009, Delap 2013). Most reports suggest that the majority of children in residential care are not double orphans (i.e., children whose parents are both deceased) and that multiple reasons may have contributed to children’s placement in care. Poverty is often cited as a common factor, but tends not to be unpacked in these reports in a nuanced way (for example, it might mean lack of income, lack of assets, and/or debt burden) in contrast with the more detailed social and demographic factors.

Table 2. Reasons for Placement of Children in Residential Care in Nine Countries

Reasons for Placement in Care*	Rwanda	Uganda	Ghana	Malawi	Madagascar	Cambodia	Indonesia	Moldova	Bosnia and Herzegovina
Poverty	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Abandonment	✓	✓			✓				
Inadequate shelter/insecure housing			✓						✓
Death of parent(s)	✓		✓		✓				
Death of breadwinner				✓	✓				
Single parent household						✓	✓	✓	✓
Reconstituted household (e.g., following divorce, remarriage/new partnership)			✓		✓	✓			
Migrant parent(s)			✓			✓		✓	
Incarcerated parent	✓								
Elderly caregiver	✓								
No kinship support available						✓			

Violence, abuse, neglect of child/children in household, conflict in household	✓	✓		✓				✓	
Caregivers face challenges in managing children's behavior			✓				✓	✓	
Parent abuse of drugs or alcohol								✓	
Death of a child						✓			
Disability of child or in household				✓	✓				
Illness/mental illness in household, HIV/AIDS	✓								✓
Several children in household							✓		✓
Children are affected by harmful traditional practices/stigma**	✓				✓				
Children lack access to education, education available is of poor quality				✓	✓	✓			
Child illness or malnutrition	✓								
Child in conflict with the law				✓					
Recruitment by care center or "pulling effect" of institutions because they are present	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓		

* Conditions and information were drawn from a review of the following sources (EveryChild (2009), Sofovik et al. (2012), Adefrsew et al. (2011), Guntzberger et al. (2013), Banos Smith (2014a, 2014b), Republic of Rwanda Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion and Children (2012), Walakira et al. (2014), Roelen and Chettri (2014), Republic of Malawi Ministry of Gender and UNICEF (2011), Kingdom of Cambodia Ministry of Social Affairs, Veterans and Youth Rehabilitation (2011), Irwanto and Kusumaningrum (2014).

** References to harmful traditional practices included stigma of disability, stigma of being twins, stigma related to HIV/AIDS status of child or parent.

Children who are separated from their families or at risk of separation tend to experience more than one risk factor at the same time. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, for example, UK-based NGO Hope and Homes for Children found that the children it served experienced between one and 12 risk factors, with the largest number of children experiencing five to six risks (Sofovik et al. 2012). An evaluation of UK-based charity Retrak's programming to reintegrate street children in Uganda and Ethiopia found three reasons that often combined to lead children to the streets: family breakdown, family inability to provide well for children, and abuse of children's rights (often violence) in the household (Adefrsew et al. 2011). Researching the reintegration of street-connected girls in Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Guntzberger found that the girls often came from a single-parent household experiencing economic deprivation, but that girls felt that feeling loved, wanted, and welcome was more important than material conditions (Guntzberger et al. 2013). In Nepal, child domestic workers and their parents cited poverty (related to lack of land or business ownership, too many children, and absence of a primary breadwinner), desire for a good education, and, to a lesser extent, violence in the home as reasons to respond to the "pull" of opportunities to work in urban domestic service (Banos Smith 2014b).

It is difficult to place conditions that contribute to family-child separation in a taxonomy. Some contributing conditions may be drivers of poverty or consequences of it, some have to do with household relationships and dynamics that may or may not be exacerbated by poverty, and

some are situational. Program experience suggests that reintegration of children in family care is likely to fail if the root causes of separation are not addressed, and that successful strategies require multiple interventions and long-term follow-up support at the family level (Cantwell et al. 2012, Mann 2014, Sofovik et al. 2012, Wedge 2013, Chaffin and Kalyanpur 2014). The literature surveyed includes limited discussion of root causes; the implication is that these may be very individual and that responses must be tailored and likely involve more than ES support alone, although in many cases economic intervention is warranted. Tailoring this support would benefit from detailed understanding of family/household economic well-being and capacities.

The following section describes interagency learning related to good practices in reintegrating children in family care. It then offers more detailed descriptions of programming to address family-child separation in diverse contexts.

PROGRAMMING TO PREVENT SEPARATION AND REINTEGRATE CHILDREN—PROGRAM EXAMPLES

As noted previously, governments in a number of low- and low-middle-income countries are taking steps to conceptualize and develop comprehensive approaches to care for children, often with the support of UNICEF and international and national NGOs. At the same time, resourcing and programming to prevent family-child separation and support reintegration often have a narrower focus on particular issues and/or categories of children, such as children in residential care, children living or working on the streets, children associated with armed forces or armed groups, children affected by emergencies, trafficked children, migrant children, and working children.¹² Much of this work is implemented by NGO actors. This section of the paper first describes learning that is informing an interagency initiative to develop cross-contextual guidance for reintegrating children in family care. It then aims to give a more in-depth sense of NGO-implemented programs that support preventing separation and/or reintegrating children in family care and the ways in which they incorporated HES interventions by describing programming to reintegrate children in family care or prevent their separation in contexts involving residential care, street involvement, emergencies, association with armed forces or armed groups, and trafficking and exploitative work.

Summarizing Experience with Reintegration Processes and Developing Guidance

¹² Learning under this ASPIRES project is likely to be of interest to and have some application for organizations that address these categories of concern. Annex A provides an illustrative list of projects funded by the US Government that address children separated from their families by emergencies, trafficked children, migrant children, children on the streets, working children, or children in institutions and that incorporate, or are likely to incorporate, some economic strengthening interventions. Actors range from governments to UN agencies, international organizations to multi-sectoral international NGOs to specialist organizations to small local organizations. Annex B provides an illustrative list of NGOs that work on the issue of child separation. These annexes give a rough idea of the volume and types of organizations that may find evidence related to HES and family-child separation useful to their work.

A focus on particular groups of children can support helpful technical program specialization that leads to targeted responses and that can help make programming more understandable to funders with an interest in vulnerable children or vulnerable groups. It can also lead to children being excluded from support and inhibit the spread of effective strategies, since researchers and practitioners who work with specific groups of children are often not aware of approaches used by others in working with different groups (Wedge 2013). Over the last several years, a number of interagency networks have formed to share information and good practice, engage in advocacy, and work on joint products related to this topic (see Annex C for an illustrative list of networks that collaborate on topics related to reintegrating children in family care and preventing separation).

A 2013 Interagency Group for Reintegration review, *Reaching for Home: Global Learning on Family Reintegration in Low- and Lower-Middle-Income Countries* (Wedge 2013), draws on a review of 77 documents, 31 responses to an online survey, and 19 key informant interviews to consolidate practitioner and academic learning about reintegrating different categories of separated children in their immediate or extended families of origin and communities and aims to serve as a basis on which to develop guidance that cuts across those categories. It outlines four stages in a lengthy reintegration process including:

- Decision making about the appropriateness of reintegration and development of a reintegration plan;
- Preparing the child, family, and

Box 1. Principles of Promising Practice for Reintegration Programs (Wedge 2013, pp. 5-6)

- **Respecting the individual's journey:** Involve children and families in establishing benchmarks; allow time and resources to achieve them.
- **Rights-based and inclusive programming:** Train staff on child rights and pay attention to neglected and/or poorly understood groups such as young offenders and children in residential care.
- **Gendered perspective:** Ensure awareness of and sensitivity to girls (e.g., sexual health, stigma, cultural gender biases) and be thoughtful about reintegration of sexually exploited boys.
- **Child participation:** Make reintegration decisions with children, not for children, and ensure staff have capacity to do this.
- **Holistic view of the child:** Take the range of factors that affect child well-being into consideration in developing reintegration programming (e.g., household economic security; legal identity; education, training, and employment; self-esteem and confidence; stigma and discrimination; spiritual, cultural, and religious connections; and exposure to violence, abuse, or neglect).
- **Standard operating procedures:** Develop agency SOPs consistent with national and global guidance.
- **Monitoring, reporting, and evaluation:** Develop effective systems that include strong record keeping, ethical data collection methods for use with children, and robust mechanisms to assess multiple components of child well-being.
- **Coordination and collaboration:** Articulate coordination needs and help catalyze government involvement in reintegration efforts, respect the specializations of other actors, and map local community as well as strategies to maximize its ability to support children.
- **Cultural and family sensitivity:** Ensure support strategies will address relevant issues by respecting local ways of knowing and doing and involve local stakeholders in planning for reintegration.
- **Local ownership:** Tap into social and financial resources of the community around the child and create measures of success with local actors—reintegration is a social process.
- **Long-term investment:** Ensure dedication, consistency, and quality of reintegration support through investment of time, funding, and resources.

community for a child's reintegration (where ES interventions might, but generally do not, come into play);

- Facilitating carefully planned reunification; and
- Providing multi-dimensional follow-up support (during which period ES interventions are more likely to take place).

Reaching for Home proposes a series of principles of promising practices for reintegration programs (see Box 1). It finds that prevention-of-separation-related work within the context of reintegration programs seeks to prevent returned children's re-separation more than attempting to prevent new cases of family-child separation. It suggests that a broader focus on prevention of separation is constrained by lack of funding and challenges in quantifying outcomes that appeal to funders, since prevention work often involves policy-change advocacy and community awareness-raising activities. Similarly, other commentators have found limited evidence, or learning, related to best practices in preventing children's separation from their families in low- and low-middle-income countries in the literature in general, and less on HES interventions relating to the topic (Boothby et al. 2012, Marcus and Page 2014, EveryChild 2012).

Participants in a recent symposium on HES and reintegration highlighted the need to better understand the positive factors that help keep families together; the symposium report (Mattingly 2015) suggests that parent education level (Akwara et al. 2010), positive emotional state (for example, confidence because of having employment) (Roelen 2015), existence of formal or informal social safety nets, strong links to the social protection system (Roelen 2015), and access to child care (Rotaru 2015) may have a positive influence on family-child unity.

The following subsections aim to provide a clearer picture of what programs to prevent family-child separation or reintegrate children in family care involve. The NGO program examples provided were identified through an online search of gray literature. They were selected to illustrate programming related to different geographies and to different categories of children of concern and because their documentation reflected an effort to assess program effectiveness as well as to describe programming. Although these descriptions do not offer clear or rigorous evidence of what successful ES interventions are, why they are successful, and how they compare to other interventions, they do illuminate program contexts, provide indications of the kinds of interventions that agencies use to address perceived needs and contribute to learning about how the ES interventions used fit into the programs and program successes and challenges.

Programs to Prevent or Limit Placement of Children in Residential Care and Reintegrate Children from Residential Care into Family Care

NGO programs focused on preventing or limiting placement of children in residential care facilities and reintegrating children from them into family care are often part of national care reform agendas that seek to address children's right to family care (Better Care Network and Global Social Services Workforce Alliance 2014, Frimpong-Manso 2014, Walakira et al. 2014), prevent harms to children associated with institutional care (Dozier et al. 2012, Walakira et al.

2014, Ismayilova et al. 2014), and realign government and other financial resources to support families through closing institutions or changing their purposes (Greenberg and Partskhaladze 2014). Research on the costs of institutional care suggests that the cost of institutional care exceeds that of community residential homes, foster care, and providing support to vulnerable families (Engle et al. 2011). Significant progress in reducing the number of children in care has been made in Moldova (Better Care Network and Global Social Services Workforce Alliance 2014, EveryChild and Partnerships for Every Child Moldova 2013), Romania (Opening Doors for Europe's Children), and Georgia (Greenberg and Partskhaladze 2014). Deinstitutionalization programs can falter when political will is lacking, root causes of separation (such as poverty, unemployment, and drug and alcohol abuse) are not addressed, gatekeeping to limit unnecessary entry into care is inadequate, employees of child care institutions resist the change, community-based services do not exist, and private residential facilities are allowed to proliferate (Ismayilova et al. 2014, Kingdom of Cambodia Ministry of Social Affairs, Veterans and Youth Rehabilitation 2011, Bilson and Cox 2007).

In Bosnia and Herzegovina (Sofovik et al. 2012) and Romania (Eurochild 2012), UK-based NGO Hope and Homes for Children has piloted a successful model for prevention of family separation, in support of the government deinstitutionalization strategy. It asserts that this model can be used by governments on a large scale or by other organizations on a smaller one to prevent unnecessary separation and to support reintegration of children in family care. Family assessment and focused, time-bound supportive program interventions provided over an average of seven months align with six domains—living conditions, family and social relationships, behavior, physical and mental health, education, employment, and household economy. Caseworkers and families develop and monitor family plans together. In Romania, Hope and Homes also supported local authorities to develop a range of supportive services for children and parents. Families at risk of separation are referred to these programs by government agencies or community entities. The Bosnia and Herzegovina program reports that 88 percent of families supported under the program since 2006 had maintained or improved their situation 12 months after case closure.

Economic support related to HES in the Hope and Homes model emphasizes timely assistance to support families at risk of separation and incentives to reduce dependence on residential care. It can include assistance to make home repairs, purchase and transportation of household goods like furniture and appliances, payment of rent and/or household bills for a limited period, purchase of consumables such as food and/or firewood, assistance in purchase of medicines, purchase of school supplies and educational toys, support to access state benefits and health services, assistance to understand budgeting and saving, support to increase household income, and assistance in finding employment. Programs in both Bosnia and Romania found the need to use agency resources to support some immediate financial and consumption needs of families; although governments in both countries had social assistance programs available to vulnerable families, these programs were sometimes challenging for families to access and in both countries authorities lacked resources to address immediate financial needs.

In Bulgaria, international NGO Habitat for Humanity has implemented a project intended to help prevent separation of children in at-risk families by providing small, interest-free home improvement loans to ameliorate substandard living conditions (Eurochild 2012). Eligible families must be identified as at-risk of separation and referred by local social workers or fall under Habitat's established income criteria, have a regular (if small) income enabling loan repayment, and be willing to invest substantial time in repairing their own homes and assisting other community members in the same. Volunteer selection committees, which can include members of partner NGOs, social workers, mayors, financial specialists, and community development center personnel, review potential beneficiaries. Habitat provides financial education training and links with other partners to enable access to reproductive health services, health education, school mediators, local community centers, and basic life skills and employability training (such as how to fill in forms, write a resume, and look for a job). The program faces some challenges as it tries to balance family need with the risk of non-payment of the loan; clear and transparent communication is essential to manage expectations and ensure that requirements are clear. Financial education training is identified as a particularly successful component of the project, as is the element of family responsibility.

In Uganda, the UK- and Uganda-based Child's i Foundation (CiF) has developed a model for the resettlement of children received in Malaika Babies' Home, tracing birth parents/families and developing a local model for permanent alternative care (Walakira et al. 2014). CiF aims to transition babies into a family within four months, since children under three are most likely to suffer damage in institutional care. It reports that it has been able to reach this target in 62 percent of cases and has succeeded in 84 percent of the cases within six months. Disrupted placement occurred in five of 64 cases because of caregiver illness or alcohol abuse or rejection and/or abuse of the child by the caregiver or other family members. CiF's process involves assessment and pre-settlement visits before placement, social worker/family support worker monitoring of the placement for one to three years, and training and support to the family to ensure the sustainability of the placement. Economic support to families includes a "start-up package" for families with a cot or mattress, clothes for the family's children, seeds for food production (if needed), and baby formula. For further economic assistance, family-support workers can refer families to partner organizations for education sponsorship, income-generating activities, and health services; it is not clear what capacity CiF has to follow up these referral links. CiF is also working to promote domestic adoption for children who cannot be reintegrated in their birth families, and has worked with the government to establish an Alternative Care Panel that makes approval decisions about prospective adoptive parents.

CiF reports that costs for monitoring and support can be high, since children are placed around the country. The authors caution that though there is scope for nongovernment involvement in family reunification, actors need to be aware and prepared to support government agencies that may lack the capacity to fulfill their roles. CiF aims to shift its focus to community approaches, prevention, and family alternative care options, at least in part because these approaches are more cost-effective for organizations like CiF.

A series of newer programs funded by USAID/DCOF and implemented by NGOs are likely to produce new learning about HES in the context of national deinstitutionalization and care reform programs. The *Ishema Mu Muryango* project in Rwanda, implemented by Global Communities and Hope and Homes for Children in support of Rwanda's national care reform plan, has adapted a preexisting group savings and lending approach to enable the creation of these groups around families that are "welcoming" (or reintegrating) children who had been in institutions.¹³ Discussions with some beneficiaries showed that participants valued these groups for both their economic effects and the supportive social network members found in the groups (Laumann and Namey 2015). In Uganda, Child Fund and partners are in the initial stages of a USAID/DCOF-funded project that will include HES approaches in broader programming to reintegrate children in child-care institutions in family care and prevent unnecessary separation. Assessment work in this project will seek to capture information on children not living with their households and may produce useful learning on drivers of separation and identification of families at risk (Laumann and Namey 2015). Similar efforts by the International Rescue Committee (IRC) in Burundi, also funded by USAID/DCOF, are at an early stage and are likely to involve savings groups, cash and in-kind support and possibly health insurance, along with family strengthening interventions (communication with John Williamson, USAID/DCOF).¹⁴

Programs to Reintegrate Street Children in Family Care

Although poverty is often considered to be a root cause of children's living and working on the street, natural disasters, death of a parent, and violence in the home or community may also lead children toward the street (Thomas de Benitez 2011, Republic of South Africa Department of Social Development 2014), where they can experience a multitude of threats to their physical, emotional, and cognitive well-being and development and risk exploitation (Republic of South Africa Department of Social Development 2014). Programs for street children often involve education activities and vocational training to help them break out of poverty and avoid exploitative work, along with other life skills interventions, links to services, and support for reintegration in family care (Coren et al. 2013, Republic of South Africa Department of Social Development 2014). Programming increasingly reflects a child rights focus, including a recognition of children's agency and the importance of children's participation in program design and decisions about their futures (Retrak 2013, Coren et al. 2013).

In Uganda, UK NGO Retrak has been working with street children since 1994. A project funded by PEPFAR from late 2009 through 2011 aimed to support 650 boys to begin to transition from the streets and reintegrate 240 children into a family context, either with their biological families

¹³ In a related USAID/DCOF-funded project in support of child care reform and deinstitutionalization in Rwanda, called *Tubarerere Mu Muryango*, Rwanda's National Commission for Children and UNICEF and partners are developing policy, systems and social work staff capacity; reintegrating children in families and providing ongoing family support, including linking families with complementary social protection programs; strengthening community mechanisms; and seeking to transform orphanages into child-centered community-based services (communication with John Williamson, USAID/DCOF).

¹⁴ The IRC project will complement USAID/DCOF support to the Burundian government and UNICEF for the implementation of minimum standards on children in institutions or deprived of family care and to strengthen capacity for case management and family support.

or foster caregivers, and exceeded both targets (Adefrsew et al. 2011). Retrak conducted outreach to children on the streets to inform them about its program and invite them to its drop-in center. At the drop-in center, the boys could access medical services and receive referral for specialist care, participate in health and hygiene education, and participate in literacy and numeracy classes and catch-up education support, along with psychosocial services, including counseling, sports, and team games, and life skills classes. The drop-in center offered overnight shelter, and served as a place where children could build relationships with adults and be involved in household activities. Some of the children who wished to be reintegrated could do so directly from the drop-in center; others moved to a halfway home and training farm that offered a more structured environment in which children were assessed and supported to become better prepared for family life and to develop healthy attachments to adults, received medical care and counseling, and could participate in catch-up education, sports, and life skills activities and interact with the local community (Retrak 2012). Preparation also included six-weekly child care reviews, development of reintegration schedules, and pre-visits to allow children and families to discuss reintegration.

Retrak offered reintegrating children and families counseling and guidance and payment of fees for school or vocational training support, with the intention of continuing this support as long as needed or until the child becomes 18. Staff conducted face-to-face follow up of reintegrating children on a monthly basis, with additional phone follow up in some cases. Business training included an introduction to business skills, overview of business in the country, and sources of capital. Foster parents received a \$14 per month upkeep allowance, school materials, and consumable goods such as bedding, clothes for the fostered child and one other child in the family, toilet paper, and a Christmas incentive. The project's final evaluation found the project substantially successful, although challenges emerged in following up the cases of children scattered around the country. Retrak also found the need to strengthen the logic and quality of the ES component of the program in the face of severe poverty and concomitant tensions related to support that benefitted reintegrating children and not other children in the families.

Programs to Prevent Separation and Reintegrate Children in Family Care in Emergencies

In humanitarian settings, international actors coordinate to provide assistance to governments and populations; the Humanitarian Charter articulates the shared belief by signatory actors that “all people affected by disaster or conflict have a right to receive protection and assistance to ensure the basic conditions for life with dignity” (The Sphere Project 2011, p. 20). Humanitarian assistance is not intended to supplant the responsibilities of governments toward their people. Direct support to families in emergencies may include shelter and household goods, medical assistance, livelihoods assistance/programming to help families pay for basic needs, information and legal advice, tracing services, protection and security services, daycare, access to education/school, places for play, recreation, vocational training, and social work services. According to the *Alternative Care in Emergencies Toolkit* (Interagency Working Group on Separated and Unaccompanied Children 2013), this support should reach all families that need

it, in line with humanitarian standards, including those caring for separated children, and should avoid creating perverse incentives that lead to further separation of children.

In emergencies, child protection responders may need to quickly establish data collection, information management, coordination, and case management processes and other interventions to address the needs of large numbers of separated and unaccompanied children or other children facing child protection issues in contexts where existing service provision does not exist or is overwhelmed, and also act to prevent unnecessary separation of children from their families (Interagency Working Group on Separated and Unaccompanied Children 2013). Care options for separated children may include rapid reunification with parents or customary caregivers when appropriate, family-based care with kin or foster caregivers, supported child- and peer-headed households, and, for periods of not more than 12 weeks, residential care (Interagency Working Group on Separated and Unaccompanied Children 2013). Monitoring and case follow-up are parts of both temporary and longer term care, and determination about permanent placement should be made with the best interest of the child in mind. Family reunification should not be refused because of poverty, but economic assistance for it should be channeled so as to avoid creating jealousy or resentment on the part of other community members.

The Inter Agency Guidelines for Case Management & Child Protection (Child Protection Working Group 2014) stress the importance of establishing vulnerability criteria to help identify children who may be in need of protection; these criteria should be developed following an analysis of which children are experiencing risk, with input from multiple stakeholders, including children and families, and with a clear understanding of program context and related constraints, and of organizational capacity and expertise. When too many children are registered as needing case management support and cannot be helped, the system becomes weak and unaccountable, and may miss the children most at risk and confuse community members about the purpose of case management and capacity to manage cases. A comprehensive assessment of the child's situation should look at the child's development needs; parenting/caregiving capacity; social and cultural context; community and wider family influence; and economic factors such as poverty level of the family and living conditions, options and opportunities for the child in terms of education, vocational training and income generation to create viable employment options in the longer term.

This guidance recommends that development of emergency case management services, generally an interagency process, should seek to balance strengthening of the child protection system and dealing with children's immediate needs. It suggests that agencies build core skills and capacities that can continue to be used in evolving national and interagency systems, keep case management system components and procedures simple, and facilitate rapid interagency decision making so that timely action can be taken.

Evaluative descriptions of programs addressing separated and unaccompanied children in emergencies are difficult to find. Perhaps the most detailed and reflective document available

through online searching and outreach to agencies relates to IRC's work in post-genocide Rwanda; this report has strongly influenced subsequent work related to separated and unaccompanied children. In 1999, five years after the genocide, IRC initiated a process to find alternative placements for the difficult-to-trace/difficult-to-place caseload of unaccompanied children still residing in the transit center it managed in preparation for closing it. IRC was subsequently approached by the government of Rwanda to help close other centers (De Lay 2003). The report states that the process it documents facilitated 1,192 children to enter (or to be about to enter) family care and does not report on the durability of the reintegration. The process for tracing families and placing these children required that IRC develop approaches to working with centers whose staff and supporters were reluctant to see the centers close and to develop new documentation and tracing strategies and new strategies to handle case review, refused reunifications, cases of poverty, and support to families. In working with centers, IRC not only worked on child cases, but also provided economic support to center staff to help them find new sources of income; this support included referral to long-term assistance programs, training on development of business plans and bookkeeping, assistance with feasibility studies for new income opportunities, seed grants, and professional consultation.

IRC's new approach viewed reintegration as integral to reunification, sought to reach all children in the center, placed emphasis on families in the context of their communities and social support networks, provided support prior to reunification to reduce risk of reunification failure, and linked families receiving children with extended family and community support resources. It also sought to include children's input more thoroughly in the preparation, reunification, and reintegration process, for example, by being involved in planning, having opportunities to talk about their feelings, having avenues to maintain links with friends, and being consulted during follow-up visits and case closure. It developed new techniques for documenting and assessing socio-economic cases (where separation continued due to poverty) and for tracing families (including mobility mapping, increased use of radio tracing, and combining interview information, mobility maps, and photos to target locations and the field work to find families). To address the tension between the need to support reintegration and the recognition that its own capacity to provide follow-up support was limited, IRC used a sequential six-step process that involved:

- A family suitability and willingness survey evaluating the family on six criteria (extent of contact with the child, reasons for separation, feelings about potential reunification, family motivation for reunification, family perception of the impact of reintegration, and family vision for the future of the child);
- More in-depth family assessment using a social network assessment tool or mobility maps and flow diagrams¹⁵ and an economic assessment tool based on the Trickle Up program model that scored families against 12 criteria to help determine whether direct

¹⁵ Mobility maps, from a household head and a child perspective, helped to identify key social relationships and main economic activities that could be further explored in interviews. Flow diagrams allowed families to describe links to people or organizations that they would approach for help to address health, money, and emotional problems. Together, the tools provided information that assisted field workers with subsequent steps in the process.

financial assistance was needed and, given the family circumstances, the nature of support that would be appropriate;¹⁶

- A community round table to outline a reintegration plan for the child and identify sources of support;
- Finalization of the reintegration plan, including anticipated IRC support;
- Pre-reunification assistance, including links with social services, administrative support to help children access education, advocacy related to children's social benefits and inheritance, counseling, material assistance such as shelter materials and medical support, and economic activities via training (not clearly explained in the report, but probably small business training) and referral to local economic support from community credit funds, associations, or NGOs and, for limited cases, small grants or other special assistance;¹⁷ and
- Reunification of the child with the family, follow-up, and closure of the case when pre-established criteria are satisfied.

Programs to Reintegrate Children Associated with Armed Forces and Armed Groups

Programs that support children associated with armed forces or armed groups aim to help children navigate multiple challenges as they transition to civilian life. These challenges can relate to their health and physical well-being, psychological and behavioral issues, social relationships and community attitudes and behaviors that potentially lead to social isolation, lack of education or interrupted education, loss of family, and often the need for income, whether earned by the family reintegrating the child or by the child him- or herself (IPEC and de Conick 2011, Chrobok and Akutu 2008, Gielesen 2006). A limited body of research suggests that war experiences and difficult transition to civilian life can increase these children's mental health risks and risk of re-recruitment and other types of exploitation (Jordans et al. 2012, Betancourt et al. 2010). Some of the factors that have been associated with successful reintegration include, as appropriate to the situation, community sensitization, cleansing rituals, transitional periods in interim care centers, religious support, psychosocial counseling, family mediation, and skills and vocational training, along with efforts to address particular issues faced by girls (Jordans et al. 2012).

Reintegration programs for children associated with armed forces and armed groups are generally implemented by child protection agencies, take an inclusive, community-based

¹⁶ The criteria included number of meals per day, land ownership, levels of income, number of children attending school, vulnerability of head of household, shelter, household assets, education levels, clothing, family health and nutrition, and social status. Scores against these criteria were analyzed to classify families as poor, very poor and destitute. Assistance for poor families might include referrals to economic support networks and small business training, while for very poor families it might include project identification, small business training, provision of grant money, and/or referrals to local credit sources. Assistance to destitute families might include land acquisition, animal acquisition, referral to charitable organizations, and other special assistance.

¹⁷ The report does not describe the duration of training, whether post-training support was provided or whether referrals were followed up.

approach that includes other vulnerable children, and promote community acceptance of returning children (IPEC and de Conick 2011). Program elements typically include family tracing and reunification, psychosocial support, special care (for children who need specialized assistance), education, and, for older children and children unable to go to or stay in school, vocational training and income-generating projects (IPEC and de Conick 2011, Gielesen 2006). The available gray literature makes little reference to ES support provided to caregivers of returning children; Gielesen (2006, p. 43) notes that targeted reinsertion benefits, such as cash support, may be seen as “rewarding the perpetrators of violence rather than as an investment in peace and reconciliation,” but also stresses that economically supporting families to reintegrate these children may be a necessary element in enabling them to access other community-based reintegration services, preventing exploitation, and inhibiting re-recruitment. Reintegration activities may balance improvements sought in children’s lives with the risks of creating perverse incentives that might entice other children to join armed groups in the hopes of then receiving demobilization benefits (Pauletto and Patel 2010).

IPEC and de Conick (2011) highlight the complexities inherent in designing programming to support the economic reintegration of children associated with armed forces or armed groups: typically, these children and young people have low levels of education or vocational skills training, no prior work experience, and problems associated with their past experience such as trauma or risky behaviors. At the same time, as minors, they cannot be involved in hazardous work and may not be able to access microcredit or other services. They may be competing with adults for the same jobs post-demobilization. While child protection agencies usually implement release and reintegration programs for these children, they often lack expertise in economic programming, in contrast with organizations involved in disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration programs for adults. Training programs have sometimes been poorly linked to market needs and of insufficient duration to develop skills sufficient to enable trainees to compete in the market. IPEC and de Conick argue that economic reintegration programs for young people should be linked to market demand, build on existing skills, stimulate young people to combine work with evening education, better address specific needs (such as those of girls and disabled people), offer longer term support, and be embedded in broader economic development plans and programs (2011).

In the Democratic Republic of Congo, international NGO Save the Children began to implement demobilization and reintegration programs for former child soldiers in 1999. In World Bank-funded projects between 2003 and 2006, Save the Children and partner organizations aimed to reintegrate 4,500 demobilized boys and girls and indirectly benefit an additional 3,500 vulnerable children (DAI 2007). They verified family tracing results for demobilized children, coordinated transportation logistics with the referring agency, received the demobilized children, reunited them with their families, and implemented activities to support the children’s reintegration in their families and communities. This programming took place in three provinces; in each province, one or more offices supported project activities, one or more transit centers provided shelter and care for transitioning children, and community child protection networks provided support for and monitoring of children and families. An additional element of the project

involved identifying ways disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR) programming could more effectively reach girls associated with armed forces or armed groups, who might not self-identify as combatants but rather as military wives, might be seen by military officials as possessions of male combatants and not child soldiers to be demobilized, or who may fear stigma as girls who have lost their value in society or who may be carrying communicable diseases (Verhey 2004).

An evaluation of the generally successful project noted the challenges it faced with a growing reintegration caseload and the need to provide follow-up in remote and often insecure locations, with follow-up provided by numerous local partners with good knowledge of local areas but limited training and sometimes narrow technical focuses (DAI 2007). It also reported a growing interest in family-based transitional care and day programs for transitioning children; this approach could be less expensive than running 24-hour a day transit centers and also allowed children to leave the monotony of transit centers and meet new people. Ensuring adequate time for preparing children and families appeared as an important topic, as did support for “self-demobilized” children not coming through the official demobilization process, making programming accessible to and useful for girls (by offering small-scale activities that lead to quick income generation, helping girls re-establish value in society, and supporting negotiation with families for care), developing approaches appropriate to different age groups, and having a clearer “roadmap” for the reintegration phase, including being better prepared for reintegration activities to avoid delays.

Save the Children’s community-based approach aimed to reduce stigmatization of demobilized children and conflicts related to their reintegration by involving other vulnerable children in activities and strengthening community child protection networks. Reintegrating children could select to participate in a reintegration path supported by the project: pre-professional training in fields such as carpentry, sewing, hair dressing, and masonry for three to eight months, followed by income-generating activities supported by microcredit and start-up kits for the children/young people completing the pre-professional training; primary or secondary school support for one year; and community activities such as youth clubs or girls’ clubs that could include literacy and numeracy training, health-related training, sports, and similar activities. Indigent families accessing the education support referenced above and who could not pay school fees following the end of project support were linked to income generation and microcredit activities intended to help them afford their children’s continued education. The project supported schools that accepted demobilized and other vulnerable children with materials for repair and maintenance. The evaluation report does not specify whether the project conducted market assessments to identify the content of pre-professional training, or identify the mechanisms through which families or children could access income generation support or microcredit. Further online searching did not identify additional information.

Programs to Prevent and Respond to Separation of Children due to Trafficking and Exploitation

Programming to prevent and respond to trafficking and exploitation of children takes place in the context of a diversity of root causes and push and pull factors, and in the absence of standards for judging program effectiveness (Asquith and Turner 2008). Assessments in UNICEF's East Asia and Pacific region suggest a number of factors at multiple levels that contribute to making children vulnerable to trafficking, including individual factors (such as experiences of violence or abuse, dropping out of school, life skills, living on the street, lack of citizenship and/or personal documentation, and desire for adventure), family-related factors (such as family breakdown, domestic violence, substance abuse, status and role of children, and lack of access to information about rights, services, and access to safe work), socio-economic factors (such as poverty, lack of education access for children and viable employment opportunities for adults, wage differentials and lack of labor protection, discrimination, consumerist culture, and tensions and armed conflict), and demand factors (such as demand for child labor, demand for sex with children, demand for adoption, and demand for young brides) (UNICEF East Asia and Pacific Regional Office 2009). UNICEF suggests that key dimensions of programming include prevention, protection, and empowerment of child victims and children at risk (UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre 2008). Support to reintegrating children should include short- and long-term support measures, support to families and communities, supportive networks connected to child-friendly services, life skills activities that build children's self-esteem and help children make informed decisions, and support to assist children to become financially independent, including education, vocational training, income-generating schemes, and enrollment in social protection programs (Asquith and Turner 2008, UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre 2008, UNICEF East Asia and Pacific Regional Office 2009, Delaney 2012).

In Indonesia, Save the Children used an assets-based community engagement approach to identify and reinforce household practices that successfully reduced the flow of girls into commercial sex work (Singhal and Dura 2010).¹⁸ In the initial project location, civil servants, a local NGO, and community members mapped the village and identified households where girls were missing, households they felt were most at risk for trafficking, and areas where suspected traffickers held influence. They also identified families that protected their daughters from sexual exploitation, despite sharing characteristics with families that did not, and identified positive practices used by girls and families that diverted girls from entry into the sex industry. The community then decided to widely promote positive family practices, given the influential role of parents in deciding whether or not girls could leave the village for work. These family practices

¹⁸ To start the project, Save the Children used the positive deviance approach, which helps groups find solutions to problems by identifying and learning from the uncommon behaviors of people or groups who have similar resources and face the same challenges. The approach involves six steps: defining the problem, perceived causes, related behavioral norms, and what a successful outcome would look like; identifying individuals or families in the community who demonstrate the successful outcome; learning what uncommon practices/behaviors they engage in that help them achieve the outcome; designing and implementing an intervention that helps others engage in the same behaviors; determining the effectiveness of the intervention; and making the intervention more widely accessible. Information on the positive deviance approach is available at www.positivedeviance.org.

included:

- Engaging in a variety of income-generating activities (diversifying income sources);
- Helping daughters to establish a small business to supplement family income;
- Openly discussing with children the risks of working in the “entertainment industry” and supporting looking at other opportunities;
- Emphasizing the value of both formal and non-formal education to their daughters;
- Allowing daughters to work outside the village after carefully investigating employers and the nature of the work; and
- Requiring daughters to report home regularly by letters and phone if they took work outside the village.

These practices were shared via community meeting and a community action plan was developed. Community watch committees formed to monitor brokers and traffickers and map girls’ migration flow. An anti-trafficking campaign included engaging families to spread messages based on positive practices and to act as role models. ES activities, in addition to the life skills and behavior change practices promoted through messaging, included efforts by community leaders to create economic opportunities for women and girls through increased access to government programs aimed at stimulating small business development and increasing income-related skills. Agriculture programming aimed at increasing productivity and crop diversity included training on crop rotation, cash crops, and marketing and distributing value-added products such as banana chips. Building on this initial experience, Save the Children expanded its anti-trafficking programming to reach five East Java districts known as “sending” districts for trafficking.

In 2012, Nepali NGO CWISH, which works with child domestic workers to help ensure they are paid, have contact with their families, and have access to education and other forms of support, began to work toward reintegrating those children in their program who expressed a desire to return home. A qualitative review of the program found that most children had entered domestic service encouraged by parents who felt unable to pay for the good education they desired for them (Banos Smith 2014b). Most of the children included in the study were girls, and the author explains that the high proportion of girls involved in domestic work is explained by gender norms that identify household work as women’s work. CWISH followed a process that involved a 12–16 week preparation period that included group and individual counseling for children to help them think about their current situation and their lives when they lived with their families, tracing families and doing some long-distance preparation with them by phone, supporting some legal action if appropriate if a child’s rights had been infringed, and developing a care plan—in some consultation with the child—to address how the child will be reintegrated and the support and resources needed. Following reunification, CWISH follows the case for up to two years and serves as mediator between stakeholders/agencies connected to the process, such as schools, child welfare boards, local NGOs, or the child’s employer.

Children and their families reported receiving economic support during the reintegration

process, most commonly school books and school uniforms, but also school fees, costs for transportation home, and money from employers and extended family. Interviews with children and family members did not indicate this support came from CWISH. Families did not seem aware of economic support to which they might be entitled because of the program, although the majority of parents interviewed indicated that they needed general financial support as well as help with education costs. The review found that the reintegration work could be improved by a pre-reunification needs assessment that addresses livelihood support needs; short-term material needs such as food, shelter, clothing, and heating; psychological or emotional capacity such as parenting skills and the parents' desire to have the child home; and potential threats to the safety of the child at home and in the community; as well as developing a clear understanding with parents of the support they would receive, from whom, and when. This type of assessment should be done before the child returns home to reduce risk of harm to the child or re-separation; this would also assist with rational planning of support, including HES support. If children cannot be placed quickly in family care, transitional support may be required if they are already in very risky situations.

The Trickle Up Foundation, University of Chicago, and Women's Refugee Commission are currently collaborating on a three-arm randomized control trial that evaluates a pathways intervention that involves livelihood and household management training, seed capital grants, savings and lending groups, and mentoring and coaching, and the same intervention with an added component that sensitizes households on children's rights and protection (Ismayilova 2015). The project aims to prevent child separation due to early marriage, hazardous labor, or enrollment in religious schools that make their students engage in hazardous work such as begging. This study is the first to seek to measure the impact of the graduation model on child separation; baseline data have been collected and one-year follow-up data will be available in the fall of 2015.

This review of NGO programming and learning has highlighted the interest in establishing good practice for reintegration of children in family care and prevention of separation across contexts, in strengthening connections between government and non-government actors, and in strengthening the capacity of government to lead on child care issues. The program descriptions reinforce Reaching for Home's assertion that reintegration is a process that requires time and ongoing support. A number of the programs described reflect recognition of the need for some support to ensure or improve shelter and to address some short- or long-term consumption requirements, and some integrate efforts to support and increase income and/or assets. As noted previously, rigorous evidence and less rigorous documented learning related to HES or other economic interventions is scarce; the following section discusses the limited body of learning and evidence identified.

ECONOMIC INTERVENTION PRACTICE AND LEARNING RELATED TO REINTEGRATION OF CHILDREN IN FAMILY CARE AND PREVENTION OF SEPARATION

This section reviews recent interagency efforts to consolidate learning about ES interventions in support of children's reintegration, describes cash programming aimed at preventing separation and enabling alternative care of children in emergencies, and then summarizes evidence related to social transfers and family separation. While social transfers, and social protection more broadly, with longer-term time horizons, systemic approaches, and government leadership are generally considered to comprise a separate, but related domain of programming, recent evidence related to social transfers and family-child separation is helpful in understanding the roles cash support can play in preventing or enabling family-child separation and reintegration. The evidence base, and documentation on program learning, is limited, but suggests implications for programming.

Interagency Learning about Economic Strengthening and Reintegration of Children in Family Care

Both *Reaching for Home* and Chaffin and Kalyanpur's *What Do We Know About Economic Strengthening for Family Reintegration of Separated Children* (2014)¹⁹ draw on gray literature and interviews with practitioners and researchers to consolidate practice and learning related to ES interventions in the context of reintegration of children in family care. Chaffin and Kalyanpur's review (2014) reports that household-level ES support is seen as playing a crucial role in ensuring a child will remain in family care for both financial and psychosocial reasons (since making an economic contribution can support self-esteem and community acceptance of the reintegrating child). Although work related to ES interventions is relevant during the preparation and follow-up stages of reintegration, household-level assessment of family economic circumstances and capacities is not necessarily a routine procedure (Wedge 2013). Where it does occur, agencies use a variety of measurement tools such as vulnerability assessment tools, child status index tools, and increasingly, collaborative assessments that measure family strengths as well as challenges (Wedge 2013, Chaffin and Kalyanpur 2014). Often, assessment related to household financial circumstances, and presumably economic capacity in general, takes place after reunification (Wedge 2013).

Most ES assistance aims to improve family/household-level capacity to care for the reintegrating child, although some programs that work with older age groups target support directly at the

¹⁹ Chaffin and Kalyanpur summarize thinking and learning about economic strengthening in support of reintegration of separated children in resource-poor environments, focusing on children separated from their parents or caregivers because of armed conflict or natural disaster; economic shocks; food insecurity; caregiver death, disability, or illness; or forced migration or human trafficking. A literature search intended to inform the paper turned up no rigorous studies on the topic, thus the paper uses in its analysis information collected from gray literature such as toolkits, discussion papers, and case studies and interviews with 41 academics and practitioners.

child (Wedge 2013). ES support may be in the form of cash and/or materials,²⁰ or may support income generation at the household level (Wedge 2013). Some concerns exist about potential misuse of cash support, but it is not clear if these concerns are speculative or based in substantial experience. Chaffin and Kalyanpur's practitioner and researcher interview respondents most often referenced microloans or small grants, start-up kits for small businesses and agriculture, vocational skills training (for caregivers and older children, generally taught in a central location and which may also include skills such as basic literacy, numeracy, business and life skills, and employability skills), and support to income-generating activities as interventions to support reintegration of children in family care.

Interview respondents suggested that economic support activities sometimes seemed to be added onto, rather than designed as integral to, the reintegration process. Selection of interventions seems to be driven more by what implementing agencies are familiar with, rather than by findings of a market assessment, potentially limiting program effectiveness (Wedge 2013, Chaffin and Kalyanpur 2014). Lack of specialized knowledge in ES within agencies may also affect the quality of the programming they choose to do. Some of the researchers and practitioners interviewed reported lack of satisfaction with program results, attributing disappointing program performance to lack of resources to address children's, households' and/or communities' specific needs in the face of budget constraints; concerns about beneficiary dependency on implementing agencies; challenges and costs associated with reaching remote

²⁰ Materials might include, for example, a standard or tailored "reintegration kit" that includes basic items or some construction materials to improve the home.

locations or beneficiaries spread over large geographic areas; job market limitations; provision of training without adequate links to markets or employment opportunities; or an over-emphasis on entrepreneurship when family members lack the capacity to be entrepreneurs. Families *in extremis* may not have the labor power or capacity to take advantage of some opportunities, such as business development interventions (Chaffin and Kalyanpur 2014); some may always need to depend on social assistance, if available, and/or support from extended families or communities. Similarly, families preparing for or undergoing an emotionally-charged reintegration process may not feel ready or able to take on new economic strengthening tasks (plenary discussion following reintegration panel, STRIVE Keeping Families Together through Economic Strengthening Symposium, Washington, DC, March 6, 2015) (STRIVE 2015, Mattingly 2015). In some circumstances, program and funding cycles may be too short to enable sustainable ES work in the reintegration context (Chaffin and Kalyanpur 2014).

The reviews suggest that good practices are those that support the development of sustainable incomes, including careful analysis and planning to ensure they are relevant to the local economy, the skills and strengths that families already have, and families' ability to make productive use of the assistance provided. Chaffin and Kalyanpur suggest a list of key principles for ES in family reintegration (see Box 2).

Box 2. Key Principles for Economic Strengthening in Family Reintegration (Chaffin and Kalyanpur 2014, pp. 6-7)

- Integrate ES interventions with programming in health, including sexual and reproductive health; formal or non-formal education, including life skills; and peacebuilding initiatives.
- Align ES interventions with existing national economic development plan, youth policy, gender policy, etc.
- Build participation of children and caregivers into all stages of the program cycle, including assessment, program development, monitoring and evaluation.
- [Allow] an adequate duration for ES programming to be effective and to assess the adequacy of reintegration.
- Assess the economic condition of the family, and the child within that family, to identify the appropriate ES strategy to support financial, social, and reintegration goals.
- Build impact evaluations into program budgets to contribute to the global learning agenda on this little researched topic. Evaluators should prioritize wide dissemination of their evaluation results.
- Build programs based upon joint field mission and multi-disciplinary assessments that include personnel with expertise in both child protection and in ES.
- Take a graduated approach to ES by first meeting immediate needs through consumption support, then connecting beneficiaries with a sustainable source of income generation and/or access to financial services.
- Weigh carefully the risks and benefits of targeting individual children. Where budgets permit, programs that also work to strengthen the household economy of other community members are preferable.
- Conduct a local market analysis before determining the type of skills training to provide, or what kinds of goods and services should be produced. Build ES programs based upon what already exists in the community.
- [Build] in rigorous evaluation of ES results and adequacy of reintegration.

While programming to date rarely reflects it, Chaffin and Kalyanpur report that practitioner agencies increasingly express interest in sequenced, pathways, or graduation approaches to HES that are sensitive to different levels of household poverty—based on an assessment of household circumstances, economic activities and capacities, and challenges—and that offer a succession of interventions over time. They suggest that the Graduation Approach espoused by CGAP and the Ford Foundation, warrants investigation as a strategy to support reintegration of children in families.

In addition, Chaffin and Kalyanpur present a typology of 19 HES program interventions that programmers working on preventing separation and supporting reintegration of children in family care might consider using. The typology includes a discussion of strengths and limitations of each, noting that none has been rigorously evaluated in terms of their effects on reintegration of children in family care or prevention of separation (see Annex D for Chaffin and Kalyanpur’s typology). These interventions are listed and described in Table 3, below, and linked to intervention levels associated with poverty level and household capacity as proposed by the LIFT project (Evans et al. 2013). In contexts in which actual or potential separation of children from family care stems from high economic and livelihood vulnerability, activities best placed to support those families may come from those targeted at the provision and protection levels of intervention.

Table 3. Economic Strengthening Options*

Intervention	Approach	Level of Intervention
Conditional cash transfer (CCT)	Provision of regular cash transfers contingent upon specific behavior (ongoing support for child’s education, health care, food).	Provision
Unconditional cash transfers	Provision of cash without conditions. The target population is often a more vulnerable one (child-headed households, elderly caregivers).	Provision
Cash-for-work	Provision of cash in exchange for work.	Provision
Food-for-work	Payment in food rather than money, in exchange for work.	Provision
Provision of productive assets	Granting of animals, grinding mills, sewing machines, seeds and tools for agriculture, etc., often to complement another ES intervention (microcredit, skills training, IGA).	Provision/protection
Financial literacy training/financial education	Activities to build knowledge and understanding of financial concepts and risks, and help individuals develop the skills, motivation and confidence to apply that knowledge and understanding so they can make good decisions and participate in economic life.	Provision/protection
Provision of access to land	Negotiating with communities and/or municipalities for donation or sale of arable land to NGO on behalf of beneficiaries.	Provision/protection/promotion (depending on purpose)
Vouchers	Paper, tokens, or electronic cards that can be exchanged for a set quantity or value of goods, with either a cash value or as a pre-determined set of	Provision/protection/promotion

	commodities or services; vouchers redeemable at pre-selected vendors.	(depending on purpose)
Individual savings	Savings account opened in the name of the child or caregiver. NGO can add matched savings, perhaps conditional on positive behaviors (schools attendance, clinic visits).	Protection
Job placement	Job opportunities facilitated through linkages with employers. If necessary, agencies can offer a salary subsidy to employers as an incentive.	Protection
Apprenticeships	Working-age child/youth learns a trade under the guidance of a skilled worker.	Protection
Mobile training	Trainers visit villages or neighborhoods for short periods. Training is tailored to the needs of the community in order to improve a given production technology or the quality of a specific product, especially in agriculture and agro-processing. Trainers can return for follow-up.	Protection
Community-managed microfinance (group savings, village savings and loan associations)	Self-selected groups pool resources to accumulate savings and make loans to members. Groups may become a platform for provision of other types of services (health, non-formal education).	Protection/ potentially promotion
Income-generation activities (IGAs)	Groups or individuals receive training and/or inputs for the production of goods (handicrafts, vegetable gardening, agro-processing) and generate income to be divided among group members.	Protection/ promotion
Technical and vocational education and training (TVET)	Skills are taught in a central location, sometimes in a residential facility. Length of training depends on the occupation. Often includes such additional skills as basic literacy, numeracy, business skills and life skills education, employability skills.	Promotion
Market linkages (value chain, local economic development)	Interventions to enhance profitability of enterprises or whole industries by studying the market system and creating linkages with actors along the value-chain. Can include negotiating with suppliers, buyers, or processors; establishing cooperatives; strengthening law and policy; improving firms' competitiveness; increasing exports; attracting investment and tourism.	Promotion
Business loans	Caregivers take on debt to establish or expand micro-enterprises. Often paired with business development services, including entrepreneurship training, and provision of productive assets.	Promotion
Small grants for business	Cash to establish or expand micro-enterprises. Often paired with business development services, including entrepreneurship training, and provision of productive assets.	Promotion
Microfranchising	Creation of scaled-down versions of existing businesses using proven marketing and sales techniques. With supplies and training from established firms (and support from NGOs), caregivers and/or youth sell retail goods or provide services.	Promotion

*The interventions in this table and descriptions of their approaches are pulled from Chaffin and Kalyanpur (2014) pages 9-25; financial literacy training added to the table by the author. Levels of intervention are derived from LIFT (Evans et al. 2013).

Participants in a recent symposium on HES and family-child separation showed a strong interest in cash transfer programming and savings group programming (STRIVE 2015, Mattingly 2015). Interest in savings groups is driven by their perceived economic effectiveness, but also by reported benefits related to empowerment, psychosocial support, and social networking.

Social Transfers and Their Effects on Family Separation

The most rigorous, albeit limited, evidence related to economic interventions and family separation comes from social transfer programs. Social transfers are defined as “regular, reliable and direct transfers in cash and/or in kind to households in poverty and deprivation” (Barrientos et al. 2013, p. 8). Cash transfer is thought to be an efficient way to provide basic consumption support because it is relatively easy to scale up quickly and places lower capacity demands on both administrators and beneficiaries than some other forms of assistance (Adato and Bassett 2012). In a 2013 UNICEF paper, *Social Transfers and Child Protection*, Barrientos and colleagues (2013) analyze data from 79 social transfer program impact evaluations that included some measurement of child protection indicators in 28 low- and middle-income countries to understand the effects of social transfers on child protection risks and outcomes and considers how design and implementation of these transfers can support greater impact. In the review, the authors focus on transfers identifiable as social assistance/social protection to address deprivation and poverty in non-emergency contexts.

The authors contrast the concepts of vulnerability that are used by social transfer program designers (likelihood of being in poverty) and child protection actors (exposure to risks of abuse, exploitation, and/or violence) and observe that poverty research has informed the way social transfer programs are designed and developed in low- and middle-income countries through an understanding of “poverty as multi-dimensional and the importance of non-income dimensions; the significance of the duration dimensions and poverty dynamics; the differences in the depth of poverty among households; and the role of households as the site of agency and change” (p. 12). They identify three types of social transfers:

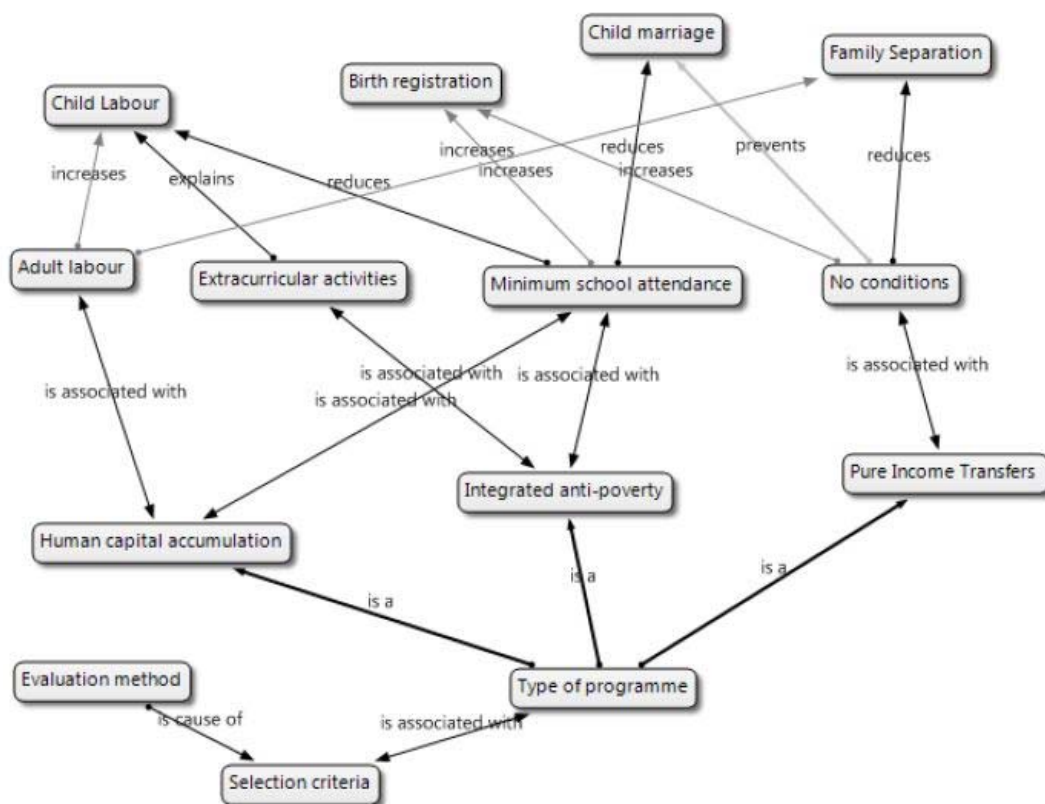
- 1) Pure cash income transfers directed at poverty-stricken households or specific vulnerable groups, and which “rely on an understanding of poverty as largely to do with deficits in income or consumption” (p. 13);
- 2) Cash or in-kind transfers combined with accumulation of human, physical, and financial assets and intended to strengthen household productive capacity (such as transfers associated with investment in health or education, or involvement in employment schemes), that “understand the persistence of poverty as arising from deficits in human capital” (p. 13); and
- 3) Integrated poverty reduction programs that focus on the poorest, involve a variety of interventions that include personal intermediation and follow-up, focus on social exclusion and the related barriers poor households face in accessing services, and that understand that “direct income transfers only play a marginal role in the overall support provided to households in poverty” (p. 13).

The review hypothesizes that social transfers may have three types of effects on child protection outcomes:

- Direct effects when child protection outcomes are explicit program objectives;
- Indirect effects when reducing poverty and social exclusion generally helps reduce risks that contribute to abuse, exploitation, and violence; and
- Implementation synergies/improvements in public agency capacity (such as improved coordination, technical capacity, or information flow) that improve identification of and service to at-risk children.

Barrientos and colleagues (2013) note that the studies included in their review had limited references to child protection outcomes and indicators, and that they found no references to violence against children, child trafficking, or child abuse. Their analysis focuses on the child protection issues of child labor, child marriage, birth registration, and family separation because of the outcomes and indicators measured in the studies included in their sample. The diagram below, created with network mapping software, shows the links they found between program types, features related to design and implementation, and child protection indicators, based on the data available in the review. With respect to family separation, the network view shows links between unconditional pure income transfers and family separation and human capital accumulation transfers, adult labor, and family separation: unconditional income transfers appear to reduce family separation and human capital accumulation is associated with adult labor, which appears to increase family separation.

Figure 1. Network View of Program Types and Outcomes on Child Protection Indicators
(Barrientos et al. 2013, p. 20)



Based on the limited evidence available, Barrientos and colleagues (2013) found that social transfers may directly prevent family separation by providing resources so that parents do not need to involuntarily migrate for work and leave their children to the care of other family members. A study of South Africa’s Child Support Grant included in their review found the grant associated with a higher probability that children lived with their biological parents. Colombia’s *Familias in Accion* program emphasized family reunion and incentivized families displaced by social conflict to return to their home areas and provided the flexibility to work less, enabling mothers to spend more time with their children (although their partners worked more).

Barrientos and colleagues (2013) also found that social transfers may also play a role in enabling kinship care of children (less preferred than parental care, but seen as generally better than other forms of alternative care) in areas of large-scale migration by supporting older people and helping to strengthen the local economy, as demonstrated by pension programs in South Africa and Brazil. Research in South Africa suggests that pensions may increase migration opportunities for working age mothers, because pensioned female relatives have the resources to care for their children. Transfers with an education condition may lead children to migrate to urban areas where they can access secondary education, as was found in Mexico’s *Oportunidades* program, separating them from their parents. Findings of this review related to

other child protection outcomes, indirect effects, and intervention synergies are described in the next section.

Two qualitative studies conducted by Family for Every Child members Uyisenga ni Imanzi in Rwanda and Challenging Heights in Ghana, with the Institute for Development Studies' Centre for Social Protection, are worth mentioning here. Rwanda's Vision 2020 *Umurenge* Programme (VUP) is an anti-poverty program offering an unconditional cash benefit to the most vulnerable and those unable to work, and employment in public works to extremely poor households' members who can work. It also involves an unconditional cash transfer, public works, financial services, and training/sensitization on the program (Roelen and Shelmerdine 2014). Ghana's Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty Programme (LEAP) is a cash transfer and health insurance program targeted at poor households with OVC, elderly people, and people with disabilities and unable to work (Roelen and Chettri 2014). The studies found that both programs facilitated reunification of children in some families because they increased household resources enabling parents to care for their children at home, positively affected household ability to provide for children's basic needs, and played a role in reducing stress and tension at the household level. The studies concluded that the programs had the potential to prevent family separation, although the Ghana study reported that the positive impact of the program is limited by the size of the transfer, which is small in proportion to average household consumption, and suggests that removing a cap on the maximum number of eligible beneficiaries per household and linking transfer size to the number of eligible beneficiaries per household could strengthen the program's effect on child well-being and care.

Large-scale cash transfer programs of long duration are almost certainly not realistic outside the public sector, for reasons of cost, capacity of coverage, and related equity of access issues, and are beyond the capacity of the public sector in many countries as well. Ismayilova and colleagues (2014) argue that deinstitutionalization policies in countries of the former Soviet Union have not addressed key causes of children's institutionalization, such as poverty, and argue that cash benefits are often inadequate to guarantee long-term care and support and may not help families create stable environments for children. They propose that these countries should explore, in addition to providing cash benefits, asset-based development programs, and propose Child Development Accounts (savings accounts, which may be subsidized, for education or small business creation) as an example of a practice with potential in the region.

Cash and Other Transfers to Prevent and Address Family Separation in Emergencies

Save the Children's 2012 report *Cash and Child Protection: How Cash Transfer Programming can Protect Children from Abuse, Neglect, Exploitation and Violence* describes programs in Indonesia and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) in which cash transfers or in-kind support were provided to parents or alternative caregivers to enable family-based care of separated or unaccompanied children or to prevent separation of children (Thompson 2012). In Indonesia, Save the Children ran a post-tsunami program that included three cash-based

interventions: a) a three-month cash transfer project targeted at caregivers of separated children, b) a longer-term cash transfer program aimed at orphaned heads of household, and c) a short-term cash-for-work project targeting single parents, grandparents caring for children, families looking after vulnerable children, and families without incomes. The outcomes suggested that this support contributed to keeping children out of the child care institutions that had seemed to be the most likely recourse for child care after the tsunami, at a lower cost than institutional care, and with better well-being, development, and school performance outcomes than for children in institutions.

In the DRC, a cash transfer to foster families of conflict-affected unaccompanied children and children leaving armed groups, coupled with child care training, a code of conduct for caregivers, and clothing and mattresses for the child beneficiary and for other children in the family offered a successful model for alternative care (Thompson 2012). A camp-based program in which voluntary foster families benefitted from non-food items and food distributed to fostered children, but in which the fostered families received no other support and in which there was no requirement for a code of conduct was viewed as much less successful, with reports of discrimination against fostered children in terms of work and food. The Save the Children report suggests that cash transfers may assist caregivers to deal with short-term economic shocks, but that livelihoods support and broader social protection programming may be more appropriate to address longer term needs; it also cautions that assistance should extend, rather than replace, existing support mechanisms and seek to promote the sustainability of foster care.

This review of the limited evidence and learning related to economic interventions and family-child separation, and the frustration practitioners expressed about the perceived effectiveness of HES interventions suggests that more work remains to be done to understand how HES interventions relate to drivers of family-child separation and the nature of interventions that might address those drivers and be appropriate to family circumstances. The information reviewed suggests that HES responses should include some level of household assessment appropriate to the context, tailoring of interventions to household needs and capacities and potentially a combination of consumption support and economic asset development that can help families develop sustainable incomes where possible. They should have specific child protection and well-being outcomes in mind, including prevention of separation and re-separation, they need time and they should give some consideration to child care issues. While cash support can be very important in preventing family-child separation, there are likely thresholds below which it is ineffective. Practitioners highlighted challenges in providing technical support to geographically dispersed families, suggesting a need to connect with other HES programs or to develop innovative approaches toward providing technical assistance. They also pointed to HES technical capacity gaps in reintegration programs that could be addressed through hiring, increasing internal coordination or developing relationships with agencies that possess technical capacity. The following section discusses evidence and program learning about HES and social protection programs and child well-being and protection, proposing that learning and evidence from these areas are useful in thinking about addressing drivers of family-child separation.

WHAT DO WE KNOW ABOUT HOW ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES ADDRESS CHILDREN'S VULNERABILITIES AND IMPROVE OUTCOMES FOR CHILDREN?

This section of the paper synthesizes evidence and learning on economic activities in relation to domains of vulnerability and child protection that touch on some of the conditions associated with separation of children from family care discussed earlier in this paper. It summarizes findings from recent literature reviews on social transfer/social protection, emergency cash and voucher programs, and other HES interventions and then briefly describes findings from recently published studies on integrated programs and child savings/financial education programs in Uganda. While social protection programs, as noted earlier, can differ from HES programs in their scale, systemic nature, duration, regularity, and government leadership, they offer learning and insights that may be useful to HES programs and may also suggest where HES interventions may be less effective because of their differences from social protection programs. Although the body of evidence outside the arena of social protection is still limited, the evidence and learning that exists can be helpful in thinking about potentially effective programming to address drivers of separation.

Effects of Social Protection on Child Protection and Well-Being Outcomes

As noted above, much of the rigorous evidence that relates to ES activities and outcomes for children comes from impact assessments and analyses of social protection programs. In their traditional conceptualization, these may involve social assistance (often cash transfers) aimed at increasing demand for and access to services on the part of the most vulnerable people or social insurance (often contributory but sometimes subsidized) aimed at protecting people from adverse circumstances. The body of evidence suggests that social protection interventions do affect child protection and well-being outcomes and risk factors; their effects, however, may be positive or negative (Sanfilippo et al. 2012, Barrientos et al. 2013, Chaluda 2015). Barrientos and colleagues (2013) find that social transfer linkages with child protection are “stronger and deeper” (p. 38) when they seek to address human development objectives and that child protection strategies need to be connected to strategies that address causes of poverty and deprivation if they are to be effective. Although the different types of social protection programs can all have positive effects on children’s outcomes (Barrientos et al. 2013, Sanfilippo et al. 2012), ***the greatest impact is found in programs that are focused on children and that take place in a context of high political commitment to address issues related to children’s vulnerabilities*** (Sanfilippo et al. 2012). Sanfilippo and colleagues (2012) note trends toward designing interventions as a set and designing children’s policies to be sensitive to children’s changing needs and vulnerabilities throughout childhood. They suggest definitions of

functions of and instruments for social protection as shown in Box 3. These suggestions may also be useful to HES practitioners as they think about HES program functions and interventions. This section describes some of the evidence related to particular child protection and child well-being risk factors and outcomes.

Monetary poverty: Child support grants targeted at children in poor families, such as South Africa's Child Support Grant (paid to a child's primary care giver, and currently about Rand 330 or US \$30 per month, or about 5.2 percent of per capita income), have shown potential to reduce child poverty when effectively targeted and when the value is large enough, and can be flexible tools during financial crises. Simulation studies in Central and Eastern European countries have suggested that one-time birth grants, recurring child allowances, allowances for children under home care and allowances for first graders have contributed to decreases in monetary poverty. In addition, social pensions in some Central and Eastern European countries may reach more households than other social assistance programs and may be associated with reductions in child poverty (Sanfilippo et al. 2012). David Myhre (personal communication) suggests that cash transfers help to increase household income generating capacities if a small percentage of the transfer (less than 15%) is invested in productive assets or a business; leveraging the transfer in this way might help households from falling back into poverty without a safety net when children age out of transfer programs.

Education: Cash transfers, both those focused on children and those not, conditional (as found in a number of Latin American countries) and unconditional

Box 3. Functions and Features of Child-Sensitive Social Protection Instruments

(Sanfilippo et al. 2012, p. 34)

Child-sensitive social protection provides income support in cash and guarantees access to basic services for free or at below market prices (in kind) and has two main *functions*:

- To compensate for the effects of shortcomings affecting children at the level of the household or community/society, ensuring access to safety nets, an enabling environment and essential services in health, nutrition, education, early child development, safe water and sanitation; and
- To mitigate the immediate and to compensate for the longer-term effects of shocks due to unemployment, illness and disability of the child or caregivers, or due to the death of a caregiver, in order to avoid lasting damage such as stunting, dropping out of school, etc.

Child-sensitive social protection *instruments* should:

- Incentivize and/or support caregivers to invest in children's health and education regardless of their gender, age, or rank-order in the household;
- Incentivize and/or support caregivers to avoid choices and strategies that are harmful to children such as limiting food intake, limiting access to school and learning, limiting access to health care, limiting parenting or promoting child labor, begging, prostitution, or other forms of abuse;
- Incentivize and/or support caregivers to provide adequate protection from all forms of violence; and
- Substitute for the absence of caregivers in providing food (including safe water), shelter, health services, education, protection and other essential services for children.

(more common in southern and east African countries), have been shown to increase access to education by helping households overcome cost barriers such as fees, uniforms, and books (Sanfilippo et al. 2012, Adato and Bassett 2012). These transfers may also help families compensate for the lost labor of children. Adato and Bassett (2012) report that emerging evidence from several African countries shows strong gender differences, suggesting that access to resources may not address gender discrimination in contexts in which households rely on girls' labor for caregiving and in which sending all children to school is not possible. In countries with relatively high primary school enrollment, conditional cash transfers may make more of a difference at the secondary level (Sanfilippo et al. 2012). School feeding programs with in-school and/or take home components can increase enrollment and attendance because of their impact on household food expenditures; they also have likely effects on children's cognition and concentration (Sanfilippo et al. 2012).

Health: Cash transfers and subsidized insurance are used to help households overcome financial barriers to accessing health services. The most evidence is related to conditional cash transfer programs, which require regular use of health services by recipients (Sanfilippo et al. 2012). Beyond setting conditions, it is important that programs make beneficiaries aware of the need to regularly use services; for example, the *Chile Solidario* program includes a psychosocial support component that reinforces understanding of the importance of health service access for children's cognitive and physical development (Sanfilippo et al. 2012). Evidence related to cash transfers and health outcomes is difficult to collect and is mixed, since multiple factors affect children's health, including the supply and quality of those services. In Malawi's *Mchinji* unconditional social transfer program, however, children improved their health, accessed health care when sick, and experienced a reduction in illness, largely due to income effects that enabled purchase of medications, visits to health services, and more regular feeding (Sanfilippo et al. 2012, Adato and Bassett 2012).

Nutrition: As noted above, school feeding programs can extend households' ability to provide food resources for their children. In Kenya, a school feeding program contributed substantially to intake of energy, protein, and vitamin A by students. Bangladesh's Food for Education program, which provides a monthly food ration to households, has helped improve pre-school beneficiary children's weight-for-age. Cash transfer programs in South Africa and Sri Lanka, a cash-for-work project in Bangladesh, and a cash and in-kind support program in Mexico have shown increases in children's anthropomorphic measurements. Conditional cash transfer programs, such as Mexico's *Oportunidades* and Colombia's *Familias en Accion* support increased food expenditures, which, with complementary service support, improve nutrition outcomes. Cash transfer programs that reach HIV-positive individuals may need to include complementary services such as nutrition counseling, and micro-nutrient and food supplementation services (Adato and Bassett 2012).

Child labor: Social transfers can reduce child labor when they include child labor or schooling-related conditionalities; one note is that boys are more likely to be positively affected than girls, as may have occurred in Mexico's *Oportunidades* program, possibly because they have higher

rates of labor-force participation. The reduction in child labor required by some programs may increase the labor of adults, with potential adverse effects on child care, unless programs seek to address this gap (Barrientos et al. 2013). Analyses of public works programs in Ethiopia and India found that higher levels of transfer to the head of household were, on average, associated with reduction in child labor hours (Sanfilippo et al. 2012). Some analyses raise questions about the impact on school attendance and number of hours worked by girls. Household access to microcredit under social protection programs may cause children to be taken out of school to work on household enterprises or to increase domestic work during peak periods, reducing their leisure time (Sanfilippo et al. 2012). Time allocation and within-household labor specialization are likely to affect the ways in which social programs affect child work (Chaluda 2015).

Child care: Labor generation programs can strain families' abilities to provide high quality child care to children while they perform the work requirements that are part of their social assistance support, since caregivers may leave children unattended or have older children take on caregiving responsibilities that can reduce their school or leisure time (Roelen and Shelmerdine 2014). There is some evidence that disruption of child care by labor-generation programs has been successfully addressed by adding project components that provide day care at the work site, as in the case of the Productive Safety Net program in Ethiopia (Barrientos et al. 2013).

Early marriage and sexual initiation: Social transfers can help delay child marriage and sexual initiation and risk-taking through school attendance conditions, incentives to transition to higher grades, and links to behavior (Barrientos et al. 2013). Cluver and colleagues (2013) found that unconditional cash transfers and/or food support seemed to address economic drivers of sexual risk taking behaviors of adolescent girls but not of adolescent boys. They also found that cash and/or food support combined with positive parenting and/or teacher social support led to greater effects in terms of lesser likelihood of sexual risk taking for both adolescent girls and boys (Cluver et al. 2014).

Birth registration: Social transfer programs can increase birth registration, since it is required by most social transfer programs, establishing a child's legal identity and providing the identity documentation often required to access education and social support. Barrientos and colleagues (2013) observe that birth registration can be complex and expensive; Colombia's *Familias in Accion* program makes birth registration officials available for the enrollment of new beneficiaries to streamline meeting this requirement. Ghana's LEAP requires birth registration, among other conditions, but does not enforce the conditions, possibly losing (or failing to leverage) potential opportunities between program staff and beneficiaries, although this may not outweigh the successes of the program (Roelen and Chettri 2014).

In a discussion of indirect effects of social transfers, via poverty reduction, on child protection outcomes, Barrientos and colleagues observe that these links have not been adequately researched in low- and middle-income countries and require further examination. They suggest these links may be easier to establish for child labor and child marriage (presumably because of data available), although both have multiple contributing factors. Some social transfer studies

report reductions in parental stress; for example, in Mexico's *Piso Firme* Program, improvements in housing conditions are associated with improvements in mothers' mood and stress levels; involvement in India's National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme is also associated with reduced stress levels. Though not established in the studies, reduced parent stress may in turn reduce harsh discipline and violence in the home. The qualitative studies on Rwanda's VUP and Uganda's LEAP found reduced household tensions and stress within the family (Roelen and Shelmerdine 2014, Roelen and Chettri 2014). Less positively, these latter studies found that these programs may not benefit all household children equally, with non-biological children more likely to be disadvantaged (Roelen and Shelmerdine 2014, Roelen and Chettri 2014).

Barrientos and colleagues also identify implementation synergies of social transfer programs, for example, through improving the child protection environment by strengthening social capital and community action in support of child protection, linking families to an array of programs and agencies, including child protection services, and by leading government agencies to improve information systems. Stronger links with stronger child protection systems, in turn, might improve the effectiveness of social protection programs and interventions.

Cash and Voucher Programs in Emergencies

The growing body of gray literature on cash and voucher programming in emergency and humanitarian situations offers some indications of ways in which ES support through this modality may help protect children and support their well-being. Material transfers (of food and non-food items) and increasingly cash and vouchers are important components of the humanitarian response toolkit, with interventions related to food, safe shelter and safe access to toilets, bathing facilities, food, potable water, and services potentially playing an important role in the protection of vulnerable people, including children, although programs generally do not include specific protection objectives (Harvey 2007, Scanteam 2011, Juillard and Opu 2014, Berg and Seferis 2015). Harvey (2007) offers a checklist of key questions related to needs, markets, security and delivery options, social relations and power within the household and community, cost effectiveness, corruption, coordination and political feasibility, and skills and capacity that organizations should take into account when considering whether cash interventions are appropriate responses. Juillard and Opu (2014) observe that the large number of Syrian people displaced in urban areas in neighboring countries may be "forcing" a cash response since these people are scattered in large urban areas, are renting lodging, and are willing and able to receive cash.

There seems to be little analysis of specific outcomes and impacts of cash and voucher interventions on the protection and well-being of children in emergencies. It is likely that cash and voucher interventions that help families address basic needs and provide protection against physical threats can contribute to preventing child separation in some situations, although cash infusions cannot address all of the underlying causes of child protection problems and the short-term interventions common in emergency settings are not likely to have longer term impacts on

complex problems (Berg and Seferis 2015). Save the Children's *Cash and Child Protection* paper describes two projects aimed at addressing children's protection and well-being following massive floods in Pakistan in 2010 (Thompson 2012). A four-month protection and livelihoods project included cash grants to families with working children, conditioned on the removal of their children from harmful labor and their engagement in education and other children's programming, the establishment of child-friendly spaces, and the creation of child protection community groups and committees; the project also included agricultural and livestock support. A nine-month education and livelihoods project involved school rehabilitation and water/sanitation/hygiene cash-for-work activities, enterprise grants, and conditional cash grants. The report suggests that linking livelihoods and education and child protection activities was cost-effective and enabled greater impact, but acknowledges limitations and weaknesses in the existing data. It found that cash grants were not sufficient to offset children's earnings and that it was difficult to target children who were the primary family wage earners (presumably because the families could not forgo their wages). Findings related to cash interventions (either to deter/prevent recruitment or support demobilization) and children associated with armed forces and armed groups have not been positive; in Liberia, for example, cash payments to children led to intimidation of children receiving the money, community resentment of them, and theft (Women's Refugee Commission et al. 2012, Thompson 2012), although one recent literature review recommends further research on the topic (Berg and Seferis 2015).

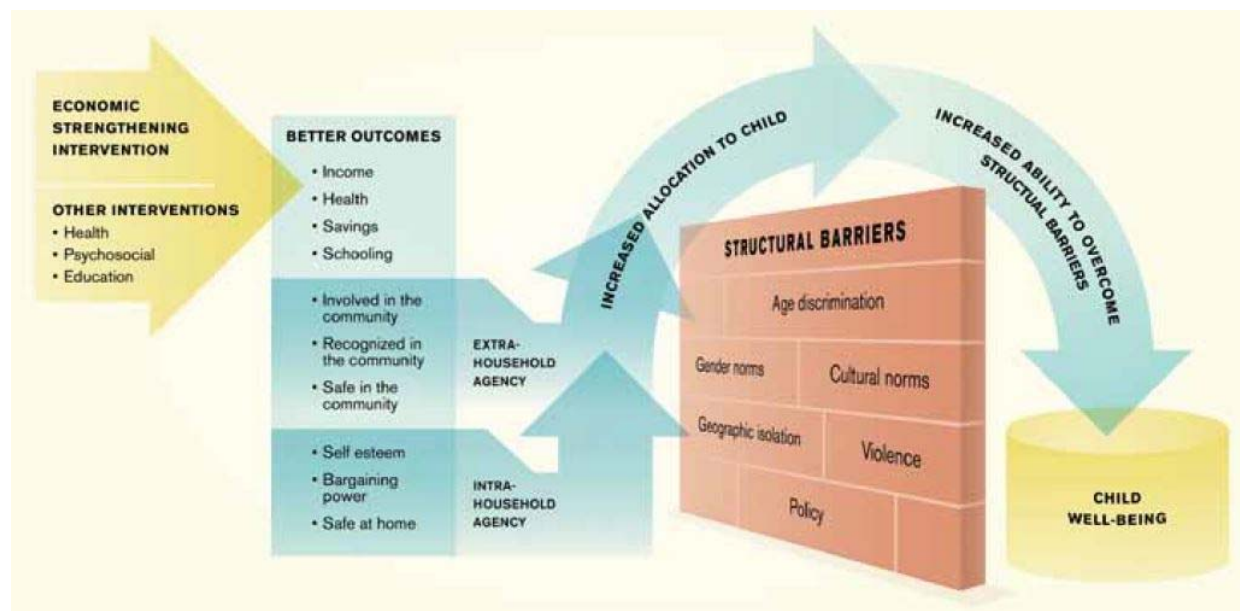
Summarizing Impact Evaluation Evidence about Microfinance, Transfers, and Voucher Programming and Children's Well-Being

A 2011 CPC Livelihoods and Economic Strengthening Task Force paper, *The Impacts of Economic Strengthening Programs on Children: A Review of the Evidence*, summarizes evidence from 43 studies to understand the impact of ES programs on the well-being of children (Chaffin 2011). ES is defined for this paper as the actions taken by governments, donors and implementers to improve livelihoods. The review was originally intended to focus on crisis contexts,²¹ but the paucity of rigorous evidence from crisis contexts led the reviewers to draw the greater, although still "fragmented and underdeveloped" (p. 6) and rather weak, evidence from non-emergency contexts as well. It included some government-led cash transfer programs and one government public works program that offer learning with some applicability to the review's purpose and target audience, along with smaller-scale, non-government interventions, but excluded studies of some types of national social protection programs, such as unemployment insurance. The review sought to test a theory of change, illustrated in Figure 2, that hypothesizes that ES interventions targeting adults yield better outcomes for children (demonstrated in measures such as nutrition, education, health, mental health, and child caring) when female caregivers have the power to make important decisions (in the home and community) that affect well-being. The theory also hypothesizes that children's intra- and extra-household agency (probably their ability to engage in decision-making) is a major determinant of

²¹ The CPC Learning Network aims to strengthen and systematize child protection in crisis settings through collaborative action of humanitarian agencies, local institutions and academic partners.

success for ES programs targeting children.

Figure 2. Theory of Change for Economic Strengthening Programs That Achieve Improved Outcomes for Children in Crisis Situations (Chaffin 2011, p. 6)



The review found that, in the studies it reviewed, ES activities for children’s caregivers mainly included microfinance activities (often microcredit) and provision of cash transfers and vouchers. ES activities for children themselves included savings and financial education, cash transfers, and microcredit. About half of the studies that addressed ES programs for children presented evidence from adolescent “girl platform” programs that apply social capital theory to promote the rights of adolescent girls and that include economic development and skills training in a package of support that also involves strengthening of social networks, positive role modeling through mentorships, improving knowledge and behavior related to reproductive health, improving personal safety, and building literacy and numeracy skills.

The CPC review reports a general positive association between child well-being (reflected in measures such as nutrition, education, health, mental health, and child caring) and exposure to ES activities, suggesting that increasing caregiver income and assets can have positive effects on children. It also found some evidence that linking ES interventions with other interventions might improve the outcomes of those other interventions. For example, adding a group saving component to a discussion group intervention aimed at changing social norms in Burundi increased group effectiveness and helped ensure community tolerance of the project (Iyengar and Ferrari 2011, cited in Chaffin 2011) and adding a financial literacy component to an HIV education program helped drive safer sex outcomes (Isihlangu Health Center et al. 2010, cited in Chaffin 2011). It also found that the preponderance of gender-blind data used in the studies makes it difficult to tell effects on girls versus those on boys. The review found some support for its theory of change; for example, there is some evidence that women’s income positively

affects their status and empowerment and the family's economic situation, particularly when a group process is involved. Group and social capital building approaches seem promising, but the dynamics are not well understood. Summarized findings related to specific types of interventions are bulleted below.

- In adult-targeted credit programs, new spending seemed to benefit children but sometimes increased children's labor as they supported the household enterprise until credit amounts or income reached a level that enabled families to reduce children's labor. Similarly, microcredit effects on schooling may require that parent income exceed a certain threshold.
- Cash and voucher programs seemed to enhance caring practices and improve living standards, with some evidence that targeting transfers to women contributes to this, but some studies raised concerns about the risk of cash being spent on alcohol or cigarettes.
- Findings from savings and financial education programs for children indicated that younger children may benefit more from financial education, since older children may have already developed beliefs and behaviors that weaken its impact; child savers may use savings to fund education expenses; matched savings may also positively affect some psychosocial indicators; a program that combined savings and financial education with job access interventions affected health, mental health, and risk-taking behaviors; and one study found that for adolescent girls saving as a group, as opposed to individually, led to less frequent withdrawals of savings.
- Girl platform programs had positive effects on outcome measures related to developing trust and social networks; however, the contribution of the economic components of these multi-intervention programs was unclear.
- The study found that cash transfers are not widely used directly with children and that practitioners feel that credit is inappropriate for children, who are not interested, not prepared to manage debt, or placed at physical risk in business activities.

A 2015 literature review on the impacts of savings groups on children's well-being found limited evidence that savings groups have a positive effect on child-level outcomes (Parr and Bachay 2015). Few of the projects surveyed in the review aimed specifically to address child-level outcomes and evidence in general is hampered by the lack of well-designed, rigorous evaluations. A few of the studies included in the review sought to assess the relative impact of savings group only interventions versus savings group interventions linked to other development interventions such as health education and/or literacy, business or financial management skills development (called "savings group plus" interventions); the review found some indications that the savings group plus interventions may have greater impact than savings groups alone, although some practitioners feel adding interventions to savings groups may dilute their purposes. Some studies suggested that savings groups alone may be inadequate to affect child well-being outcomes or to help households out of poverty. The review stresses the need for more, and more rigorous, evaluation of savings group programs, including longer-term studies and analysis of intervention costs and returns on investment and/or returns on savings.

Recommendations for research emanating from the review include research on effects of savings groups on recommended child-level indicators (including related to sex of the child and sex of the savings group member) and dosage (the number of savings cycles required to produce results). A draft 2015 evidence review related to savings group plus interventions and vulnerable populations reiterates the lack of clear evidence on outcomes with respect to some measures, but finds these interventions do show positive effects on food security and suggests that projects that use formative research to inform and adapt the other activities integrated with savings group plus interventions may be more effective in changing social norms or reaching other social change outcomes (Orr 2015 working draft).

A new guidance document, *Savings Groups and Their Role in Child Wellbeing: A Primer for Donors* (Gash et al. 2015), reports that savings groups now operate in 70 countries with over 10 million members, propelled because of their effectiveness (particularly in terms of supporting resilience and food security and in helping to smooth incomes), sustainability, capacity to reach remote or sparsely populated areas and low cost (since they do not require an injection of external capital) in comparison with many other HES interventions. Limitations of savings groups may include challenges in getting poor people to participate, particularly in the early stages of a project before savings groups have demonstrated their usefulness; risk of inability to meet group member demand for loans; potentially limited market opportunities for group member investment and related revenue generation; efficiency challenges since groups are difficult to federate; potential inability to, on their own, lift people out of poverty; and the need to adapt these groups to highly specific contexts.

To date, most research on savings groups has focused on individual-, business- and household-level effects; studies have found that savings groups can effectively reach the very poor, help reduce poverty and increase savings, support food security, and enhance women participants' household decision-making power. Some recent evidence suggests that savings group programming can affect child well-being outcomes related to spending on education, clothing, nutrition, and discipline practices, and *Savings Groups and Their Role in Child Wellbeing* suggests that using savings group plus approaches that are well-targeted, intentionally aim at child-level outcomes, and have a clear theory of change may best support these outcomes.

Savings Groups and Their Role in Child Wellbeing reports that a large proportion of organizations working with savings groups use a variety of savings group plus approaches that may include training as indicated in the section above, social marketing of products such as anti-malarial bed nets or solar lamps, financial services such as insurance and group savings accounts, and/or joint enterprise activities. In multisectoral programs, savings groups can play a variety of roles such as entry points for new development products and services, platforms for other services, gatekeepers assisting in external agency beneficiary identification, market channels for products, teaching environments for youth, service providers for themselves and

their communities (for example, by taking on community improvement projects, and stepping stones to other financial services such as microcredit). The document argues that, despite evidence gaps, “practitioners can still design practical SG+ interventions that are likely to improve impact on children” and provides examples of practical design elements (see Box 4, at right).

In a 2015 literature review on the microcredit loans and child outcomes, Brown (2015) reviewed 53 studies of microcredit programs in developing countries that measured child-level impacts. Outcomes measured in these studies mostly clustered in the domains of children’s education, children’s health and nutrition, and impact on child labor. In general, outcomes most directly affected by increased cash availability showed the most positive results. The review found mixed results related to children’s education and cognitive development: education expenditures increased, but school attendance outcomes varied and few studies examined gaps for age, schooling quality, or knowledge improvement and those that did had mixed findings. The review found more positive findings related to health care expenditures, health-seeking behaviors (the mechanism through which microcredit loans affect these behaviors was unclear), food expenditures and self-reports of food consumption, and, to a lesser extent, health status outcomes. Findings related to child labor include positive impacts, negative impacts, mixed impacts, and no impact; those studies finding mixed impacts identified differences by gender or age group. Most of the studies that included child labor outcomes were interested in understanding how microcredit affects the relationship between education and child labor, but findings were inconclusive.

Brown reflects that short evaluation periods may have influenced the findings, since multiple loan cycles may be needed to help businesses grow enough to have the income effects that might in turn affect some child-level outcomes. Some of the studies reported the use of loan funds to cover health or education expenses, rather than fully investing them in borrower businesses, highlighting a need to balance in program design benefit to the borrower with the risk of nonrepayment; Brown suggests that pairing microcredit with free health and education services might limit this risk. Brown also notes the need to design programs in ways that do not

Box 4 Examples of Practical Design Elements for SG+ Interventions to Benefit Children (Gash et al. 2015)

- Most Vulnerable Children (MVC) or OVC funds—a pot of money to which members contribute at each meeting, similar to the social fund, used to purchase food, supplies, or school uniforms for vulnerable children, who may or may not be children of group members.
- SGs’ educational activities that directly relate to children’s welfare—with themes such as educating caregivers about parenting, nutrition and legal rights—to help members to better nurture and protect their children.
- SGs as interactive community platforms—for learning sessions and community dialogues about child protection, social support services, and psychosocial counseling.
- Youth SGs with other services—education, health care, psychosocial support, nutrition training on gardening techniques, vocational training, and business skills training.
- Adult caregiver and youth SG—with a parent, a youth will learning money management, financial responsibility, entrepreneurship and collaboration and will be able to start saving for educational expenses.

lead households to place new domestic responsibilities on girls to replace adult labor engaged on enterprise and thus limit their ability to attend school and reminds us that microcredit programs still face difficulties in reaching the ultra poor, an ongoing challenge to program design and aspirations for what microcredit can accomplish.

While the evidence base on the effects of HES interventions on children is limited, it is growing. The sections below describe recently-published efforts to capture better child-level outcome data from HES interventions in Burundi and Uganda.

Comparing Village Savings and Loan Association (VSLA) Plus Business Education and Financial Literacy Training with the Same VSLA Plus, Plus Discussions to Improve Parenting Knowledge

The International Rescue Committee's (IRC) *Urwaruka Rushasha* (New Generation) project aimed to address risks to children in two rural Burundian provinces with high proportions of post-conflict returnees from displacement while contributing to the evidence base related to a) VSLA interventions and their impact on children, and b) parenting programs and their impact on children in poverty- and conflict-affected communities. The project used a three-level, multi-site cluster randomized trial with two savings group cycles (the first of 12 months and the second of 10 months in duration) to help understand whether a VSLA (a common savings group approach) intervention (which included business education and financial literacy components along with saving and lending components) could improve economic outcomes of poor households. It also looked at whether adding to the intervention a series of discussions aimed at improving parenting skills (through understanding ways to improve children's protection, well-being, and development) could offer further benefits for child well-being beyond those attributable to the economic interventions (Annan et al. 2013). The study examined the impact of the VLSA intervention on consumption expenditures, poverty rates, and household assets and of the VLSA plus business education and financial literacy training intervention and added parenting discussions on outcomes, including spending on children, child labor, use of/belief in harsh discipline and/or alternatives, child well-being (related to access to food, clothing, studies, behavior, happiness, and access to a supportive person).

The IRC study found that the VSLAs were effective in delivering financial services. Participation in the VLSA plus intervention had a positive impact on household assets and consumption,²² but it was not clear if this effect was due to the savings and lending components, the financial literacy and business components, or both. Findings indicated that the VSLA component did not have an impact on child outcomes or on family functioning, although it did lower measures of family problems (related to incidences of violence, sale of property without discussion, and intoxication). The study found that the parenting discussions affected some, but not all, of the

²² Assets included not only household goods such as radios or beds, but also productive or potentially productive assets such as livestock and bicycles. Qualitative data indicated accumulation of assets supported better quality of life and increased access to capital. Consumption measures included spending on food items, non-food items, and non-recurrent expenditures and reflect current income.

parenting practices targeted: according to household survey results, the discussions improved only one positive discipline technique, but did not affect parent–child communication, child labor, family functioning, family problems, child well-being, or child mental health. The study authors note that children’s surveys after the first cycle reflected reports by children of improvements related to family problems, children’s well-being, children’s distress, and parent–child communication. They suggest more research is needed to understand the benefit of a comprehensive (as opposed to a more limited) VSLA intervention, the impact of economic interventions on child protection and well-being outcomes, and the correlation between child well-being, family problems, and harsh discipline.

Integrated Service Packages for Vulnerable Families in Uganda

NGO World Education’s Western Uganda Bantwana Program in Uganda builds the capacity of community-based organizations (CBOs) to provide OVC²³ and their families. It offers an integrated package of community-identified services, including child protection, livelihoods, and psychosocial support to OVC. Building on the assumption that strengthening household financial security can improve children’s well-being overall, the program offers livelihoods services including support for income-generation activities (primarily through provision of livestock and seeds) and agricultural training (including training on market assessment and adding value to food production through developing food processing capacity and collective marketing). A recent study of the program sought to examine the emerging connections between the livelihoods interventions and child outcomes. The study found that increased asset value (in this case, mostly livestock), increased livelihoods activity, and lower numbers of children in the household were the factors most predictive of basic needs being met and physical well-being of children (Katz et al. 2014). Asset ownership best predicted children’s needs being met and a lower caregiver sense of risks to children in their care. The greater number of services received predicted a greater likelihood a caregiver would demonstrate awareness of perceived child protection risks. Uptake of livelihood services (measured by increased assets and income) better predicted improvements in child-level outcomes than exposure to services. The study did not find that children’s psychosocial well-being improved with financial gain and the authors suggest that integrated program approaches may need to include explicit psychosocial support services to children who need them.

The multi-sector, AVSI Foundation-led Sustainable, Comprehensive Responses for Vulnerable Children and their Families (SCORE) project in Uganda provides socio-economic strengthening (through VSLA, increasing skills, and facilitating market inclusion), food security and nutrition, protection and legal services, and support in accessing services to reduce the vulnerability of moderately and critically vulnerable children (Lowicki-Zucca et al. 2014). The study found that highly vulnerable household members were able to save and access credit in VSLA groups without negatively affecting measures of VSLA group performance such as per capita savings

²³ Katz et al. (2014) report that a national vulnerability analysis includes in the definition of vulnerability orphanhood, child marriage, being affected by HIV or other diseases, living in an area under conflict, living in a child-headed household, and lacking access to basic services such as schooling.

and loans per capita, in contrast to a common view that the most vulnerable households may lack the capacity to participate in this type of program. The study also found that reports of child labor, child abuse, drug/substance abuse, and lack of awareness on where to access legal services by households participating in the project decreased. The study did not investigate which of all project activities were most associated with child protection outcomes, and the design poses a number of limitations to the study findings, but it concludes that the project as a whole seems to be achieving protection results and that it is possible to directly target extremely vulnerable community members for participation in VSLA that include a somewhat broader segment of the population.

Matched Institutional Savings in Uganda

A series of studies using randomized control trials in Uganda seeks to understand the impact of an ES program that involved matched child savings accounts (CSAs) and workshops on financial management and enterprise development for caregivers and children. These institutional matched saving accounts are seen as a way to empower poor people by incentivizing them to save for future education or other career preparation expenses, linking them to formal financial institutions and potentially changing saving behaviors; Karimli et al. explain that seeking to reduce poverty “through the promotion of asset ownership is grounded in the premise that access to assets, including savings, home ownership, education, and income generating activities, enhances people’s capacities to make choices and pursue their life goals” (Karimli et al. 2014, p. 659). In a study using data from the *Suubi-Maka* project, Karimli and colleagues (2014) sought to understand whether families that participated in the project report more savings than those in the control group, whether they report using banks more frequently, and whether families in the program reshuffle current household assets to save under the program, or bring new money into the CSAs, supporting the proposition that CSAs support intergenerational movements out of poverty by changing parents’ and children’s savings attitudes and behaviors. The study found that although the intervention increased the likelihood that families saved money, it did not increase the amounts they reportedly saved. Treatment families were not more likely to use financial institutions than control group families and it did not find that families gave up other assets to fund savings and benefit from the related match. The authors suggest more research on household financial management strategies is needed to further understanding of decision making related to savings.

Nabunya and colleagues (2014) used data from the *Suubi-Maka* project to understand its impact on parenting stress among poor caregivers of AIDS-orphaned children in a rural area, using a survey instrument adapted from the widely used Parenting Stress Index.²⁴ The study found that participation in the intervention was associated with declines in parenting stress in the domains of parent distress (caregiver’s perception of own incompetence, role restrictions, and relationship problems) and parent–child dysfunctional relationship (quality of the current

²⁴ The Parenting Stress Index is available from PAR, a publisher of psychological assessment materials. It was originally developed in 1983 and is now in its fourth edition. The full index is a 120-item inventory; a short version includes 36 items. See <http://www4.parinc.com/Products/Product.aspx?ProductID=PSI-4> for more information.

relationship), suggesting that the intervention probably helped caregivers feel less stressed about meeting children's basic needs and school needs, and less stressed about their relationship with their children. The authors note that though these findings are significant, their model explains only a small amount of the variance measured in parenting stress. That being said, they suggest that in communities where supports like counseling are not available, ES interventions may be helpful in reducing caregiver distress. A related study found that a similar intervention, coupled with mentorship by an adult, may have helped reduce depression in targeted adolescents, although the findings were not conclusive and the study did not tease out the effects of the different component parts of the program (Ssewamala et al. 2012).

The information and evidence reviewed in this section suggest that government-led social protection programs and other program involving cash, work opportunities and food can reduce child poverty, increase access to education, improve child nutrition, and increase legal documentation of children; they may also help to reduce caregiver stress and hence improve household dynamics. Placing conditionalities such as education requirements and requirements to use health services on cash transfers can help to reduce child labor and early marriage/sexual initiation. Program design is important, as inadequate transfer size may lead to poor child-level results and some programs may lead to increased child labor, within household inequities, and/or poorer care of children. Microcredit may not be appropriate for households with labor constraints or other issues, and can also lead to reducing children's education and recreation time if new or expanded household enterprises require their labor for the enterprise or household work that might otherwise have been done by adults. While there is limited rigorous evidence related to asset-building interventions such as savings groups, institutional savings and financial education (for children or adults) on child-level outcomes, there are indications that economic asset-building interventions, which may be coupled with other interventions, may affect attitudes and some behaviors or care practices, family dynamics, perceptions of risk to children, in addition to creating saving and developing money management skills; they may also create social networking benefits. There is some evidence that highly vulnerable people may be able to participate in savings groups without reducing group efficiency.

DISCUSSION AND QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This paper draws on recent literature reviews, studies, program reports, resource documents and other gray literature to summarize learning related to prevention of family-child separation, reintegration of children in family care, and economic interventions that might support these aims. While children outside of family care comprise a very small proportion of the world's child population, they are at higher risk of abuse, neglect, and exploitation, are more vulnerable to health and behavioral problems, and can face challenges in developing relationships, a sense of identity, and self-esteem. The literature reviewed in this paper suggests families that reintegrate children and families at risk of separation experience multiple conditions that are associated with their vulnerability to separation and/or re-separation following reunification. The conditions

associated with vulnerability to separation, in the general sense, do not always align in a clear chain of causality. Poverty is one of these conditions, but, in many cases, is insufficient on its own to drive families apart, so multi-pronged approaches that use economic interventions in conjunction with other forms of family support may best serve poor families that have experienced, or are at risk of, family-child separation and some tailoring of interventions to the specific household may be required. Rigorous evidence on the types of economic interventions needed to address poverty to prevent separation and support reintegration of children in family care is very limited. This section reviews main findings from the material reviewed, contributes recommendations related to programming, and proposes a number of possible questions for future research.

A Diversity of Drivers and More to Learn about Decision-Making Processes

This review identified a number of factors associated with family-child separation. Poverty seems to be a common, but rarely the only factor, and what it means was often not unpacked in the literature reviewed on family-child separation. More work needs to be done in programs focused on preventing and responding to family-child separation to understand the parent and child decision-making processes that lead to children's separation. A more nuanced and rigorous use of the concept of poverty could be useful in understanding the role that household economic considerations play in those decisions. In addition, knowledge related to drivers of separation and identification of families at risk of separation might also be extended if projects that involve ES work in support of vulnerable children expanded their household data collection to include information, over time, on children not living with their families so that a clearer picture emerges of which children are with their families, which are not, and why.

Comprehensive Approaches are Needed to Support Children's Reintegration in Family Care and Prevent Family-Child Separation

Practitioners assert that comprehensive approaches, which may include multiple actors, are required to support children's reintegration in family care and to prevent children's separation. Successful reintegration and prevention of separation programs might follow a "case management plus" approach and:

- Require a process that involves household-level assessment, development of objectives and provision of specific kinds of support over an extended, but potentially defined, period of time;
- Engage parents and children in planning and decision-making; and
- Develop a case plan, taking into account the particular concerns, vulnerabilities, priorities, capacities and resources of the family concerned and considering interventions that:
 - Help ensure that families' immediate shelter and consumption needs are met;
 - Facilitate children's immediate and ongoing access to health care, disability support, and education, in ways that allow them to remain with their families;
 - Offer/facilitate flexible financial and counseling assistance to cope with shocks that threaten the family's ability to remain together (such as the loss of a job or a

- death in the family);
- Address multiple dimensions of household need, including economic and social dimensions and their gendered aspects;
- Address what children, families, and communities see as root causes of separation;
- Build parenting capacities and confidence and seek to reduce parental stress;
- Link families with existing social services;
- Connect families with support, where possible, to develop sustainable incomes; and
- Link with broader efforts to decrease incentives or encouragement for separation and promote care of children in their families.

The intensity and duration of support needed may vary by family/household and context. In some circumstances, mapping and responding to the causes of separation may require detailed analysis at the case level. In other situations, such as in emergencies, it may be appropriate, or necessary, to develop a more population-based sense of separation drivers and issues and broad strategies to address them, while doing due diligence on behalf of children and taking steps to ensure their protection. In this type of context, where caseload is very large, doing more fine-grained analysis of case information, perhaps through sampling, might help to identify information and criteria that could be useful in understanding key drivers of separation and how to target additional support to prevent separation.

Child-Focused Programs are More Effective at Addressing Child-Level Outcomes

Data from government-led social protection programs suggest that social protection programs that have a child focus, in a context of political commitment to address children's vulnerabilities, have the greatest effect on child-level outcomes (Sanfilippo et al. 2012). In that light, broad social programs to change norms and incentives for separation may contribute to primary-level prevention of separation, as may other government and nongovernmental programs to help families with economic and other vulnerabilities develop incomes, accumulate assets, and access services, if these programs include a focus on child protection and well-being. A review of impact literature on savings groups finds a common recommendation that savings group programming be designed intending to affect and measure child-level outcomes, reflecting that most ES programs do not do this (Parr and Bachay 2015).

Income Support May Address Multiple Drivers of Family-Child Separation

The limited rigorous data that exist on economic interventions related to family-child separation come from large-scale, government-led social transfer programs that address the primary level of prevention (Cantwell et al. 2012), and suggest that unconditional income transfers can reduce family separation, while programs that focus on human capital accumulation are associated with adult labor which can then increase family separation (Barrientos et al. 2013). The explicit objectives of conditional and unconditional social transfer programs generally do not focus on

prevention of family separation, but they do address drivers of/conditions associated with separation (including lack of income) and support access to adequate shelter, education, health care, and education. Richter and Naicker (2013) suggest cash transfers, accessible child care, free or assisted education, along with human rights and protection from discrimination, are key structural enablers for parenting and should complement parenting programs. Evidence suggests that unconditional cash transfers can reduce family separation because they may reduce the need for parents to migrate for work and/or allow parents to reduce working time so they can spend more time with their children, but some types of cash transfers may have a different effect, such as when education conditions mean that children must migrate to access education. Some forms of social transfer may encourage parent migration for work. Social transfers may play a role in reducing caregiver stress, and qualitative research has found some indication that they may enable families to reintegrate children. When transfer amounts are too low, they may be insufficient to prevent income-driven separation. Income transfers aimed at consumption support may not help families create an asset base that can help them withstand shocks. It would be useful to further develop the evidence base related to leveraging transfers by directing a portion to savings or income generation during the transfer period with the intent of facilitating future economic resilience after transfers stop.

More Evidence Needed on HES Interventions and Their Impact on Children at High Risk of Separation, or Reintegrating into Family Care

Among several literature reviews, no rigorous data were identified that measured a positive effect of HES interventions on the reintegration of children into family care or preventing family-child separation. This review found less information in the existing gray literature about ES work and prevention of separation than about ES work in the context of reintegration. Information from the gray literature suggests that economic interventions in the context of reintegration include provision of consumable items through initial reintegration packages and replenishing supplies, microloans, small grants, start-up kits for small businesses and agriculture, vocational skills training for older children, links with savings programs, and support to income-generation activities. Choices among these are often based on what implementers are familiar with, rather than on a technical assessment of vulnerability, economic capacity and environment and selection of interventions based on that assessment. The effectiveness of these interventions in addressing children's vulnerabilities is largely unmeasured, although involved agencies are increasingly seeking to understand these effects, and the absence of evidence does not mean the absence of impact. The fact that material support and other forms of provision-level economic strengthening are commonly used in reintegration programming suggests a general assumption that they can contribute to successful outcomes. Organizations reported being concerned about making families reintegrating children economically dependent on them, particularly given these organizations' limited resource base.

Additional Recommendations for HES in Preventing Family-Child Separation and Supporting Reintegration

In *What Do We Know about Economic Strengthening for Family Reintegration of Separated Children*, Chaffin and Kalyanpur (2014) propose a series of principles for ES for family reintegration; these principles relate to using multi-sector/integrated approaches, aligning with national policies and programs, including participation of children and caregivers throughout the project cycle, engaging the technical capacities of both child protection and HES experts, weighing the risks and benefits of targeting individual children, assessing family economic capacity, ensuring program design is appropriate to local markets, ensuring adequate time for interventions, and evaluating programs and disseminating evaluation findings. This paper proposes below six additional recommendations for programming to prevent family-child separation and reintegrate children into family care.

Link families with government-led social protection programs where possible and relevant: Nongovernmental agencies working on family reintegration may, logically, seek to link their beneficiaries to social protection programs or local economic empowerment programs, where they exist. In Moldova, Romania, and Bulgaria, Hope and Homes for Children and Partnerships for Every Child try to link families with government social assistance and public services.

Consider holding “emergency funds” to help families cope with shocks: Banos Smith (2014a), Eurochild (2012), and Sofovik et al. (2012) described the challenges posed by economic shocks to families at high risk of separation or re-separation and reported that government social service agencies were often unable to address emergency needs for financial support. It may be useful for NGO implementers to develop protocols for using emergency funds that could assist families in crisis to meet immediate needs. Some savings groups have designated social funds that can also serve this purpose.

Investigate sequenced HES approaches with realistic expectations: Nongovernmental agencies that work on reintegrating children into family care and preventing separation report a growing interest in graduation/pathways models such as the CGAP-Ford Foundation Graduation Approach (de Montesquiou et al. 2014) or as described in PEPFAR’s *Guidance for Orphans and Vulnerable Children Programming* (PEPFAR 2012) and the related LIFT Program *Economic Strengthening for Vulnerable Children: Resource Guide* (Evans et al. 2013). The SEEP Network’s State of Practice HES paper reports agreement across organizations on the need for sequenced and integrated HES interventions tailored to household circumstances, capacities, opportunities, and constraints, but finds less agreement that graduation out of poverty is a key goal (Markel and Getliffe 2014). Background work for that paper found that concerns remain related to the resource-intensiveness, and therefore sustainability, of the graduation model as a program approach, the non-linear nature of vulnerability, and questions about whether labor-constrained households can really graduate into a situation where they have sustainable livelihoods not dependent on external support. These concerns are salient in the contexts of family separation and reintegration of children into vulnerable households. A similar concern might be posed regarding the readiness of families undergoing a highly emotional reintegration

process to benefit from a sequenced and time-bound program. Offering/enabling a series of sequenced HES interventions for families that are reintegrating children or specific families identified as being at very high risk of family-child separation may also pose severe logistical and coordination challenges to program implementers who support a geographically dispersed caseload of families at different stages of a reintegration process.

Challenges notwithstanding, tailored and sequenced ES interventions hold promise for programming in support of reintegration and prevention of separation. Practitioners should bear time and geographic constraints in mind, be realistic about expectations, think about multi-staged processes (for example, immediate consumption support to help a household stabilize, followed by an opportunity to save, followed by an opportunity to generate income), consider how families might be supported over time and after a funded project ends, and be creative and outward looking in helping families access economic/financial services where appropriate.

Work on tools and approaches to assess the potential risk of separation and the durability of reintegration: This review found only limited work on identifying families at risk of separation and tracking the durability of reintegration. The proportion of households from which children leave family care entirely, as opposed to going to live with extended family members elsewhere, is quite small, which may make finding them costly and time-consuming. While programs in some countries (for example, Hope and Homes for Children programs in Central and Eastern Europe) work with families identified through the social welfare system and linked services as being at-risk, this is not possible everywhere. Families at risk of separation may be socially isolated and lack social networks that might aid in their identification. In some contexts, trying to identify families at risk of separation or re-separation may pose the risk of singling children or families out in ways that could stigmatize them. Some practitioners suggest using multi-layered sequential processes that involve using government data, where it exists, to identify high-risk geographic areas and households, local government and community-level processes, and household-level assessment that use a variety of tools (Laumann and Namey 2015). More work must be done to understand how to identify such households in discreet and sensitive ways. Tracking the durability of reintegration requires systematic approaches and sustainable human and other resources that enable follow-up over time.

Hypothesize and test causal pathways: There is more work to do to conceptualize the ways in which HES interventions can support reintegration of children into family care as well as to prevent their separation, and in which contexts. For any given context, project development should start with the development of a theory of change that explains expected effects of interventions. These theories should be periodically revisited during project implementation to see if they, and consequently the interventions, should be revised based on what has been learned. Would an assumption that improved economic circumstances contribute to improved parenting be viable or untenable? Would it be sufficient for HES interventions to support basic consumption needs, increase incomes, and/or build assets in most cases, and for what profiles of families, as long as they do no harm to children and are designed in a way to increase benefits (for example, by being targeted to female caregivers and/or by seeking to limit

children's labor)? Is it expected that HES interventions should contribute to family stability by improving the safety and well-being of children and adults and the fulfillment of basic rights? In a given context, are there ES interventions, alone or in combination with other interventions that have realistic potential to strengthen and support caregiving skills and methods?

Questions for Further Research

There is much to learn about the roles HES can play in supporting families to stay together and reintegrate children into family care. The questions below, with possible priority questions bolded, suggest a research agenda for practitioners and researchers.

Identifying vulnerability to family-child separation

- **What are the most effective strategies/methods/tools for conducting assessments of vulnerability to child separation? Do they change for different contexts? What are the time, costs, and levels of effort required?**
- **Exactly what role do household economic conditions play in vulnerability to child separation? What supports do parents in a particular context feel would best enable families to stay together?**
- **What are the limitations of vulnerability assessments vis-à-vis threats to children's well-being and protection and/or child separation? What are common challenges to collecting these types of data and what risks exist, if any?**
- Is it always essential to assess household economic capacity when designing a program to prevent family-child separation and support reunification/reintegration? What is the relative effectiveness and cost-efficiency, in different contexts, of:
 - a) implementing packages of ES and social interventions in geographic areas known to have higher than average risk factors for family-child separation or known high incidence of family-child separation, without conducting prior household-level assessment, versus
 - b) targeting packages of ES and social interventions only at households determined by assessment to be at high risk of family child separation that have already experienced separation?
- What are measures for economic and social strengths and resilience at the community level? How could measuring them help in designing relevant community-level services and interventions to prevent family-child separation and support reintegration?
- What are the most effective ways to identify families that have already separated, for possible reintegration efforts?

Intervention design

- **What are the most promising practices for households where education expenses seem the most significant driver of family-child separation? For example, what are the relative cost efficiencies, or other efficiencies, and what is the relative effectiveness of unconditional or education-conditioned cash transfers, other asset transfers, and education-related or other savings to enable education**

access and help prevent separation or promote integration?

- **What are the most promising practices for households where nutritional expenses seem the most threatening driver of family-child separation? For example, what are the relative cost efficiencies, or other efficiencies, and what is the relative effectiveness of consumption support through conditional or unconditional cash transfers, other productive asset or input transfers such as seeds or equipment/tools and/or business skills and savings, and lending as a means to help prevent separation or promote reintegration?**
- **What are the most productive ways to integrate ES interventions with the full range of psychosocial support also needed to prevent separation or promote reintegration? A single provider for all services? Partnerships between (international/regional/local) NGOs with varying specialties? Partnerships between NGOs and government agencies (e.g., social services)?**
- **Is household-level targeting, and customization of service packages for each household, the best path to prevention of separation and promotion of reintegration? Is such precise targeting of the beneficiary population (apart from the general population) both possible and practical?**
- **Is it possible to serve this target population effectively by offering community-wide interventions that do not attempt household-level targeting?**
- **What does experience and evidence to date tell us about the range of ES interventions that should be brought to bear on the target population to prevent separation or promote integration (e.g., asset transfers, savings groups, formal savings, financial literacy, microenterprise training, and other skill-building)?**
- **What are the most essential non-ES interventions (e.g., psychosocial support) needed to pair with ES interventions to prevent separation or promote integration?**

Effectiveness/impact of different HES interventions in the contexts of reintegration of children in family care and prevention of family-child separation

- **To what extent do relevant and effective ES interventions increase the likelihood of children's successful, permanent reintegration and through what mechanisms (e.g., more adequate fulfillment of basic needs, reduction of parents' stress, improved household functioning)?**
- **How effective and appropriate are different ES approaches in preventing separation and/or supporting reintegration of children in family care over shorter and longer periods of time? In what contexts are they appropriate? Do different approaches have different implications for boys/girls/mothers/fathers?**
- **What is the effect over time of cash assistance versus asset-based programming in enabling durable reintegration of children in family care?**
- **In what contexts, and in which ways, are savings groups effective interventions that can help prevent children's separation and support their reintegration in family care? Does group member gender make a difference? What challenges arise in savings groups that could hinder reintegration or affect family-child**

separation?

- **In what contexts, and in which ways, are business skills training and support for income-generating activities effective interventions that can help prevent children's separation and support their reintegration in family care? Who are the most appropriate recipients? What skills, competencies and attributes should recipients have to be able to benefit from these interventions?**
- What are the best research methods/designs to evaluate the effectiveness of programs that aim to prevent separation and promote reintegration? What methods/designs are ruled out (e.g., is it possible and practical to study separation prospectively)?
- What ES interventions are most supportive of families in which children are reintegrating, in which contexts, and why?
- What are the effects of ES interventions on preventing re-separation of children?
- Do cash transfers affect children's psychosocial distress, sexual exploitation, and physical violence?
- What are the ways in which cash transfers can help protect children in emergencies? Is their impact solely economic? Does gender of the recipient matter?
- Do conditionalities added to cash and/or non-cash ES interventions help prevent separation or re-separation of children? Does gender of the child make a difference?
- What are ethical considerations involved in evaluating and comparing ES interventions in support of children's reintegration and prevention of separation?

ANNEX A: ILLUSTRATIVE LIST OF CURRENT AND RECENT US GOVERNMENT-FUNDED PROJECTS RELATED TO CHILDREN IN INSTITUTIONS, TRAFFICKED CHILDREN, CHILDREN IN LABOR

Current USAID Displaced Children and Orphans Fund-Supported Projects Addressing Deinstitutionalization of Children and Prevention of Separation

Organization	Partners	Country	Project	Time-frame	Issue/context	ES interventions	Other interventions
Child Fund	Retrak, TPO, Child's I, ICRU	Uganda	DCOF—Deinstitutionalization of Orphans and Vulnerable Children in Uganda	2014–2017	Deinstitutionalization, prevention of separation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ES—assets, cash transfers, cash management, savings, credit, financial literacy, basic business skills, youth vocational skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improve parenting skills • Address substance abuse • Strengthen community structures/fabric • Support national child care reform, including Alternative Care Framework, assessment of child care institutions, training of social workers, and technical assistance • Improve treatment of street children and support reintegration
NCC-UNICEF	Ministries, local authorities, CHF, Hope and Homes for Children, other NGOs and CBOs	Rwanda	DCOF—Tubarerere Mu Muryango! (Let's Raise Children in Families!)	2013–2015	Deinstitutionalization, prevention of separation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide tailored reintegration package based on five core domains: living conditions, health, education, family and social relationships, and household economy via Government and partner NGOs • Possible pilot test of targeted child care grant • Leverage partner NGO economic strengthening activities (CHF examples: Positive Deviance (PD) Hearth, Farmer Field Schools, Internal Saving and Lending Groups, gradually decreasing subsidy to 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support staffing of NCC and consultancies, secretariat function • Assist NCC with capacity assessment, strategy, policy development • Support recruitment and capacity development of 68 local social work staff • Support deinstitutionalization of children, training caregivers • Provide continuing support to families—tailored package, family performance contracts • Support links to complementary social protection programs • Prevent abandonment and institutionalization: community-based mechanisms, early intervention via health centers and maternity wards, community-based gate-keeping/hubs, emergency foster care, emergency reception centers • Transform orphanages into child-centered community-based services • Budget planning provision, integrate services into civil service, reform structures • Case management/ monitoring system(s), data management, assessments

Organization	Partners	Country	Project	Time-frame	Issue/context	ES interventions	Other interventions
						secure education and health care, early child development, psychosocial support)	
CHF	Hope and Homes for Children	Rwanda	DCOF—Ishama Mu Muryango (Pride for Family)	2013–2015	Deinstitutionalization, prevention of separation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Farmer Field Schools Savings and Lending Groups Tailored reintegration package Declining subsidies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Prepare children and families for reintegration Place/reintegrate children Build family resilience through ES, PD Hearth, ECD, PSS Support alternative care and prevention service planning in target districts—mapping and identifying service gaps Probable interventions to address gaps: childcare networks and emergency reception centers Support closing institutions to develop transformation plans Strengthen capacity of child care professionals to design and deliver community-based care services
UNICEF	Ministry of National Solidarity, Family, and Community Development Centers, IRC, potentially other partners, including AVSI, CRS, HealthNet TPO, and national NGOs	Burundi	DCOF—Building a Caring Environment for Children in Burundi	2013–2016	Deinstitutionalization, improved institutional care, prevention of separation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provide children with short-term assistance for reintegration (including access to school and/or vocational training, psychosocial support) and placement monitoring for at least 12 months 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Support the implementation of the Minimum Standards on children in institutions or deprived of family care Build the capacity of 50 government social workers Support documentation and management of cases Support government to undertake best interest determination (BID) and develop case plans Support child protection committees (CPCs, supportive environment) Community/parenting education Support social worker home visits Support child helpline
IRC	Dutabarane	Burundi	DCOF—Family Care First: A Project to Ensure Children in Burundi are Placed in Protective and Permanent Family Care	2013–2017	Deinstitutionalization, prevention of separation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify families at risk of separation for economic reasons (include alternative care placement families) and reach with VSLA to increase family economic resources Provide additional training on financial literacy, business plan development, and 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Healing Families and Communities Group Discussions—refine to address particular context Specialized trainings Community mechanisms—work with Child Protection Committees and Centers for Family Development and Community Development Strengthen community structures to serve as gatekeepers Strengthen Government of Burundi structures and staff capacities to advance CP policy frameworks Use VSLA groups as an opportunity to discuss positive parenting

Organization	Partners	Country	Project	Time-frame	Issue/context	ES interventions	Other interventions
						<p>community business networking opportunities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bring the most vulnerable individuals into Family Support Groups—mechanisms for delivery of cash and in-kind support, plus support from case workers, training in life skills, and referrals to social services (direct support may include health insurance, basic personal needs, meals, cash transfers, tools/seeds/poultry/livestock) • Seek to transfer Family Support Group members to VSLA 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encourage VSLA group members to form Parent Support Groups • Connect families of children with disabilities to support, build skills, link to VSLA/FSG/parenting • Conduct outreach with religious communities re: family care vs. institutions • Work with disabled persons organizations to integrate children with disabilities back into communities • Facilitate access to inclusive education • Support family tracing and reunification and alternative care placements
Partnership for Every Child		Moldova	DCOF—Children in Moldova are cared for in safe and secure families	2014–2017	Deinstitutionalization, prevention of separation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coordinate economic strengthening through Social Assistance and Family Protection Directorate 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organize UK learning visits for policy/decision makers at national and local levels • Train social workers and CP specialists on new Law on Special Protection of Children • Strengthen communication capacity • Build alliances • Support government to develop a new Child Participation Policy • International conference • Support local areas to develop plans/models for strengthening and preserving family care • Train local teams on respite care • Assist local authorities to put in place plans to develop parenting skills and provide psychosocial support for children living in households with alcohol abuse, etc. • Pilot test US-developed Strengthening Families Program • Support state and non-state actors to directly support families at risk, usually coordinated by regional Social Assistance and Family Protection Directorate

Current and Recent US Department of State-Funded Projects Potentially Supporting Prevention and Reintegration of Trafficked Children and Department of Labor-Funded Projects to Remove Children from Hazardous and Exploitative Labor

Organization	Partners	Country	Project	Time-frame	Issue/context	ES interventions	Other interventions
World Hope International		Sierra Leone	GTIP	2013 (24 months)	Trafficking	• Not specified	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work with village parent groups to prevent trafficking from rural areas to the cities, and to facilitate the reintegration of survivors • Support collaborative work with community anti-trafficking groups, local law enforcement personnel, and victim service providers to develop a coordinated response to trafficking through service provision and raising awareness
World Hope International		Liberia	GTIP	2014 (24 months)	Trafficking	• Not specified	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support national referral mechanism with standard operating procedures for victim identification and referral • Short-term emergency shelter and holistic case management and reintegration assistance for up to 50 victims of trafficking • National anti-trafficking hotline
Plan International USA		Senegal (talibés)	GTIP	2013 (36 months)	Trafficking (talibés—Quranic schools, begging)	• Not specified	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Raise awareness • Build capacity of law enforcement and legal personnel • Provide services for talibé victims and other vulnerable children
IOM		Burma	GTIP	2013 (36 months)	Trafficking	• Not specified	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase the capacity of a national network of nongovernmental organizations • Build partnerships with local and international NGOs • Prioritize and significantly increase victim identification and protection efforts • Develop and implement referral procedures
IOM		Indonesia	GTIP	2013	Trafficking	• Not specified	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop a comprehensive trafficking assessment in Java • Produce local anti-trafficking plans of action in four districts, • Train lawyers on best practices for assisting trafficking victims • Provide comprehensive support services to victims in these provinces.
IOM		Haiti	GTIP	2014 (24 months)	Trafficking	• Not specified	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establish/institutionalize a national referral mechanism in Haiti • Establish a counter-trafficking working group to be led by the Haitian government and actively engaged with key NGO and other service provider stakeholders • Support local NGOs to provide coordinated and effective direct assistance to child victims of trafficking.

Organization	Partners	Country	Project	Time-frame	Issue/context	ES interventions	Other interventions
Rugmark		Afghanistan	GTIP	2013 (36 months)	Trafficking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not specified 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rescue children and women from situations of forced labor through direct access to carpet weavers • Provide direct assistance to rescued trafficking victims and to those seriously at risk of trafficking • Develop its public-private partnership model • Work to establish a group of leading Afghan companies that adhere to global fair labor standards
Heartland Alliance		DRC	GTIP	2014 (20 months)	Trafficking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not specified 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide comprehensive services to victims of human trafficking • Strengthen coordination and collaboration between civil society and the Government of the DRC • Establish a formal mechanism that enables diverse stakeholders to proactively identify victims of trafficking and refer them to appropriate care • Track and monitor human trafficking cases • Devise a unified system for documenting and collecting data that will be used to assess progress and inform recommendations to the Congolese government • Conduct public awareness campaigns to prevent human trafficking through community education and mobilization, innovative radio broadcasts, and training for community focal points
World Vision	Mennonite Social Action Commission (CASM), Funpadem, Caritas	Honduras	Futuros Brillantes: Project to Reduce Child Labor and Improve Labor Rights and Working Conditions in Honduras	2014-2017	Hazardous labor—maquiladora sector	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide households economic strengthening services, including establishing youth banks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide formal or non-formal education or vocational training to children and youth • Link adults to alternate formal education system or with the government's adult and child literacy program • Build labor inspector capacity to identify and detect labor law violations, in particular child labor and other violations of labor rights, document them, and help remediate violations • Establish workers' rights through training on freedom of association, organizing and collective bargaining • Conduct awareness raising campaigns
Winrock International		Rwanda, etc.	DOL Rwanda Education Alternatives for Children in Tea-Growing Areas (REACH-T)	2013–2017	Hazardous labor—tea	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide scholarships to children to attend formal primary schools and non-formal Catch Up program • Support youth with agricultural vocational education and improved employment opportunities, 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop a mobile-phone child labor monitoring system • Conduct baseline and endline surveys on child labor prevalence in all tea-producing regions • Establish a roundtable/develop a code of conduct for the Rwandan tea industry • Improve access to and quality of education (improved learning environments, school infrastructure rehabilitation, teacher training and peer mentoring) • Train/support district labor inspectors to strengthen the enforcement of child labor laws on smallholder farms

Organization	Partners	Country	Project	Time-frame	Issue/context	ES interventions	Other interventions
						<ul style="list-style-type: none"> including through linkages and advocacy with tea companies, establishment of Model Farm Schools, and provision of occupational safety equipment • Improve sustainable livelihoods of target households through the provision of entrepreneurship and life skills training; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Raise awareness on child labor, the benefits of education, and hazards found in the production of tea among cooperative members and tea companies • Conduct an assessment of Rwanda's labor inspection system and research on occupational safety and health in the tea sector • Build the capacity of the Government, tea industry, child protection committees, and community activists to address child labor
Winrock International		Liberia	DOL Actions to Reduce Child Labor (ARCH) in Areas of Rubber Production	2012–2016	Hazardous labor—rubber	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improve sustainable livelihoods: • Link and advocate with rubber companies • Establish Model Farm Schools • Provide occupational safety equipment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Capture OSHA best practices • Advisory council • Improve education access and quality • Build capacity of government and other institutions • Improve stakeholder capacity to enforce child labor and safety provisions • Capture best practices and develop occupational safety and health guidelines for the rubber-agriculture sector, in collaboration • Establish an Advisory Council to share information on developments in the rubber sector and advise future efforts • Improve access to and quality of education (improved learning environments, school infrastructure rehabilitation, curriculum development and provision of teacher training and peer mentoring) • Train/support Governmental institutions and industry groups, including on international labor standards • Improve stakeholders' capacity to enforce child labor and worker safety provisions in land-lease/concession and collective bargaining agreements; • Establish Champion Communities and Child Labor Monitoring committees • Raise awareness on child labor and the importance of education throughout the target areas
Goodweave		Afghanistan	DOL Project to Prevent Child Labor in Home-based Carpet Production in Afghanistan	2013–2017	Hazardous labor—carpet	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide education and livelihood services to target children and their families 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Technically support new and existing Afghan partner companies to adopt and implement GoodWeave's certification standard • Expand GoodWeave's independent third party verification system to monitor existing and new

Organization	Partners	Country	Project	Time-frame	Issue/context	ES interventions	Other interventions
							<p>partner company(ies) compliance with GoodWeave standard</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Engage key and industry stakeholders to build broad support for and sustainability of project impact • Create direct market linkages to consumers and retailers for child labor-free Afghan carpets • Research the nature of child labor in home-based carpet weaving and the carpet supply chain • Develop multi-media and traditional public awareness campaigns on the worst forms of child labor in the carpet sector for the community and other stakeholders
Creative Associates		Morocco	DOL Project Pathways: Reducing Child Labor through Viable Paths in Education and Decent Work (Promise Pathways)	2013–2017	Domestic work, agricultural work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Build the capacity of household members to secure needed livelihoods and social protection and support opportunities thereby preventing the necessity of making children work 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase school attendance through increased parent involvement, providing learning opportunities, safe schools • Provide career counseling, non-formal education, and training programs in rural areas • Coordinated intake/assessment and referral process to a network of service providers • Support Government of Morocco’s development of integrated child protection services by building the capacity of officials to improve child labor inspections; update and operationalize hazardous list; and train on the collection and analysis of child labor data • Build the capacity of civil society organizations to assess the needs of the populations they serve and advocate for positive change; improve coordination with stakeholders to ensure effective service delivery; provide them with training and tools to develop and/or join networks to leverage greater impact
CRS		Dominican Republic	DOL Project to Reduce Child Labor and Improve Labor Rights and Working Conditions in the Dominican republic - Let's Work for Our Rights	2013–2017	Hazardous labor—agriculture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct comprehensive assessments of local markets • Train communities and households on savings and micro-entrepreneurship • Offer vocational training through the national vocational institute (INFOTEP) or other programs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase education access • Home visits
PACT, Inc.		Colombia	DOL Reducing Child Labor in Colombia	2013–2017	Hazardous labor—mining	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide livelihood services, including 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pilot anti-child-labor policies • Mobile technology to track child labor and occupational safety and health violations

Organization	Partners	Country	Project	Time-frame	Issue/context	ES interventions	Other interventions
						implementing a savings program	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide online accreditation program for mine inspectors • Raise awareness of OSH and child labor among miners' associations • Increase access and quality of educational services
Partners of the Americas		Ecuador and Panama	DOL Educafuturo	2012–2016	Hazardous labor—agriculture, domestic work, informal sector	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create links to job training (Panama) • Create links to government small business support (Ecuador) • Link beneficiaries to microfinance and savings clubs • Offer vocational training for migrants • Enroll adolescents in an education and job promotion program (A Ganar) • Link youth to existing skills-building programs to create private sector partnerships to reduce child labor • Conduct supply chain, stakeholder mapping, and value-chain analysis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Offer accelerated education courses (Espacios para Crecer) • Link beneficiaries with government and NGO social protection through “social service fairs” • Link youth to existing skills-building programs to create private sector partnerships to reduce child labor • Conduct supply chain, stakeholder mapping, and value-chain analysis • Enroll and mainstream disabled children in EPCs, A Ganar, and schools
World Vision		Cambodia	DOL Cambodians EXCEL: Eliminating eXploitative Child Labor through Education and Livelihoods	2012–2016	Exploitative labor—agriculture, fishing, domestic work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Offer livelihood support and social protection programs to working and at-risk children and targeted household members that will alleviate the root causes of child labor by increasing agricultural productivity and promoting new agricultural options, diversifying income through non-agricultural activities, and linking to financial 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expand and enhance formal schools and alternative learning opportunities, including vocational education for targeted children • Strengthen educational services through teacher training, curriculum improvement, and infrastructure repairs • Provide educational support services to help children succeed and stay in school, including tutoring and mentoring, provision of school supplies, and support to community libraries • Provide technical support and capacity-building initiatives to national, provincial, district, and local governmental institutions to improve policies, legislation, and service delivery • Raise awareness on child labor and the importance of education through interactive and interpersonal

Organization	Partners	Country	Project	Time-frame	Issue/context	ES interventions	Other interventions
						services and social protection programs	awareness-raising, mass mobilization, and private sector engagement; and <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct research on topics such as child domestic service, impact of adult migration on child well-being, and land rights and child labor
Counterpart International	Terre des Hommes	Burkina Faso	DOL Reducing Child Labor through Education and Services (R-CLES)	2012–2016	Hazardous labor, forced labor—gold and cotton	Promote sustainable livelihoods for households and youth employment as alternatives to child labor through VSLA, links to finance opportunities, household livelihood activities, and youth employment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Raise awareness on dangers and impacts of child labor • Increase children’s and youths’ education opportunities and skills through formal education, non-formal education, and vocational service opportunities • Enhance capacity of government by developing a community-based child labor monitoring system and supporting research, evaluation, and data collection
IRC	World Vision, Foundation for Civil Society, Kiota Women’s Health Development, Tanga Youth Development, Association The Institute for Development Studies at the University of Dar es Salaam	Tanzania	DOL Wekeza: Wezesha Ustawi, Endeza Kiwango Cha Elimu Kuzia Ajira Kwa Watoto/ Invest: Supporting Livelihoods and Developing Quality Education to Stop Child Labor	2012–2016	Hazardous labor—tobacco sisal, domestic service	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase income and asset accumulation from agriculture • Increase access to alternative livelihoods options • Increase ability to withstand shocks through savings • Increase youth access to safe and productive employment through skills development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase formal and non-formal education enrollment and quality • Strengthen institutional capacity and policies to address child labor, including through developing a child labor monitoring system • Raise awareness at local and national levels about child domestic labor
World Vision	MEDA Mission for Community Development Program (MCDP)	Ethiopia	DOL Ethiopians Fighting Against Child Exploitation (E-FACE)	2011–2015	Exploitative labor—weaving, rural areas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Offer livelihood support and social protection programs to working and at-risk children and targeted household members that will alleviate the 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expand and enhance formal and non-formal learning opportunities • Improve education quality • Provide occupational safety and health training to labor inspectors • Conduct research on child labor, hazardous work, and youth employment

Organization	Partners	Country	Project	Time-frame	Issue/context	ES interventions	Other interventions
						<ul style="list-style-type: none"> root causes of child labor by increasing weaving productivity through equipment upgrades, building the capacity of cooperatives and linking beneficiaries to new markets and microfinance options 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Support government to improve policies, legislation, and service delivery Work with traditional weaving industry and other stakeholders to develop a child-safe woven product certification standard
World Vision		Philippines	DOL Project to Combat Exploitative Child Labor in Sugarcane Growing Areas of the Philippines	2011–2015	Hazardous labor—sugarcane areas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Offer livelihood support and social protection programs to working and at-risk children and targeted household members that will alleviate the root causes of child labor by increasing agricultural productivity, diversifying income through non-agricultural activities, and linking to microfinance options and social protection programs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expand and enhance formal schools and alternative learning opportunities Strengthen educational services Provide educational support services to help children succeed and stay in school Provide technical support, advocacy, and capacity-building initiatives to governmental institutions to improve policies, legislation, and service delivery Raise awareness Increase capacity of sugar producers to combat child labor
Centro de Desarrollo y Autogestion	World Learning Centro de Estudios y Promoción del Desarrollo (DESCO)	Peru	DOL Proyecto Semilla (Seed Project): Combatting Exploitative Rural Child Labor in Peru	2011–2015	Hazardous labor—rural areas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provide training and livelihood support, including training and peer- to-peer assistance on improving crop yields and harvest management, connecting targeted families to existing social protection services, and the introduction of technological improvements that can replace child labor in agricultural production 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Support education and vocational training Improve quality of schools Support local and national government to improve policies, legislation, and service delivery Provide TA and exchange opportunities for CSOs Raise awareness on child labor and importance of education Conduct research and disseminate findings on the impact of government social protection systems on exploitative child labor, the relationship between household characteristics and child labor, and the specific occupational hazards associated with child labor
Save the Children	The Jordanian	Jordan	DOL Promising Futures: Reducing	2010–2014		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increase access of selected households 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Build on existing rehabilitation and reintegration services and expand to new areas of the country

Organization	Partners	Country	Project	Time-frame	Issue/context	ES interventions	Other interventions
	Hashemite Fund for Human Development		Child Labor in Jordan through Education and Sustainable Livelihoods			to financial and financial literacy services, non-formal education programs, and producer and marketing groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify and enroll child beneficiaries in formal and non-formal education, vocational training, and internship programs Establish capacity at the local and governorate levels to monitor and track both child labor and social services for child beneficiaries Increase awareness among key stakeholders at the community and governorate levels on the negative effects of exploitive child labor and the importance of education Conduct needs assessments on the prevalence of exploitive and worst forms of child labor; education performance; and the economic profile of targeted households and schools Establish sustainability and roll-out plans with key government and NGO stakeholders
Desarrollo y Autogestion	Government agencies at multiple levels, Indigenous organizations, Universities, public schools, and think tanks, NGOs, UN agencies, Businesses	Bolivia	DOL ÑAUPAQMAN PURIY KEREIMBA: Combating Exploitive Child Labor Through Education in Bolivia	2010–2014	Hazardous/forced labor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provide vocational education and occupational training that is linked to businesses, to generate decent employment for adolescents and youth and promote corporate social responsibility Offer support to small enterprises that raise household incomes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provide accelerated basic and secondary education program for over-age students, in support of Bolivia's new education law Reinsert and retain children in school through scholarships Implement after-school academic support programs and summer school activities Develop technical secondary school programs Conduct awareness-raising campaigns, including of health and occupational hazards inflicted by the worst forms of child labor Collaborate with the Child Labor Inspection System of the Ministry of Labor, the Municipal Children and Adolescent Defender's Offices, and indigenous organizations
Save the Children	Local NGO partners	Indonesia	DOL Eliminate Exploitive Child Labor Through Education and Economic Development (EXCEED)	2009–2014	Exploitative work—domestic service, plantations, street, sex work, forced labor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Link up with apprenticeship and internship programs to provide alternate livelihood options for withdrawn children 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provide educational services to children, including a mix of formal education, non-formal education, skills training, and the creation of farm schools in West Kalimantan Establish community support and reintegration centers to provide individualized care for children being withdrawn from exploitive labor who are in need of such care Create a web-based data entry system (FieldLink Indonesia) to track, analyze, document, and evaluate all data on program beneficiaries Form working groups to address child labor at the national and local levels Conduct a national survey and two small-scale studies on children working in plantation agriculture and children engaged in CSEC

Organization	Partners	Country	Project	Time-frame	Issue/context	ES interventions	Other interventions
							<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Execute public campaigns to raise awareness on child labor issues and the importance of education.

ANNEX B: ILLUSTRATIVE LIST OF INTERNATIONAL AND NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS WORKING ON DEINSTITUTIONALIZATION, REINTEGRATION, AND PREVENTION OF SEPARATION

International NGOs/IOs Working on Deinstitutionalization, Reintegration, and Prevention of Separation

Organization	Country	Issue/Context	Partners	Comments
Child Fund	Sierra Leone			
Save the Children	India	Family, kinship, alternative care, exploitative labor, child trafficking		
Save the Children	Philippines	Children without appropriate care		
Save the Children	Indonesia	Prevention of institutionalization		
Save the Children	Cambodia	Monitor institutions, support OVC, prevent sexual exploitation	Women Organization for Modern Economic and Nursing (WOMEN) Phnom Srey Organization for Development (PSOD)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Income generating activities for OVC
Save the Children	Tanzania	Child labor		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fighting the Worst Forms of Child Labour project is funded by the European Commission and Embassy of Sweden/SIDA IGA (goat keeping, poultry keeping, beekeeping, horticulture, tailoring)
Save the Children	Guatemala			
Save the Children	Egypt	Street children	Hope Village Society	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reception center Microloans
Save the Children	Nicaragua			
SOS Children's Villages				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 110 countries Alternative care Family strengthening Emergency response Education and life skills Child rights advocacy Food Seeds School fees Microcredit

Organization	Country	Issue/ Context	Partners	Comments
Hope and Homes for Children	Rwanda	Deinstitutionalization, families at risk of breakdown		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reintegration • Adoption/fostering • Active family support model (living conditions, family and social relationships, education, physical and mental health, household economy) • Community-based support
Hope and Homes for Children	Sudan	Abandonment, infants		
Hope and Homes for Children	Belarus	Abandonment, children under 3		
Hope and Homes for Children	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Prevention of abandonment, young adults leaving institutions		
Hope and Homes for Children	Moldova	Abandonment,		
Hope and Homes for Children	Bulgaria	Abandonment, institutions for babies		
Hope and Homes for Children	Romania	Abandonment		
Hope and Homes for Children	Ukraine	Abandonment		
Project Concern International	Zambia	Street children		• DCOF, PEPFAR Africa KidSafe 2004–2010
Retrak	Uganda	Street children	Child Restoration Outreach Dwelling Places	
Retrak	Ethiopia	Street children	Organization for the Prevention, Rehabilitation, and Integration of Girl Street Children Rift Valley Children and Women Development Association	
Retrak	Kenya	Street children	Child Rescue Kenya	
Retrak	Tanzania	Street children	Mkombozi	
Retrak	Malawi	Street children	Chisomo Children's Club	
Heartland Alliance	Sri Lanka	Child soldiers		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vocational training • Business plan development • Links to microcredit • Psychological and psychosocial counseling • Mentoring • Language skills

Organization	Country	Issue/ Context	Partners	Comments
Jubilee Action (now Chance for Childhood)	West Kenya	Street children, risk of trafficking		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Start-up materials for parents for small businesses • Reunite children with family • Temporary shelter • Informal education at shelter • Family counselors
CRS	Egypt	Trafficking of girls	Al Horreya	
Friends International	Cambodia	Street children, other vulnerable children		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social business • Vocation training business for youth (beauty class, nail bar, mechanic workshop, electricity workshop, appliance workshop, motorbike repair workshop, welding workshop, sewing) • Caretaker vocational training (handcrafted products from recycled paper, support in setting up microbusiness)
Terre des Hommes	India	Trafficking		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improved rehabilitation and reintegration services for child victims of trafficking through strengthened state-run protection systems in Andhra Pradesh 2013–2016
Terre des Hommes	Myanmar	Deinstitutionalization, child migration, forced labor		
Terre des Hommes	Sri Lanka	Conflict-affected children	Funded by TdH NL, EU	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reintegration of war-affected children and former child combatants • Temporary shelter • Medical care • Food • Counseling • Personal skills training • Formal and informal education • Vocational training
EveryChild			Works in 12 countries with local partners	
War Child Holland				
World Hope International	Cambodia	Poverty, risk of sex work, separation, garment factories, domestic service		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adelpho Project • Health—clean water, sanitation facilities and mobile clinics • Education—business planning, budgeting training, human trafficking awareness and health and hygiene training • Agriculture—seed loans, animal multiplication, irrigation and/or water harvesting
Lumos Foundation	Moldova	Deinstitutionalization		Provides support on deinstitutionalization in Greece, Israel, Ukraine, Russia, Serbia, Japan, Malaysia

Organization	Country	Issue/ Context	Partners	Comments
Lumos Foundation	Bulgaria	Deinstitutionalization		
Lumos Foundation	Czech Republic	Deinstitutionalization		
Lumos Foundation	Haiti	Deinstitutionalization		

National Organizations Working on Deinstitutionalization, Reintegration, and Prevention of Separation

Organization	Country	Issue/ context	Project	Comments
Simukai Child Protection Program	Zimbabwe		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ZOE Orphan Empowerment Project • ActionAid Community Capacity development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Basic needs (ZOE) • Reintegration (government) • IGA (ZOE) • Training (ZOE) • Seed (ZOE) • Fertilizer (ZOE) • Poultry • Arts and crafts (government)
Butterflies	India	Street children		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education • Health care • Financial management • Children's media • Computer skills • Support for reintegration • Night shelter • Research, advocacy training • Vocational training • Family for Every Child member
CINDI	South Africa			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Network of organizations • Family for Every Child member
Care for Children	China	Deinstitutionalization	National Family Placement Project (3 years)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family for Every Child member
Child Rights Center	Tajikistan			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family for Every Child member
ChildLink	Guyana			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family for Every Child member
Forum for Sustainable Child Empowerment (FSCE)	Ethiopia	Separation, street children		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education support • Community action plans • Savings, short-term loans • Vocational and business skills training • Family for Every Child member
Hope Village Society	Egypt	Street children		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Loans for families • Family for Every Child member
Muhammadiyah	Indonesia			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family for Every Child member

Organization	Country	Issue/ context	Project	Comments
Partnership for Every Child	Russia			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family for Every Child member
Projecto Legal	Brazil			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family for Every Child member
Undugu Society	Kenya			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family for Every Child member
Uyisenga Ni Imanzi	Rwanda	Orphan-headed households		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Counselling, house construction, legal advice, educational support, and medical help • Research and advocacy • Income generation activities • Family for Every Child member
JUCONI	Mexico	Street-involved children, violence in home		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Access to school • Support positive relationships • Instill abilities and values to succeed in workforce • Positive family communication and protection in family • International Children's Trust partner
JUCONI	Ecuador	Vulnerable families, violence in home		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Home visits • Therapy • Group activities • International Children's Trust partner
Umbrella Foundation	Nepal	Children left in unregistered orphanages		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rescue • Child care homes • Reintegration • Community support
TPO	Uganda			
Kaya Children	Bolivia	Street children		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Day center (education, psychosocial support, afterschool activities) • Transition support • Permanent homes • Transition to independence • Family reunification • Warmi Kaya (mothers, birth documentation, immunizations, basic needs) • Warmi program—trade skills training
S.A.L.V.E	Uganda	Street children		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Street outreach • Home tracing • Residential care • Family skills and business development program • Community education • Partial sponsorship • Business skills
Youth Alive	Ghana	Street children	International Children's Trust (funding)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Drop in centers • School fees • Exam fees • Books • Apprenticeship opportunities • Support for college
Challenging Heights	Ghana	Child trafficking, WFCL		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rescue • Rehabilitation (residential)

Organization	Country	Issue/ context	Project	Comments
				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reintegration • Education • Care and welfare when families don't support • Advocacy • Community sensitization • Livelihoods • Women's economic empowerment program • Links to microcredit programs • Business training and seed capital for families of rescued children • Family for Every Child member
UYDEL	Uganda			
Tjetor Vizion	Albania			
Different and Equal	Albania			
Pendekezo Letu	Kenya			
Shalom Center	Tanzania			
Atina	Serbia			
Associacao Brasileira Terra dos Homens (ABTH)	Brazil	Deinstitutionalization and adoption		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family for Every Child member
Relaf	Argentina			
Butterfly Project	Cambodia	Sexual exploitation		
Sanjog	India			
Hagar International	Cambodia			
Casa Alianza	Guatemala			
Casa Alianza	Honduras	Trafficking	GTIP 2013 (36 months)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Casa Alianza will provide comprehensive shelter and other services to children and adolescents who are trafficked or at risk for being trafficked, and provide strengthened services to meet needs of vulnerable LGBT youth
Casa Alianza	Nicaragua			
Casa Alianza	Mexico			
Blue Dragon Children's Foundation	Vietnam	Trafficking, hazardous labor, sex trade	GTIP 2014 (20 months)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rescue in collaboration with local authorities • Prevention and protection activities in Hue • Drop-in centers throughout Hue province where children can receive assistance with homework, play games, and enhance computer and language skills.

Organization	Country	Issue/ context	Project	Comments
				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meetings with families throughout the province to raise awareness of human trafficking and, when needed, provides prevention work in local schools and through radio programs. • Livelihood support to families so that they can keep their children in school
Open Door	Romania			
Dasihammke Center	South Korea			
Action Center for Youth and Vulnerable Children	DRC			
Manav Sansadhan Evam Mahila Vikas Sansthan (MSEMVS)	India			

ANNEX C: GLOBAL NETWORKS WORKING ON TOPICS RELATED TO SEPARATION OF CHILDREN FROM FAMILY CARE AND REINTEGRATION OF CHILDREN IN FAMILY CARE

Network	Members	Purpose
<p>Better Care Network (BCN)</p> <p>http://www.bettercarenetwork.org/</p> <p>Founded 2003 by the Displaced Children and Orphans Fund (DCOF) and the Africa Bureau for Sustainable Development of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), and Save the Children UK</p>	<p>Steering Group includes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Save the Children UK • UNICEF • CARE USA • USAID/DCOF • Firelight Foundation • Office of HIV/AIDS (OHA) of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) • SOS Kinderdorf International • Terra Dos Homens, Brazil • Families for Children Foundation • JF Kapnek Trust, Zimbabwe • University of Yazd, Iran • St. John's Ambulance • Human Sciences Research Council, South Africa • World Vision International • Bread for the World • Ministry of Family and Population, Egypt • Department of Social Work, University of Central Lancashire • International Foster Care Organization (IFCO) • Better Care Network Netherlands (BCNN) • Mandel School, Case Western Reserve • Oxford Policy Management • Institute of Work, Health and Organisations, The University of Nottingham • Harvard University • Rutgers University School of International Social Work • United States Agency for International Development (USAID) • Hope and Homes for Children • EveryChild • Consortium for Street Children • Feed the Children, Kenya • Independent alternative care consultants 	<p>BCN facilitates active information exchange and collaboration on the issue of children without adequate family care and advocate for technically sound policy and programmatic action on global, regional, and national levels in order to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reduce instances of separation and abandonment of children; • reunite children outside family care with their families, wherever possible and appropriate; • increase, strengthen, and support family and community-based care options for children; • establish international and national standards for all forms of care for children without adequate family care and mechanisms for ensuring compliance; and • ensure that residential institutions are used in a very limited manner and only when appropriate. <p>The BCN is guided by the UNCRC; the Guidelines for the Alternative Care of Children (welcomed by the UN General Assembly in 2009) and the 2003 Stockholm Declaration on Children and Residential Care. The BCN is not a legal entity but an interagency network.</p>
<p>Interagency Working Group on Reintegration</p> <p>Information pulled from Wedge (2013)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family for Every Child • UNICEF • Better Care Network • War Child Holland • USAID • Child Protection in Crisis Network • World Vision • Women's Refugee Commission • International Rescue Committee 	<p>The Inter-Agency Group on Children's Reintegration was formed in 2012 to pool learning from different actors engaged in this area of child protection work. The group includes NGOs and UN agencies that support the reintegration of children from a range of circumstances, including children in residential care, from the streets, who have been trafficked or migrated, and in emergency contexts. To date, the group has overseen the completion of extensive desk-based research on children's reintegration, which provides recommendations for policymakers and practitioners and identifies gaps in knowledge and</p>

Network	Members	Purpose
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Save the Children • Retrak • Home: Child Recovery and Reintegration Network • Maestral International 	<p>understanding. It is now working toward developing globally agreed guidance on key elements of good practice in children's reintegration for organizations engaged in reintegration processes, including governments, NGOs, and UN agencies.</p>
<p>Child Protection Working Group</p> <p>http://cpwg.net/</p>	<p>Core members include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • UNICEF • UNHCR • Save the Children • World Vision • Plan International • Danish Refugee Council • Child Helpline International • Terre des Hommes • Child Fund • War Child UK • War Child NL • ILO • Islamic Relief <p>The CPWG has more than 25 associate institutions.</p>	<p>The Child Protection Working Group (CPWG) is the global forum for coordination and collaboration on child protection in humanitarian settings. The group brings together NGOs, UN agencies, academics, and other partners under the shared objective of ensuring more predictable, accountable, and effective child protection responses in emergencies.</p> <p>Established in 2007 by the IASC as part of the cluster approach, the CPWG is an area of responsibility under the global Protection Cluster, which is led by the Geneva-based CPWG coordinator and supports field level child protection coordination groups in their coordination efforts and technical capacity in humanitarian situations through its Rapid Response Team (RRT) to strengthen child protection responses.</p>
<p>CPC Task Force on Livelihoods and Economic Strengthening</p> <p>http://www.cpcnetwork.org/task-force/livelihoods-and-economic-strengthening/</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fred Ssewamala, Columbia University School of Social Work, lead • Josh Chaffin, Women's Refugee Commission, lead <p>Members:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SCUUK • War Child Holland • UNICEF • ChildFund • Pop Council • DCOF • Women's Refugee Commission • Transition International • Mailman School of Public Health, Columbia U • Freedom from Hunger 	<p>The CPC Task Force on Livelihoods and Economic Strengthening seeks to enhance the protection and well-being of crisis-affected children through sustainable livelihoods approaches and economic strengthening of households. The Task Force strives to improve the design, quality, and effectiveness of economic programming, both with adults, and in economic interventions that target adolescents themselves.</p>
<p>Recovery and Reintegration from CSE: A learning network to promote and facilitate learning on recovery and reintegration for children and adolescents affected by sexual exploitation</p> <p>Contacts: hugh.salmon@familyforeverychild.org; claire.cody@beds.ac.uk; joanna.wakia@retrak.org</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family for Every Child • Retrak • International Centre: Researching Child Sexual Exploitation, Violence and Trafficking, University of Bedfordshire <p>The project will include a global reference group.</p>	<p>Family for Every Child, Retrak and the International Centre: Researching Child Sexual Exploitation, Violence and Trafficking, University of Bedfordshire, have come together to lead the implementation of this project, supported by a grant from Oak Foundation for 2015 – 2018. The project aims to increase knowledge and strengthen practice on children's Recovery and Reintegration (R&R) following Child Sexual Exploitation (CSE). It will do so by developing an open, vibrant, locally accessible global learning network. This will enable children affected by CSE to have the opportunity to benefit from and engage in the improvement of sensitive, appropriate and individualized services that support</p>

Network	Members	Purpose
		<p>successful family and community-based R&R. It is intended that services will improve as a result of practitioners' increased capacity to provide quality interventions and responses to CSE. The project will also connect with practitioners and policy makers working on R&R from other forms of abuse, exploitation and violence against children, and other initiatives advancing learning, practice and policy on children's reintegration. This network succeeds Home: The Child Recovery and Reintegration Network, which was supported by UHI Center for Rural Childhood and Oak Foundation, UNICEF, Oak, Development Links Consult/Uganda.</p>
<p>Family for Every Child http://www.familyforeverychild.org Supported by EveryChild</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Associação Brasileira Terra dos Homens, Brazil • Butterflies, India • CINDI, South Africa • Care for Children, China • Challenging Heights, Ghana • Child Rights Centre, Tajikistan • ChildLinK, Guyana • Children and Families Across Borders, UK • FSCE, Ethiopia • Hope Village Society, Egypt • Juconi, Mexico • Muhammadiyah, Indonesia • Partnership for Every Child, Russia • Projeto Legal, Brazil • Undugu Society of Kenya, Kenya • Uyisenga Ni Imanzi, Rwanda 	<p>Unique global alliance of national civil society organizations working together to improve the care of children around the world. We use our wealth of local experience and knowledge generated over years of working directly with children to advocate for and achieve better care for children globally. Together we work toward a world where every child can grow up safe and protected in families and be provided with quality alternative care when needed. Advocacy, technical assistance, practice exchange, case studies.</p>
<p>Faith to Action Initiative http://faithtoaction.org/</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leadership Council includes • Kerry Olson Founder/President Emeritus, Firelight Foundation • John Derrick, Pediatric Nurse Practitioner/Instructor of Pediatrics, University of Colorado School of Medicine/The Children's Hospital • C.H. Dyer, CEO/President, Bright Hope • Mark Lore, Vice President, Child Development and Programme Effectiveness, World Vision International • Florence Martin, Director, Better Care Network • Tendai Masiriri, Vice President of Bethany Global, Bethany Christian Services • Wendy McMahan, Director of Church Engagement, Food for the Hungry • Tanya Medrano, Technical Advisor for Vulnerable Children & Youth, FHI 360 • Diana Millner, Program Officer, Stoneleigh Foundation • Elli Oswald, Director of Mission and Outreach, Bethany Community Church • Jon Singletary, Associate Dean and Professor, Baylor School of Social Work 	<p>Resource for Christian groups, churches, and individuals seeking to respond to the needs of OVC in Africa and around the world. Focus is to encourage action that is informed by evidence-based "best practice" and that recognizes and upholds the vital importance of family and community in the life of every child.</p> <p>Promotes/aims to strengthen family-based care for children in need. Offers practical tools and resources, inspiring stories and examples, and up-to-date information on key strategies and research to help guide action. We seek to engage and equip churches and individuals through our website, publications, conference workshops, and webinars.</p>

ANNEX D: TYPOLOGY OF OPTIONS FOR ECONOMIC STRENGTHENING INTERVENTIONS

This annex extracts, with permission, the information on pages 10-25 of *What Do We Know about Economic Strengthening for Family Reintegration of Separated Children?*, written by Josh Chaffin and Anushka Kalyanpur for the Women’s Refugee Commission, Child Protection in Crisis Learning Network Task Force on Livelihoods and Economic Strengthening, and the Inter-Agency Group on Children’s Reintegration (Chaffin and Kalyanpur 2014). The full report includes references for the studies and other documents that support the information in this table.

Most ES interventions have not been evaluated rigorously for their effects on children; none have been rigorously evaluated for impact on preventing separation or supporting sustainable reintegration.

Intervention	Approach	Strengths	Limitations/Challenges
Conditional cash transfer (CCT)	Provision of regular cash transfers contingent upon specific behavior (ongoing support for child’s education, health care, food, etc.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strong evidence base relative to other ES interventions. • Can incentivize the protection of children by, for example, reducing the opportunity cost of not using child labor and instead sending children to school. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Requires specialized expertise and a safe, dependable delivery mechanism. • Children should not directly receive cash. • Some households may try to game the system to become eligible or to receive benefits more than once. Negative incentive for parents to send children to work in order to qualify. • May be less effective against the worst forms of child labor, such as slavery, sexual exploitation, and engagement in armed forces or groups. • Effects are limited in acute emergency contexts. Most effective with children who were not in an exploitative position prior to the emergency. • Risk of community jealousy, stigma, bullying, and theft.
Unconditional cash transfers	Provision of cash without conditions. The target population is often a more vulnerable one (child-headed households, elderly)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In comparison with CCTs, unconditional cash transfers give more flexibility and control to beneficiaries. • Evaluation research from Uganda showed that most poor youth beneficiaries of unconditional cash started microbusinesses in skilled trades 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Risk of community jealousy, stigma, bullying, and theft. • Children should not directly receive cash. • Some households may try to game the system to become eligible or receive benefits more than once.
Cash-for-work	Providing cash in exchange for work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can ensure best-practice working conditions (minimizing risk of exploitation, maximizing safety, restricting working hours, providing breaks, setting age limits, ensuring work is accessible to different demographics, etc. • Useful for ensuring that priority types of work are completed in a short time, such as emergency construction. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Must be monitored to ensure no increased incidence of child labor in the household. • May inadvertently attract children below working age. Programmers should use age-verification techniques. • May require provision of child care to ensure female participation. Programs should monitor to ensure household children are not pulled from school to care for siblings.
Food-for-work	Payment in food rather than money, in exchange for work.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can ensure best-practice working conditions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Must be monitored to ensure they do not cause increased incidence of child labor in beneficiary households. • May attract children below working age. Programmers should use age-verification techniques.

Intervention	Approach	Strengths	Limitations/Challenges
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can ensure beneficiaries fulfill the household's basic need for food, reducing malnutrition. 	
Vouchers	Paper, tokens, or electronic cards that can be exchanged for a set quantity or value of goods, with either a cash value or as a pre-determined set of commodities or services. Vouchers are redeemable at pre-selected vendors.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Useful to circumvent cultural norms against women dealing with money. • Could circumvent risks of giving money to children by providing vouchers for education or training. • Helps ensure payments are used for basic needs. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vendors must be carefully selected and subject to random monitoring to mitigate embezzlement of commodities. • Some households may try to game the system to become eligible or to receive benefits more than once. • Household benefits are limited to whatever goods/services are accessed via vouchers and may not address other household needs directly.
Community-managed microfinance (group savings, VSLAs)	Self-selected groups pool resources to accumulate savings and make loans to members. Groups may become a platform for provision of other types of services (health, non-formal education, etc.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proven sustainable in multiple contexts, successful at reducing poverty, building agency of female caregivers, and increasing spending on children. • Low cost per participant compared to many other ES approaches. • Suited to people too poor or risk averse for credit. Good entry point for financial literacy education. • Can help build trust between community members where social capital has eroded. • Evaluation research has shown some success in using savings groups as platforms for other kinds of programming (health, non-formal education, etc.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May pose challenges where targeted households are spread over wide areas, requiring savings groups to be mobilized around individual households. • Most successful when groups are self-selected, as social ties within the group often encourage better performance. • Groups formed for other purposes, such as health education, may not be an appropriate platform to become savings groups.
Individual savings	Savings account opened in the name of the child or caregiver. NGO can add matched savings, perhaps conditional on positive behaviors (schools attendance, clinic visits, etc.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Children can be direct beneficiaries. • Financial behaviors formed in childhood, such as how they save money, may persist into adulthood. • Facilitates relationship of beneficiary with financial institution. • Enhances motivation to save. • Evaluation research in multiple settings shows increase in child's savings, education planning, self-esteem. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One study found that individual (vs. group) saving may have resulted in greater risk of violence to girls. • Requires forming partnerships with financial institutions willing to work with low-income vulnerable populations. • Legal and policy restrictions may restrict children to non-nationals from accessing banks.
Job Placement	Job opportunities facilitated through linkages with employers. If necessary, agencies can offer a salary subsidy to employers as an incentive.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Appropriate when children are not of working age. • Appropriate for individuals who are not interested in self-employment or taking loans. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Less feasible in rural areas and where wage jobs are scarce. • May require provision of child care. Programs should monitor to ensure household children are not pulled from school to care for siblings. • Requires complementary "soft skills" education: customer service, punctuality, etc. • Requires mapping of, and maintaining relationships with, employers. • Legal and policy restrictions may restrict non-nationals from wage employment.
Apprenticeships	Working-age child/youth learns a trade under the	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Older children can be direct beneficiaries. • Child gains practical work experience for the future. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Must establish a code of conduct for employers and monitor to ensure that the work is not harmful or exploitative.

Intervention	Approach	Strengths	Limitations/Challenges
	guidance of a skilled worker.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May be more likely than Technical and Vocational Education (TVET) alone to result in near-term wage employment. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Requires mapping of and monitoring employers and the well-being of apprentices. • May result in apprentices dropping out of school. • Legal and policy restrictions may restrict non-nationals from wage employment.
Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET)	Skills are taught in a central location, sometimes in a residential facility. Length of training depends on the occupation. Often includes such additional skills as basic literacy, numeracy, business skills and life skills education, employability skills.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Older children can be direct beneficiaries. • Useful when beneficiaries are unwilling or unable to attend formal school. • Quality of training is usually higher than community-based or mobile training. • Brings much needed skilled labor into the local economy. • Graduates often leave rural areas to ply their trades in cities, but many remit a portion of their earnings back home. • Institution is often accredited, leading to certification that is officially recognized. • Additional services can be organized around the center, such as health care and consumption support. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Where such placements are residential, takes the child to be reintegrated out of the household. • Agencies often provide training based on what they have experience with, or the kinds of jobs potential trainees would like to have, and fail to conduct meaningful market analysis. Dangers include flooding local labor market with particular skills, leaving beneficiaries unable to work in their skill area. • Requires working directly with children and young people to understand their options and potential careers, managing often unrealistic expectations. • More expensive than apprenticeships or community-based or mobile training (see below). • Follow-up services after training are essential. Graduates need linkages to employers, access to capital/inputs, and job-readiness skills. • May cause some learners to drop out of formal education. • Some training centers may be hesitant to work with disadvantaged groups or fail to integrate them effectively. • Longer training duration. Some skills take a year or more to learn. • Quality of training must be sufficient, preferably in compliance with any existing national standards; however, national standards are often inadequate/out of date, requiring capacity-building interventions with government bodies.
Mobile Training	Trainers visit villages or neighborhoods for short periods. Training is tailored to the needs of the community in order to improve a given production technology or the quality of a specific product, especially in agriculture and agro-processing. Trainers can return for follow-up.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Appropriate when beneficiaries are scattered across wide geographic areas and productive inputs are locally available. • Older children can be direct beneficiaries. • Useful when beneficiaries are unable or unwilling to attend formal school. • Less expensive than training centers. • Appreciated by underserved communities; demand is often high. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can only be used to train basic skills. Not appropriate for more technical trades. • Must be planned around the agricultural calendar.
Income-Generation Activities (IGAs)	Groups or individuals receive training and/or inputs for the production of goods (handicrafts, vegetable gardening, agro-processing, etc.) and generate income to be divided among group members.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work can often be home-based, which is suitable for parents with child care responsibilities, persons legally restricted from working a wage job, disabled, or with limited mobility. • Feasible for very poor, low-skilled individuals. • Useful in both urban and rural contexts. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The rate of success of business started with externally provided resources is often low. • Must ensure existence of a market for goods produced, taking care not to flood the local economy with too much of the same IGA. • Goods produced should be up to commercial standards. • May require facilitating linkages with suppliers, buyers. • Children usually become involved in a household's home-based production, and agencies should monitor to ensure that school attendance does not suffer as a result.

Intervention	Approach	Strengths	Limitations/Challenges
Market Linkages (Value Chain, Local Economic Development)	Interventions to enhance profitability of enterprises or whole industries by studying the market system and creating linkages with actors along the value-chain. Can include negotiating with suppliers, buyers, or processors; establishing cooperatives; strengthening law and policy; improving firms' competitiveness; increasing exports; attracting investment and tourism.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Useful for non-nationals when formal employment is illegal. • Can result in significant, sustained increase in participant's income. • Urban or rural. • Integrates isolated local economies with national, regional or international markets. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The risks of failure are higher than with some other approaches, as changes within an initially promising value chain can result in significant diminished economic opportunities. • Requires careful market analysis and consultation process with relevant actors. • Requires partnership with organizations with specialized expertise. • Intervention can adversely affect other actors in the value chain, causing friction. • Interventions that require large investment or infrastructure may not be feasible.
Business Loans	Caregivers take on debt to establish or expand microenterprises. Often paired with business development services, including entrepreneurship training, and provision of productive assets.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evaluation research has shown that new spending from micro-business profits generally benefits children (education, nutrition). • Relevant in urban and rural contexts. • Particularly needed in rural areas, where access to credit is often more limited. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not everyone is an entrepreneur. • When loans are provided by a humanitarian organization that also provides grants, recipients may assume that loans need not be repaid. • Requires partnership with a qualified institution. • Inappropriate for very poor households. • May require consumption support at the outset to ensure that loan funds are not spent on rent, food, etc. • Inappropriate for children as direct beneficiaries. In most cases children are seen as uninterested in credit products or unprepared to manage debt. • Children often work in household businesses that are supported by micro-credit programs, even when they are not engaged as direct beneficiaries. • Often results in increased incidence of child labor among household children in the near term; child labor should be monitored. • Legal and policy restrictions may prevent non-nationals from accessing credit.
Small Grants for Business	Cash to establish or expand micro-enterprises. Often paired with business development services, including entrepreneurship training, and provision of productive assets.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Older children can be direct beneficiaries. • Relevant in urban and rural contexts. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not everyone is an entrepreneur. • Inappropriate for very poor households. • May require consumption support at the outset to ensure that grants are not spent on rent, food, etc. • Often results in increased incidence of child labor among household children in the near term; child labor should be monitored. • Requires substantial planning, training, support, and monitoring of business activities to increase the likelihood of success.
Provision of Access to Land	Negotiating with communities and/or municipalities for donation or sale of arable land to NGO on behalf of beneficiaries.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Well-suited to rural areas. • Can alleviate tension related to land use, resource competition. • Land ownership of caregivers is correlated with better outcomes for children. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Costly and human-resources intensive. May require mapping of land tenure and laws, access to a cadastral survey, legal assistance. • Unsuitable for urban areas. • Legal and policy restrictions may prevent non-nationals from accessing land. • May require training and ongoing agricultural extension support, facilitating market linkages.

Intervention	Approach	Strengths	Limitations/Challenges
Micro-franchising	Creation of scaled-down versions of existing businesses using proven marketing and sales techniques. With supplies and training from established firms (and support from NGOs), caregivers and/or youth sell retail goods or provide services.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Older children could be direct participants. • Well-suited for urban areas. • Parent firms share burden of risk in determining whether demand for goods/services exists. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Micro-franchising is a newer approach with little evidence available on its overall effectiveness, much less for children and youth. • Franchisees require training in business and life skills; mentoring; savings accounts; start-up grants. • Outreach to firms requires time, relationship-building. • Must work with firms and beneficiaries to ensure work is safe.
Provision of Productive Assets	Granting of animals, grinding mills, sewing machines, seeds and tools for agriculture, etc., often to complement another ES intervention (microcredit, skills training, IGA).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Older children can be direct beneficiaries. • Caregivers' asset ownership is correlated with better outcomes for household children. • May increase the likelihood of success for credit, skills training or IGA programs. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assets are often sold or traded away by beneficiaries. • Breakdown of machines, depletion of seeds/tools often leads to requests for further assistance, "dependency." • Procurement process is often slow and prone to corruption, leading to lost momentum of programs. • Goods may have to be transported long distances or to remote areas.

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