

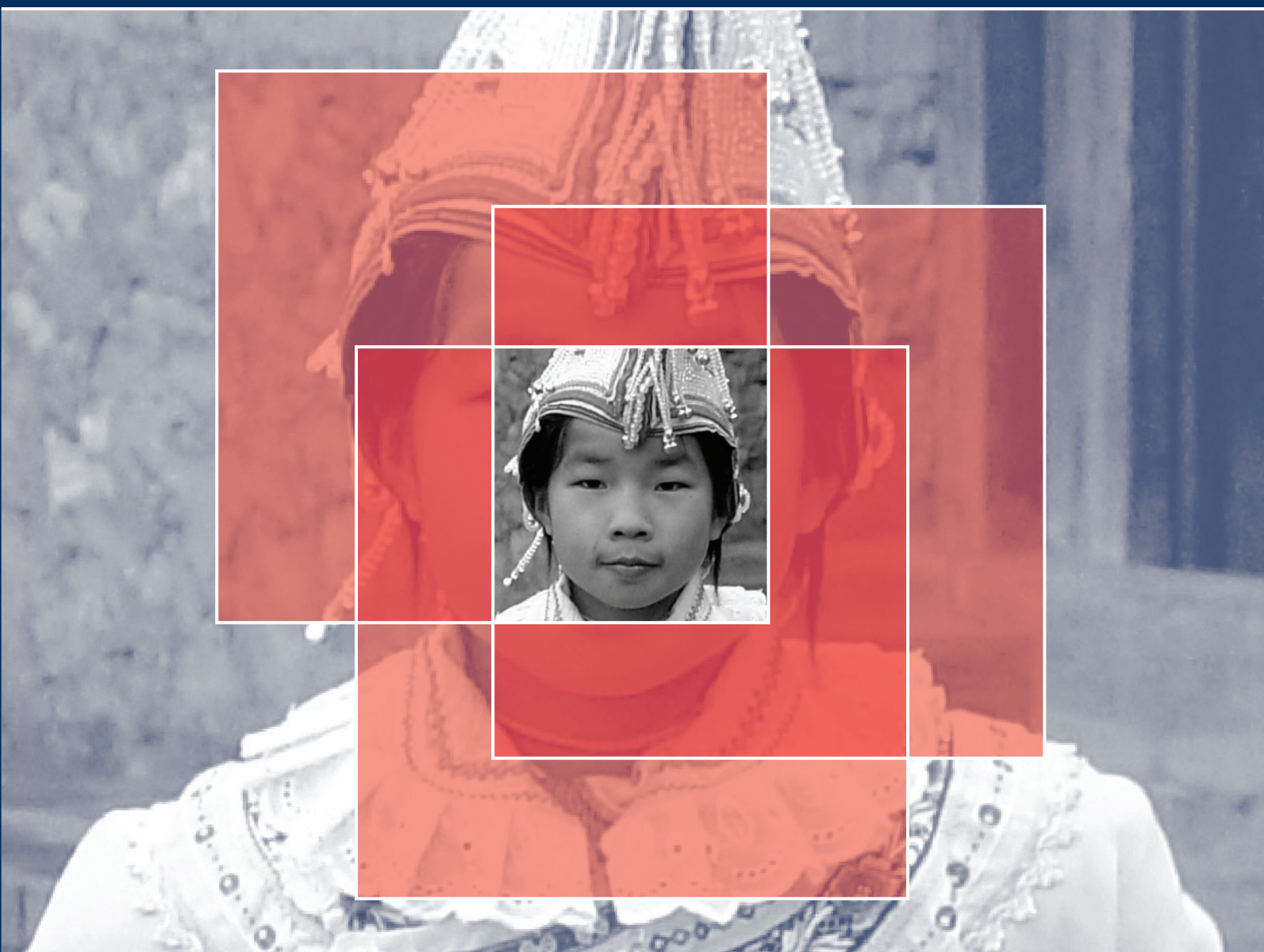


International
Labour
Organization

The Mekong Challenge

Analysis Report of the Baseline Survey for the TICW Project Phase II in Yunnan Province

Part of a series of studies on human trafficking and labour migration in the Greater Mekong Sub-region



The Mekong Sub-regional Project to Combat Trafficking in Children and Women

Analysis Report of the Baseline Survey for the TICW Project Phase II in Yunnan Province

Part of a series of studies on human trafficking and
labour migration in the Greater Mekong Sub-region

IPEC Task Team
of Yunnan Provincial Statistics Bureau

International Labour Office Bangkok

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FOREWORD

Although child labour and its worst forms, including the trafficking of children, are now almost universally condemned, the trafficking and exploitation of children, young people and other vulnerable groups such as young women continues throughout the Greater Mekong Sub-region.

It is becoming increasingly evident that there is a considerable lack of understanding across the sub-region about the dangers of ill-prepared migration – both internally and cross-borders – and the vulnerability to trafficking and labour exploitation faced by migrants.

The threat to young people, especially children and young women, is a grave concern. Throughout its history, the ILO has been working hard to ensure recognition of the fundamental human right to freedom from forced labour and child labour. Indeed, the ILO Constitution and Declaration of Philadelphia uphold this principle unequivocally.

The ILO Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29) and the ILO Minimum Age for Labour Convention, 1973 (No. 138) serve as important landmarks, while most recently the ILO's Declaration of Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, and the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182) have added a greater impetus to the struggle to halt these terrible practices.

The ILO has been at the forefront of international efforts to combat trafficking within the framework of the ILO Convention No. 182. In the Greater Mekong Sub-region, the ILO's work includes a project to combat trafficking in children and women (TICW) funded by the United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DFID). The project focuses on prevention of internal and cross-border trafficking in children and women for labour and sexual exploitation.

At the onset of the second phase of the TICW Project, the IPEC Task Team of the Yunnan Provincial Statistics Bureau, in close collaboration with the Yunnan Women's Federation, undertook a major research initiative that resulted in this Analysis Report of the Baseline Survey for the TICW Project Phase II. Under the supervision of TICW's Chief Technical Advisor, Maria Alcestis A. Mangahas, technical editing of the report was carried out by Anna Engblom and Karen Emmons with the assistance of Zhu Huie, Jinghong Zhang, and Allan Dow.

On behalf of the ILO's Sub-regional office, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to all those who took part in conducting this baseline survey, its analysis and publication. I hope the findings will result in a better understanding of the issue of human trafficking and the link to migration in China's Yunnan Province.

Christine Evans-Klock
Director, ILO Sub-regional Office for East Asia

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This survey was designed by the Population and Social Science Department of the Yunnan Provincial Statistics Bureau and ILO-IPEC SIMPOC. It was implemented by the statistics bureaus, women's federations and their counterparts in the project sites of Wuhua and Panlong districts of Kunming City, Menglian, Pu'er and Ximeng counties of Simao City, Hekou, Yuanyang and Jinping counties of Honghe Prefecture, as well as Jiangcheng and Menghai counties.

Many thanks are extended to Mr. Bijoy Raychaudhuri, Ms. Thetis Mangahas and Ms. Anna Engblom for their valuable technical inputs. Gratitude is offered to Ms. Karen Emmons for her editorial support. We wish also to thank the member departments of the Yunnan Provincial Project Steering Committee and the relevant experts for their review and revision of this report. Finally, we thank the wonderful assistance and coordination support from the Kunming Project Office of the ILO-IPEC TICW Project.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Yunnan is a border province with many ethnic minorities and a comparatively undeveloped social economy. Since the 1980s, it has been an area known to have a large problem with the trafficking of children and women. In recent years, according to the public security departments, more than 1,000 children and women have been trafficked annually to other provinces and across the border.

The Mekong Sub-regional Project to Combat Trafficking in Children and Women for Labour Exploitation (TICW Project) implemented by the International Labour Organization (ILO) is supporting the Chinese Government to complement its legal protection efforts toward children and women. The TICW Project was designed to address the problem of trafficking under the wider framework of labour migration. The project covers five countries: Cambodia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Thailand, Viet Nam and China (Yunnan Province only).

The TICW Project's first phase began in 2000 with interventions in the areas of capacity building, awareness raising and direct assistance in returning migrants and trafficking victims. The second phase of the TICW Project is looking at the situation of labour migration as one way of identifying the root, direct and potential factors leading to the trafficking of children and women. It also will aim to identify useful countermeasures for both the "push" and "demand" sides of the problem.

Due to the lack of information about the scale, mode, reason and reliable data of labour migration, including irregular and periodic migration, there has been no good understanding of the illegal or non-formal employment situation. As a first step in Phase II of the TICW Project, a baseline survey was designed to help fill the knowledge gaps. This report provides the survey results of the labour migration situation and its links to trafficking in Yunnan province.

The baseline survey followed the methodology of stratum and two-stage group sampling. Questionnaires were completed through interviews. In each target county of six identified sending areas (from where both trafficking victims and migrants originate), 600 households were selected; a total of 3,683 household heads or family members were interviewed. In the target districts of the two receiving areas, 12 communities were selected; within each district, 1,500 migrant labourers, picked by random sampling according to the employment sectors, were to be interviewed. A total of 3,375 people were interviewed in the receiving areas: 1,713 in Wuhua District and 1,662 in Panlong District.

With the assistance from the TICW Project staff in the Kunming office, the Population and Social Science Department of Yunnan Provincial Statistics Bureau prepared the baseline survey report. The survey was carried out by the government departments of statistics, education, justice and public security and the women's federations in the eight project counties/districts.

All households surveyed belonged either to the Han ethnic majority group or to one of the seven different ethnic minority groups of Dai, Hani, Lahu, Miao, Wa, Yi and Yao.

In addition to the survey, project staff interviewed trafficking victims and their families and other sources and analysed data from the project's target counties. This report presents the analysis of the survey and other research findings, including a brief discussion of changes and discrimination in policies regarding migrant and rural labourers and the laws, regulations and policies for combating trafficking in children and women.

Among non-migrant family members, the survey findings include: reasons for leaving school, working hours and monthly income. Among migrants living away and those who had returned at the time of the survey, the findings include: education levels, skills training, reasons for migrating, age when first left, who helped in finding the first job, family members' attitudes toward migration, occupations, working hours and monthly income, incidence of unfair treatment, working environment conditions, frequency of family communication and reasons for possibly migrating again.

The results presented in this report also include responses to questions on methods for preventing or minimizing trafficking risk and rights infringement, major economic indicators of the project counties/districts, major per capita indicators, population, education attainment and employment information of the project counties

The report includes a discussion on factors leading to the human trafficking and recent crackdowns by the Government. It also presents recommended interventions and other suggestions, based on that analysis, for improving the environment of labourers and thus working toward the reduction and, hopefully, the elimination of the trafficking of children and women.

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INTRODUCTION

The TICW Project

Despite the increasing number of laws and harsher punishments, the problem of trafficking of children and women remains a major issue in the Southeast Asia region. While demand fuels the practise of trafficking, poverty and labour migration, both regular and irregular, provide an easier environment for traffickers to operate in. Therefore, an effective approach to the problem requires both prevention and countermeasures. The Government of the People's Republic of China and the international community have reached a common understanding on such an approach.

The Mekong Sub-regional Project to Combat Trafficking in Children and Women for Labour Exploitation (TICW Project) implemented by the International Labour Organization (ILO) is supporting the Chinese Government's efforts to complement its legal protection. The TICW Project was designed to address the problem of trafficking under the wider framework of labour migration; the first phase began in 2000. The project covers five countries: Cambodia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Thailand, Viet Nam and China (Yunnan Province only).

In the first phase of the TICW project in Yunnan Province, a Provincial Project Steering Committee was set up to utilize in-house resources and facilitate comparative advantages among partner agencies in providing the two project counties of Menghai and Jiangcheng with technical and financial support. Through programme interventions aimed at capacity building, awareness raising and direct assistance in these counties, the project's first phase achieved its objectives: to raise the public's awareness of gender equality and trafficking prevention. This heightened awareness among the public led to a reduction in the trafficking of children and women as well as a decrease of "blind migration" (ill-informed and/or unprepared migration¹) of women and an increase in the school enrolment rate among girls.

The second phase of the TICW Project, which began in 2003, is looking at the situation of labour migration as one way of identifying the root, direct and potential factors leading to the trafficking of children and women. It also will aim to identify useful countermeasures for both the "push" and "demand" sides of the problem. To achieve this, the project staff will interview trafficking victims and their families and other sources, study and analyse

¹ This is a widely used term in China that refers to uninformed labour migration, people migrating without advanced knowledge of where they will work, for whom, and under which circumstances.

data from the project's target counties and the baseline survey of households in those areas. Other objectives of the TICW project include establishing an integrated information system for monitoring and evaluation of the second phase activities, including the implementation of specific resolutions.

Based on ILO's experience, the project will explore the possibility of worker and employer organizations participating in anti-trafficking efforts in the Greater Mekong Sub-region, including mobilizing their input and pilot projects with their cooperation.

Background of Yunnan's inclusion in the project

Yunnan is a border province with many ethnic minorities and a comparatively undeveloped culture and social economy. Since the 1980s, it has been an area known to have a considerable problem with the trafficking of children and women. In recent years, according to the public security departments, more than 1,000 children and women have been trafficked annually to other provinces and across the border.

The public security departments in Yunnan have been addressing the problem of human trafficking through active interventions (such as increased rescuing channels and extended efforts to rescue trafficked children and women), more financial inputs, a closer monitoring of the transportation lines (especially railways and ports) and broader international cooperation, including the TICW Project. During the process, the women's

federations at all levels have offered tremendous assistance in the rescue and rehabilitation interventions. To date, the combined efforts have resulted in a reduction of the trafficking of children and women.

Indeed, the Yunnan Provincial Committee and the provincial government regard the TICW Project as instrumental in addressing the problems. Because of the continuing prevalence of human trafficking in Yunnan, the ILO and the All-China Women's Federation decided to extend the TICW Project Phase II to include the sending places of Menglian, Ximeng and Pu'er counties in Simao City;² Hekou, Yuanyang and Jinping counties in Honghe Prefecture; the receiving places of Wuhua and Panlong administrative districts in Kunming City; and also the Phase I project sites of Jiangcheng and Menghai counties. The majority of residents in the targeted areas of the TICW Project are of Han ethnic origin. The ethnic minority population rates within each of the six TICW Project counties are: 90.2 per cent of Ximeng, 88.3 per cent of Yuanyang, 85.5 per cent of Jinping, 58.4 per cent of Hekou, 51.4 per cent of Pu'er and 53.8 per cent of Menglian.

Objectives of the baseline survey

Due to the lack of information about the scale, mode, reason and reliable data of labour migration, including irregular and periodic migration, there has been no good understanding of the illegal or non-formal employment situation. As a first step in Phase II of the TICW Project, the baseline survey was designed to help fill the knowledge gaps. This report provides the results of the survey of the

² Simao was a prefecture until 2004 when it officially was classified as a city

labour migration situation and its links to trafficking in Yunnan province.

The baseline survey followed the methodology of stratum and two-stage group sampling. Questionnaires were completed through interviews. In each target county of six identified sending areas (from where both trafficking victims and migrants originate), 600 households were selected; a total of 3,683 household heads or family members were interviewed. In the target districts of the two receiving areas, 12 communities were selected; within each district, 1,500 migrant labourers, picked by random sampling according to the employment sectors, were to be interviewed. A total of 3,375 people were interviewed in the receiving areas: 1,713 in Wuhua District and 1,662 in Panlong District.

With the assistance from the TICW Project staff in the Kunming office, the Population and Social Science Department of Yunnan Provincial Statistics Bureau prepared this baseline survey report. The survey was carried out by the government departments of statistics, education, justice and public security and the mass organization of women's federations of the eight project counties/districts.

All households surveyed belonged either to the Han ethnic majority group or to one of the seven different ethnic minority groups of Dai, Hani, Lahu, Miao, Wa, Yi and Yao.



1. METHODOLOGIES AND TECHNIQUES OF THE BASELINE SURVEY

1.1 Sampling methodologies and sample size

The baseline survey followed the methodology of stratum and two-stage group sampling. Questionnaires were completed through interviews. In each target county of six identified sending areas (from where both trafficking victims and migrants originate), 600 households were selected; a total of 3,683 household heads or family members were interviewed. In the target districts of the two receiving areas, 12 communities were selected; within each district, 1,500 migrant labourers, picked by random sampling according to the employment sectors, were to be interviewed. A total of 3,375 people were interviewed in the receiving areas: 1,713 in Wuhua District and 1,662 in Panlong District.

1.2 The questionnaires

The baseline survey contained four target-audience questionnaires for households, for family members aged 10–25, for returning labour migrants and for migrant labourers (used only in Kunming). The various topics of each questionnaire were as follows:

Household questionnaire:

- household income, expenditure and assets
- educational attainment and labour migration
- status of family members

Questionnaire for family members aged 10 - 25:

- educational attainment
- employment status
- travel experience and living conditions
- training and employment needs

Questionnaire for labour migrant returnees:

- current status
- background of labour migration
- process of labour migration
- conditions at the workplace
- living conditions at the workplace
- reasons and process of returning home
- future plans
- culture and skill trainings
- health status

Questionnaires for migrant labourers:

- current status
- background of labour migration
- process of labour migration
- conditions at the workplace
- living conditions at the workplace
- culture and skill trainings
- experience documentation
- health status.

1.3 Pre-survey training to ensure quality

Staff within the Population and Social Science Department (PSSD) of the Yunnan Statistics Bureau set up a quality inspection and authentication system for conducting the survey. To design the survey, the department staff first consulted at length with an ILO expert. After creating the first draft, the staff selected some 30 government employees to conduct a pilot test in Yuanyang County. A second draft was produced, reflecting adjustments to problems that arose in the pilot test. Finally, the department organized an experts meeting to collect comments from several relevant offices and then produced the final survey.

From those efforts, the PSSD created an Enumerators' Working Manual, selected sample communities and identified target families. The survey strictly followed the steps of good preparation, interviewee notification, patient questioning, cross-checking of questionnaires between enumerators and final review by instructors. The six PSSD staffs were involved in the whole process in the six project counties and 10 office staffs of the Kunming City Statistics Bureau gave survey instructions in the two districts.

In preparation for the survey, 40 selected enumerators of Wuhua and Panlong districts in Kunming (a receiving area) attended a training session during 25–28 December 2003. TICW Project staff in each of the six counties selected 20 enumerators and five instructors and provided a training session in Menglian County of Simao City

and Hekou County of Honghe Prefecture during 4–8 January 2004. The enumerators for both areas came from women's federations, bureaus of statistics, labour, education, health, justice and public security, selected townships and street affairs offices of the project counties and districts. Leaders of those institutions served as instructors. All enumerators and instructors were required to obtain a survey license, which was issued after the training and an examination to check their understanding of the Enumerators' Working Manual.

1.4 Data review, input and gathering

The data processing and development, including review, input, collection and evaluation by the PSSD, began on 10 February and ended 5 April 2004. Staff from the Provincial Statistics Bureau reviewed all the completed questionnaires.

1.5 Definitions of key terms in this report

Migrant: A person who has left the *Hukou*, or the place where he or she is registered, and travelled to a location, primarily for a remunerated activity, where he or she is not a registered resident for a period of at least six months.

Regular migrants³: Authorised labourers who find employment with the help of legal employment agencies (approved by relevant government

³ Note that this definition of regular migrants is specific to this study and the Chinese context. The ILO defines a regular migrant as "A worker admitted by a country other than their own for the explicit purpose of exercising an economic activity" (in preventing Discrimination, Exploitation and Abuse of Women Migrant Workers, An Information Guide, ILO).

departments, social organizations or labour departments) and who have received pre-occupation training and a signed employment contract.

Irregular migrants⁴:

- People who migrate out for work but have no specific offer of employment before migration.
- People who leave without the necessary help from any agency.
- People who have not received any pre-occupational training.
- People who find employment without any contract with the employer.

Trafficking: of children and women is regarded as a crime of violence and a violation of human rights. Under the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, the Supplementary Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (known as the Palermo Protocol), trafficking is defined as:

“...the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation.”

Youth: By the ILO definition, youth are persons aged 15–24. Among them, this report defines “teenagers” as those aged 15–19 and “young adults” as those aged 20–24.

⁴ Note that this definition is specific to this study and the Chinese context. In the same source as above footnote, the ILO defines an irregular or undocumented migrant worker as “those who do not comply with the conditions necessary to be authorized to enter, to stay and to engage in a remunerative activity in the country of employment pursuant to the law of that State and the international agreements to which that State is a party. Irregular or undocumented migrant workers can be:

- *Those who enter the country legally but whose stay or employment contravene the law;*
- *Those whose stay and entry are lawful but who do not have the right to work and are engaged in illegal or illicit employment;*
- *Those who enter the country illegally and who seek to change their status after arrival to find legitimate employment;*
- *Those who enter the country illegally, whose stay is unlawful and employment is illegal.”*



2

2. LAWS, REGULATIONS AND POLICIES ON THE MIGRATION OF SURPLUS RURAL LABOURERS AND FOR COMBATING TRAFFICKING OF CHILDREN AND WOMEN

2.1 Laws, regulations and policies for combating trafficking in children and women

The problem of trafficking in children and women in China is associated with the social-economic differences between regions and between rural and urban areas. Trafficking crimes generally take place in economically undeveloped areas that cannot provide enough employment opportunities and have an increasing surplus of labourers. During China's economic and social transition period,⁵ farmers have sought other livelihoods, though most have had few opportunities for improving their quality of life. Many of them, especially young females in poor areas, have turned to labour migration as a way out of poverty.

Education becomes even more of a critical issue in these areas. Lack or limited education sustains poverty and inhibits choice, or safe choices. As more and more rural people access television and thus programmes about the "outside" world, more young people feel drawn to break away from the hard, impoverished farm life. Or they think of life in television land as offering them opportunities to relieve the harshness and possibly to rescue their parents and families.

While it is clear that improved livelihoods and access to education, information and alternatives is necessary to reduce or prevent irregular migration and traffickers' access to children and women, legal protection remains vital.

To combat the trafficking of children and women and protect their legal rights, the Chinese Government over the past two decades has revised and supplemented many of its existing laws and enacted new ones, including increased punishment of traffickers. Any activity of kidnapping, buying, selling, transferring, sending or receiving children or women for the purpose of human trade is considered as trafficking. Punishment ranges from a set term of imprisonment to the death penalty.

In particular, sections relating to children's and women's legal rights and trafficking can be found in the Criminal Law of the People's Republic of China, the Criminal Procedure Law, the Civil Law, the Civil Procedure, the Marriage Law, the Law of Adoption, Women's Rights and Interests Protection Law and the Minors Protection Law.

To better enforce those relevant laws, the Supreme People's Court, the Supreme People's Prosecuting Court and the Public Security Ministry issued on

⁵ It is an ongoing process and expected to last until the mid-twenty-first century. Because China is a country with a large population and little arable land, how to place surplus rural labour forces is a long-term issue.

31 March 1984 a document entitled, Answers to the Questions about Applicable Specific Laws in Dealing with Current Human Trafficking Crime.

On 2 March 1989, the Chinese State Department issued the Notification of Seriously Combating Trafficking in Children and Women. On 4 September 1991, the Standing Committee of the National People's Congress passed the Decision of Serious Punishment to Criminals Trafficking and Kidnapping Children and Women. That decision revised the Criminal Law to increase the punishment of people convicted for crimes of kidnapping and trafficking. Again in 2000, the Supreme People's Court, Supreme People's Procuratorate, Public Security Ministry, Civil Affairs Ministry, Justice Ministry and the All-China Women's Federation issued the Notification about Combating Trafficking in Children and Women. In 1997, the then new Criminal Law of the People's Republic of China included specific clauses on human trafficking. During 1991–2000, the Public Security Ministry organized four large-scale campaigns directed at combating trafficking in specific geographical areas of the country.

In the past few decades, child labour was not a serious problem. However, to protect children, the Labour Ministry and National General Trade Union in November 1988 issued a Notification Forbidding Child Labour. In April 1991, the Minor's Protection Law and Regulations Forbidding Child Labour went further and specifically prohibited organizations and individuals from employing anyone younger than 16. The 1994 Labour Law reinforced that age restriction among all employers.

In December 2002, the State Department issued a new version of the Regulations Forbidding Child Labour that specified the standards, fines and prison terms for trafficking children, forced child labour and for employing children in dangerous

conditions, such as tall-building construction and mining, or employing those younger than 14.

2.2 Policies and rules about the migration of surplus rural labourers

As earlier explained, the TICW Project was designed to address the problem of trafficking by focusing on the issue of increased labour migration. The purpose of preventing human trafficking is not to keep people in rural areas but to protect migrating labourers from being cheated and exploited. However, there is a need for prevention activities and countermeasures to address the displacement of surplus rural labourers.

Evolution of national policies on the displacement of rural labourers

Since 1978, policies relevant to the migration and employment of rural labourers have shifted in focus from in-country to cross-border, from strict to free, from irregular migrants to regular migrants and from discriminating to promoting equality. These shifts are illustrated in the following brief history:

1979–1983: migration control

Before China's opening to the outside world, the *Hukou* (a household population management system) and employment systems drew a distinct line between urban and rural populations and limited the migration of all rural labourers. In the beginning of China's "opening" policies, according to a report issued at the National Labour and Employment Working Meeting in 1980, city workers were freed from labour migration restrictions while more limits were put on the migration of rural labour forces.

Then in 1981, the Government issued policies to promote diversification of employment forms, which included short-term and long-term contracts and temporary employment. These policies included new regulations to manage the migration of rural labourers.

1984–1988: migration promotion

The Government began to ease up on rural migration restrictions in 1984 when it allowed farmers not relying on subsidies to seek employment or do business in cities and townships. The opening of this small “city gate” indicated a shift in employment management that had bound rural and urban population movements for 30 years. The Government continued to relax its controls and offer policies and measures to promote the labour exchange between regions and rural and urban districts. It also encouraged labour migration out of poor areas. Since 1984, the displacement and migration of rural labourers has increased at a rapid pace.

1989–1991: blind migration control

As the result of the favourable policies in the previous period, a large-scale cross-region rural labourer migration impacted negatively on transportation infrastructure (especially during the traditional Spring Festival and the schools’ vacation periods in winter and summer seasons), social order and labour market management. As well, policies regulating the environment and economic development limited employment opportunities in city and township enterprises; displaced rural labourers could not find work easily. The Government reacted by adjusting some policies, in particular focusing on blind migration, or ill-informed and/or unprepared migration.

1992–2000: migration regulation

Since 1992 there has been a gradual change of policies regarding the migration of rural labourers. Blind migration control began to shift toward an encouragement and induction of regular movements. The employment system, which contained rules on rural labourers’ cross-border migration, put more emphasis on the employment certificate/card management. Reforms in the *Hukou* system of managing small city/town populations also began.

In 1998, job replacement became an important task of governments at all levels due to the increase of laid-off workers in cities. But this led some city/provincial administrations to produce regulations and policies to restrict migrant labourers from urban areas, even though the national Government allowed a reasonable amount of migration of labourers to cities.

After 2000: fair migration

Since the second half of 2000, there have been some positive changes in China’s policies on the migration and employment of rural labourers. These changes yielded two outstanding features: First, they attached new and detailed meaning to the rational arrangement of city/rural employment by abolishing unreasonable restrictions on farmers seeking jobs in urban areas; this is intended to gradually unify the labour market. Second, they actively push reforms in many fields – employment, social security, *Hukou*, education, and housing – recognizing that efforts by a single sector cannot solve the complicated problem of migration.

2.3 Policy changes in sending areas

Local governments in the sending areas have seen the benefits of labour migration, in particular the increased income of individuals and the relief on local employment pressure. Thus, most local governments offer friendly policy support for migrant labourers. From a comprehensive analysis of relevant government papers and the baseline survey findings, the following breakthroughs have been noted regarding reform initiatives and changing policies on labour migration:

Breaking the *Hukou* restriction

Some local governments have issued papers to abolish *Hukou* limitations to make way for the integration of city and rural labour markets. Favourable policies also now support migrant returnees and an easing of *Hukou* restrictions.

Employment marketization

In the middle- and small-sized cities of central China, reforms have begun that aim to unite the management systems in rural/urban labour markets. For instance, the same employment guarantee cards are provided to both rural and urban labourers. The card can be accepted by state-owned, public-owned and private sector employers and covers all aspects of labour insurance, including employment, social insurance, work relationships and skills training. With one card in hand, all labourers can seek employment anywhere. However, there remains a long way to go before rural labourers can compete equally with urban workers.

Integration of social insurance

Some local governments have recommended, at least on a trial basis, providing services that aim to protect migrant labourers' legal rights, such as offering pensions and health care, work injury, unemployment and other insurance services as well as maternity benefits.

Support to migrant returnees

In addition to the reform initiatives in the *Hukou* system and employment and social insurance benefits, some areas have issued favourable policies to encourage rural migrant labourers to return home and contribute to the local economic development. With advantages in capital, skills, information and experience, and with favourable policies from local governments, most returnees have a greater chance of building a success.

2.4 Discrimination in migration policies in receiving areas

From analysis of relevant papers and interviews with officials in various government departments in the TICW Project areas, the researchers working on this report have highlighted the following discriminations in existing policies that serve to hinder equal economic opportunity for rural labourers.

Discrimination in the *Hukou* management system

The *Hukou* management system creates differences and discrimination in labour employment, skills training, compulsory education and social security that affect migrating rural labourers. It is one of the social-economy systems with the least and slowest changes in China's reform process.

The discrimination includes migration quotas in many places and charging fees on the pretext that the migrant labourers will bring more difficulties to the Government's task of social order management.

Discrimination in the employment system

Unfair treatment toward rural labourers takes place in controls on where they can job hunt and be hired and in the general labour management system. For instance, there is a limit on the number of rural labourer employees who can be hired, a limit on which occupations rural labourers can seek jobs in, a hiring priority given to urban labourers and compulsory fees charged in the name of migration management and employee displacement adjustment.

Discrimination in social security services

Social security services are provided mostly to city/town workers. There is some opportunity for local rural labourers but much less for migrant rural labourers. The majority of city workers receive pension, health insurance, unemployment insurance, maternity and injury-at-work benefits. Some township and village administrations provide their villagers the pension and health insurance, which is based on the city insurance levels and the village's financial status. But migrating rural labourers usually are not covered by

any insurance or benefit (only those at highly risky workplaces can have work injury insurance). The inequality in the social security services is one factor preventing rural labourers' migration, and it is an unavoidable outcome in the process of social-economic development.

Discrimination in education and training

Discrimination exists in compulsory education for children of migrant labourers and in skills training courses for migrant labourers.

As the baseline survey shows, a great portion of migrant labourers have children of school age. Although both parents in a family may work in the same place, their children cannot go to the nearest school because of the discrimination in the education regulations of the receiving place.

The Government offers skills training only to city residents because there are too many migrant labourers to accommodate.

Discrimination in public opinion

Migrant labourers often are perceived as "second-class" or "inferior" citizens by law enforcement, employers (and their families) and the general urban public. As such, many migrant labourers are paid only a portion of their wages but are forced by employers to sign a so-called "payment clearance voucher" that indicates the full wage was received. If they refuse to sign the voucher, the employers threaten to keep the ID card, which is crucial for finding another job. Others experience beatings, mental abuse and sexual abuse.

2.5 The status and existing problems among surplus rural labourers in Yunnan Province

Echoing the national situation, the migration of surplus rural labourers in Yunnan Province is characterized as evolving in three stages since 1978:

Stage one, 1978–1985; within the agriculture industry.

Thanks to the Household Contract Responsibility System, more and more rural labourers left their farming land and sought job opportunities in cities. Those who stayed could choose how to use their land and some moved rapidly from farming to plantation, forestry, animal husbandry and fishing activities. A great deal of job opportunities in the agriculture industry obviously improved the employment of rural labourers.

Stage two, 1986–1993; in rural areas. In 1984, the Yunnan Provincial Committee and the provincial government issued favourable policies in credit, tax and finance to support township enterprises. All provincial enterprises stepped into a new era of development and became a primary channel for the displacement of rural labourers.

Stage three, since 1994; from economic undeveloped areas to developed areas. Kunming City has become a key receiving place of surplus rural labourers. According to the 2000 national census, about 95.33 per cent of labourers moved within the province, including 11.59 per cent to Kunming City, 3.36 per cent to other prefectures/cities, 12.34 per cent to counties, 15.7 per cent to towns and 52.34 per cent to other areas. Only 4.49 per cent of labourers migrated to other provinces and 0.19 per cent to other countries.

Existing problems

1. The slow development of a rural labour market has led to the breakdown of the labour supply. The existing labour market provides opportunities mostly to city residents and those labourers with a higher education. Therefore, rural labourers cannot have equal access to the services provided by the labour market. Meanwhile, outdated employment information and the imbalance between the supply and demand sides have increased the risks and costs of labour displacement. Without legal channels to find employment, some rural labourers can seek help only from their relatives and friends or make migration choices by themselves. The labour market cannot play its role effectively, and many rural labourers cannot get employment efficiently through legal channels.
2. Skills training is available for small-scale agriculture only and its marketization remains weak. In recent years, with the development of private-owned universities and colleges and the development of vocational schools, there has been great improvement in the training system available to rural labourers in Yunnan Province. However, these schools are small-scale and their tuition is high. If rural residents cannot access study opportunities from either government or private schools, they will hardly be able to improve their skills, making them less competitive in the labour market.

3. The reforms of services remain slow and the coordination between policies is weak. The lagging reforms in systems of employment, health care, education and social security in cities have slowed the displacement of rural surplus labour. There are still discriminating practices in employment opportunities, and many migrant labourers remain fragile and unable to benefit from the same services as those available to urban residents, such as education, health care and social security. Furthermore, migrant labourers have to pay several types of taxes both in cities and their hometown. That extra burden discourages many farmers from seeking employment in urban areas.

An analysis of the policies regarding the country's rural labour migration in both sending and receiving areas shows that the provincial

governments may produce different regulations on migration. Three main factors have triggered these disparities: 1) Governments at different levels have their own definitions and approaches to farmers' problems and labour migration, which thus creates variations and, at times, conflicts, in policies and measures. 2) Increased pressure on governments in receiving areas to provide public services, such as transportation and public security, has forced some officials to focus on the negative impact of labour migration. 3) Without a stable mechanism to represent their interests and concerns, rural labourers who have jobs or do business in urban areas have little, if any, access to employment protection. Though large in number, migrant labourers are weak without organization. They are incapable of collective bargaining, for example.



3. ANALYSIS OF THE KEY SURVEY DATA

The TICW Project's baseline survey covered issues relative to the supply side (in sending areas) and the demand side (in receiving areas) of labour in Yunnan Province. The survey sample involved villagers in the six TICW Project counties in sending areas and migrant labourers in two districts within Kunming City, regarded as a receiving place. The data obtained through the questionnaire-aided interviews has been analysed and key findings (per sending and receiving area) are presented in this chapter.

3.1 The situation of households, family members, migrant labourers and returning migrant labourers in the six surveyed counties of the sending areas

3.1.1 Households

Number of households and occupants

The 3,683 sampled households in the baseline survey covered 15,544 persons; of them, 51.6 per cent (8,015) were male and 48.4 per cent (7,529) were female. As Table 3.1 illustrates, the ages of the persons in the sampled households break down as follows: 9.4 per cent (1,457 persons) younger than 10; 8.8 per cent (1,366 persons) aged 10–14; 7.8 per cent (1,218 persons) aged 15–17; 20.47.0 per cent (3,182 persons) aged 18–25; 8.6 per cent (1,332 persons) aged 26–30; 7.8 per cent (1,201 persons) aged 31–35; and 37.2 per cent (5,788 persons) aged 36 and older.

Table 3.1: Number of persons living in sampled households, by gender, age and county

| By gender | Total | Pu'er | Menglian | Ximeng | Yuanyang | Jinping | Kekou |
|--------------|--------|-------|----------|--------|----------|---------|-------|
| Subtotal | 15,544 | 2,370 | 2,557 | 2,496 | 2,656 | 2,799 | 2,666 |
| Male | 8,015 | 1,218 | 1,211 | 1,352 | 1,481 | 1,438 | 1,315 |
| Female | 7,529 | 1152 | 1,346 | 1,144 | 1,175 | 1,361 | 1,351 |
| By age | Total | Pu'er | Menglian | Ximeng | Yuanyang | Jinping | Kekou |
| Subtotal | 15,544 | 2,370 | 2,557 | 2,496 | 2,656 | 2,799 | 2,666 |
| Under 10 | 1,457 | 210 | 199 | 281 | 352 | 153 | 262 |
| 10–14 | 1,366 | 251 | 181 | 244 | 193 | 236 | 261 |
| 15–17 | 1,218 | 159 | 211 | 204 | 161 | 228 | 255 |
| 18–25 | 3,182 | 366 | 500 | 567 | 493 | 707 | 549 |
| 26–30 | 1,332 | 208 | 209 | 195 | 264 | 236 | 220 |
| 31–35 | 1,201 | 246 | 201 | 178 | 200 | 161 | 215 |
| 36 and older | 5,788 | 930 | 1,056 | 827 | 993 | 1,078 | 904 |

Household income

Generally, household conditions were found to be of poor quality and cramped and reflecting an impoverished financial situation. On average, each sampled household contained four persons.

The survey found that the average household income of the sampled families ranked in the

bottom level of provincial average income. As Table 3.2 reflects, the highest per capita income of the sampled farmer households for 2003 was found in Pu'er County, at RMB1,513 (US\$183); the smallest was found in Ximeng County of only RMB669 (\$81). Average per capita income for Yunnan Province in 2003 was RMB1,697 (\$205).

Table 3.2: Household income, by county

| Income | Total | Pu'er | Menglian | Ximeng | Yuanyang | Jinping | Hekou |
|------------------------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|---------|
| Per capita annual net income (RMB) | – | 1,513 | 1,066 | 669 | 1,144 | 838 | 1,378 |
| Household annual income (RMB) | 4,434.63 | 4,381.33 | 5,661.55 | 2,991.13 | 5,593.98 | 3,597.84 | 4,367.1 |

Household conditions

Among the surveyed households, the per capita living area was 18.38 sq m, which was 5.12 sq m less than what is found province-wide. Jinping County of Honghe Prefecture had the smallest housing area with only 13.99 sq m. Of the six counties, only Pu'er County of Simao City, at 27.26 sq m, had a per capita housing area larger than the province level.

In terms of outer-wall construction material, 9.7 per cent of the surveyed families lived in a concrete structure; 35.9 per cent of the houses were made of brick; 24.6 per cent of the houses were made of wood, bamboo or grass; and 29.8 per cent used some other material (Table 3.3). Around 35 per cent of families in Yuanyang County, 34.6 per cent in Jinping, 31.5 per cent in Menglian, 23.7 per cent in

Hekou, 20.5 per cent in Ximeng and only 1 per cent in Pu'er used wood, bamboo or grass as outer wall material for their houses

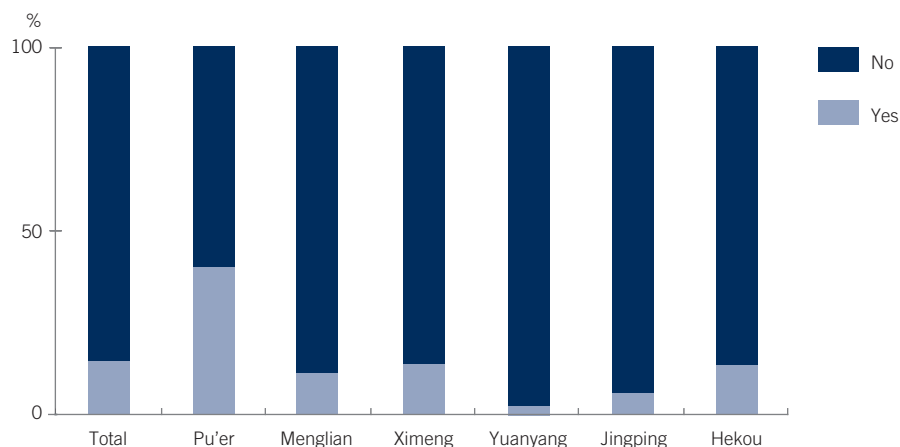
The survey found that most families (91.1 per cent) were still using wood and grass for cooking fuel: 98.1 per cent in Yuanyang County; 97.0 per cent in Jinping County; 93.8 per cent in Hekou County; 93.0 per cent in Menglian County but only 69.8 per cent in Pu'er County. As Table 3.3 also shows, 19.8 per cent of families were cooking with fuel gas.

In rural areas, a water lavatory (toilet) was not commonly found, as Figure 3.1 indicates. Only 13.9 per cent of the sampled households had such a sanitation device. The smallest use of them, at less than 1 per cent, was found in Yuanyang County.

Table 3.3: Type of house by construction material and type of cooking fuel used

| | Total | Pu'er | Menglian | Ximeng | Yuanyang | Jinping | Hekou |
|---|-------|-------|----------|----------------|----------|---------|-------|
| Outer wall construction material | | | | Unit: % | | | |
| Subtotal | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Armoured concrete | 9.7 | 5.3 | 15.3 | 8.7 | 12.2 | 13.2 | 3.5 |
| Bricks | 35.9 | 29.2 | 50.7 | 60.8 | 16.2 | 26.2 | 33.7 |
| Wood, bamboo and grass | 24.6 | 1.0 | 31.5 | 20.5 | 35.2 | 34.7 | 23.7 |
| Other | 29.8 | 64.5 | 2.5 | 10.0 | 36.4 | 25.9 | 39.1 |
| Main types of cooking fuel | | | | | | | |
| Subtotal | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Cooking gas | 5.6 | 19.8 | 3.2 | 5.5 | 0.3 | 1.4 | 3.9 |
| Electricity | 1.1 | 0.3 | 3.0 | 0.2 | 0.6 | 1.3 | 1.1 |
| Coal | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.7 | 0.0 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.3 |
| Wood or grass | 91.1 | 69.8 | 93.0 | 94.3 | 98.1 | 97.0 | 93.8 |
| Other | 2.0 | 9.8 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.8 | 0.2 | 1.0 |

Figure 3.1: Water lavatory usage



As Table 3.4 shows, the survey indicated that only a small number of families owned basic electric appliances, with the exception of a television: 13.0 per cent of them had a radio; 31.7 per cent had a CD or VCD machine; 23.8 per cent had a land line or mobile telephone; and only 5.9 per cent had an air conditioner or fan, whereas 61.9 per cent of them owned a television (of these families, 42.5 per cent owned a colour set).

Around 11 per cent of the total surveyed families owned a farming vehicle or a motorcycle.

The average electricity consumption among households in the surveyed six counties was 19.36 kwh; average monthly cost to the sampled households was RMB14.33 (Table 3.5).

Table 3.4: Electric appliances and other high-value items found in households, by county

Unit: %

| Electric appliances and other items | Total | Pu'er | Menglian | Ximeng | Yuanyang | Jinping | Hekou |
|-------------------------------------|-------|-------|----------|--------|----------|---------|-------|
| Radio | 13.0 | 25.0 | 17.8 | 17.5 | 7.3 | 8.0 | 3.5 |
| TV sets (black and white) | 19.4 | 46.0 | 11.7 | 13.0 | 19.8 | 17.3 | 9.0 |
| TV sets (colour) | 42.5 | 54.2 | 66.0 | 44.0 | 26.8 | 25.9 | 39.7 |
| CD /VCD machine | 31.7 | 44.5 | 57.8 | 32.5 | 21.9 | 15.4 | 19.6 |
| Land-line or mobile telephone | 23.8 | 47.7 | 54.5 | 20.0 | 8.4 | 7.5 | 7.1 |
| Air conditioner/ fan | 5.9 | 5.7 | 16.7 | 2.5 | 0.8 | 0.5 | 9.7 |
| Farming vehicle/motorcycle | 11.5 | 14.7 | 37.2 | 8.7 | 0.8 | 1.4 | 7.5 |

Table 3.5: Family electricity consumption and expenditure, by county

| | Total | Pu'er | Menglian | Ximeng | Yuanyang | Jinping | Hekou |
|---------------------------------------|-------|-------|----------|--------|----------|---------|-------|
| Monthly electricity consumption (kwh) | 19.36 | 19.13 | 27.93 | 13.29 | 12.36 | 23.62 | 19.96 |
| Monthly electricity charge (RMB) | 14.33 | 11.9 | 32.52 | 8.65 | 10.06 | 12.6 | 10.67 |

Household awareness of laws to protect children and women

The survey data reflected a need for greater awareness of laws and regulations about women's legal rights. In the survey, some 44.1 per cent of

household heads or elders did not have any knowledge about laws protecting women's and children's legal rights; while 23.1 per cent of them knew of one law or regulation, 18.7 per cent knew of two and only 14.2 per cent knew of three or more (Table 3.6).

Table 3.6: Household awareness of the nation's laws and regulations protecting children's and women's rights, by county

Unit: %

| Number of laws | Total | Pu'er | Menglian | Ximeng | Yuanyang | Jinping | Hekou |
|----------------|-------|-------|----------|--------|----------|---------|-------|
| One | 23.1 | 25.8 | 9.5 | 28.3 | 36.7 | 21.8 | 16.0 |
| Two | 18.7 | 26.7 | 39.1 | 27.3 | 9.4 | 6.7 | 4.5 |
| Three or more | 14.2 | 11.7 | 49.4 | 19.7 | 2.9 | 2.5 | 0.8 |
| None at all | 44.1 | 35.8 | 2.0 | 24.7 | 51.1 | 69.0 | 78.7 |

3.1.2 Status of family members aged 10–25 (without any labour migration experiences)

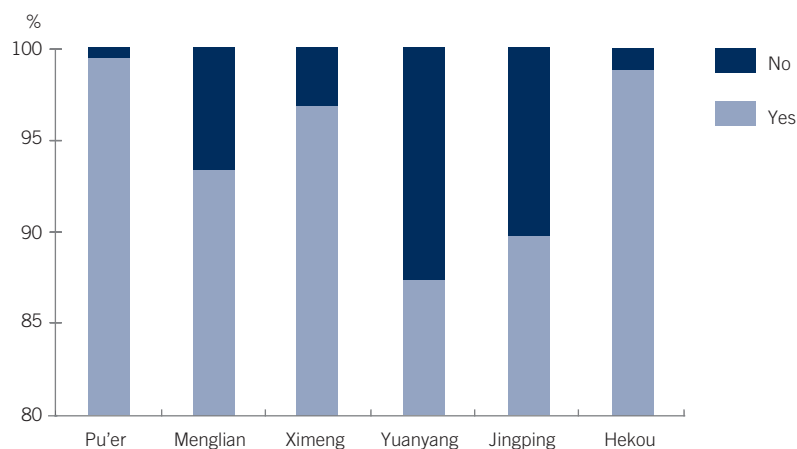
Education

As Figure 3.2 indicates, the majority of family members aged 10–25, which represented 94.3 per cent, had some education experiences. Females rated slightly lower than males – at 91.9 per cent of them having attended school, which was 4.4 per cent less than males. By age group, those with some education were as follows: 98.6 per cent among those aged 10–14, 96.1 per cent among those aged 15–17 and 88.7 per cent among those aged 18–25. These figures suggest that basic education in Yunnan Province has been somewhat successful in its reach.

By ethnic minority group, 97.0 per cent of Yi people aged 10–25 had some level of education, 93.9 per cent of Miao people, 94.7 per cent of Yao people, 87.2 per cent of Hani people, 95.9 per cent of Dai people and 96.9 per cent of Lahu people. Comparatively, Pu'er and Hekou counties had higher levels of education, as Figure 3.2 illustrates.

Among family members enrolled in school at the time of the survey, 55.7 per cent were still studying. And among those enrolled, only 1.0 per cent had dropped out of school as of the week before the survey (of that small proportion, there were slightly more girls, at 1.0 per cent). Students missed school due to family economic difficulties; 11.1 per cent had to share the work burden with parents; and the parents of 33.33 per cent asked them to stay home.

Figure 3.2: Proportion of family members aged 10–25 with some schooling



Slightly more than half of the family members aged 10–25 who were not attending school at the time of the survey had dropped out. Among them, 56.8 per cent left school within the past four years (59.1 per cent of females and 54.5 percent of males). As Table 3.7 shows, only 45.7 per cent of them had graduated; of those who dropped out, 48.0 per cent left due to financial difficulties, 36.7 per cent left to help their parents or their parents asked them to leave, 20.2 per cent believed school life was boring and 5.1 per cent thought their teachers did not like them. By sex, the former three reasons included more females; this implies that girls are more likely to drop out of school than boys. On the other hand, more boys said they thought their teachers did not like them. This could on its own, or possibly together with other factors, lead to decisions to drop out.

Employment

Among the family members aged 10–25 not in school, more than three-fourths (77.9 per cent) had a job; of them, 79.7 per cent were female, which was 3.2 per cent more than the rate of males with jobs. The majority (93.4 per cent) did some type of plantation, animal husbandry or goods marketing.

When asked whether they liked their current job, 46.9 per cent said “no” and 30.1 per cent were “not sure”. As Table 3.8 shows, of those who responded with a “yes”, 80.4 per cent were satisfied because they could take care of family members, 41.0 per cent liked making money, 27.6 per cent enjoyed the lack of work pressure, and 11.4 per cent could gain new knowledge and skills. The more prevalent reasons for discontent had to do with low income (76.1 per cent), boredom or difficult (74.4 per cent) or no chance for learning any skill or new knowledge (27.3 per cent).

Table 3.7: Reasons family members gave for leaving school

Unit: %

| Reason | Total | Male | Female | Aged 10–14 | Aged 15–17 | Aged 18–25 |
|---|-------|------|--------|------------|------------|------------|
| Parents asked me to leave | 8.4 | 7.7 | 9.3 | 10.4 | 8.7 | 8.1 |
| Help my parents to work | 28.3 | 28.1 | 28.5 | 17.8 | 23.0 | 31.6 |
| Have no money | 48.0 | 45.9 | 50.9 | 58.5 | 45.7 | 47.4 |
| The school is too far and inconvenient | | | | | | |
| transportation | 2.4 | 2.8 | 2.0 | 5.2 | 1.8 | 2.3 |
| School life is too boring | 20.2 | 21.9 | 17.8 | 33.3 | 25.7 | 16.4 |
| The teacher does not like me | 5.1 | 6.0 | 3.8 | 9.6 | 8.1 | 3.4 |
| Labour migration | 1.1 | 0.9 | 1.5 | 2.2 | 1.5 | 0.8 |
| Graduate primary school* | 45.7 | 44.9 | 46.8 | 20.7 | 41.8 | 50.6 |
| Other | 10.8 | 11.4 | 10.2 | 17.0 | 12.5 | 9.4 |

* Children enter primary school at age 6-7 and “graduate” at age 12-13, after six years of study. After primary school graduation, nearly 21 per cent of children cannot further their education because of the family economic situation or other reasons.

Table 3.8: Reasons working family members gave for enjoying their job, or not

Unit: %

| Reasons for enjoying the job | Total | Male | Female |
|------------------------------|-------|------|--------|
| Make money | 41.0 | 44.1 | 37.2 |
| Have no pressure | 27.6 | 25.8 | 29.7 |
| Take care of family members | 80.4 | 78.7 | 82.5 |
| Gain new knowledge or skills | 11.4 | 12.5 | 10.0 |
| Other | 14.1 | 12.2 | 16.4 |
| Not sure | 9.7 | 10.3 | 8.9 |

| Reasons for not enjoying the job | Total | Male | Female |
|--------------------------------------|-------|------|--------|
| Cannot make money | 76.1 | 74.1 | 78.9 |
| The job is too boring or hard | 74.4 | 78.8 | 68.3 |
| Cannot take care of family members | 6.5 | 5.9 | 7.3 |
| Cannot learn new knowledge or skills | 27.3 | 24.7 | 30.9 |
| Other | 6.5 | 5.9 | 7.3 |
| Not sure | 1.4 | 0.6 | 2.4 |

Income

Employed non-migrant family members in the sampled households reported low income levels. As Table 3.9 shows, the average monthly income was RMB148.69: males reported earning RMB160.22 and females earned RMB135.39. Broken down by county, average monthly earnings were highest in Pu'er at RMB246.88, followed by Menglian at RMB228.11, Hekou at RMB152.68, Jinping at RMB113.53, Ximeng at RMB105.10 and Yuanyang at RMB89.56.⁶

On average, the respondents worked 8.61 hours per day – with males averaging 8.99 hours and females 8.16 hours.

Not surprising, the survey analysis noted that income level was related to education level, as seen in Table 3.9 and Figure 3.3 – a higher level of education brought more income.

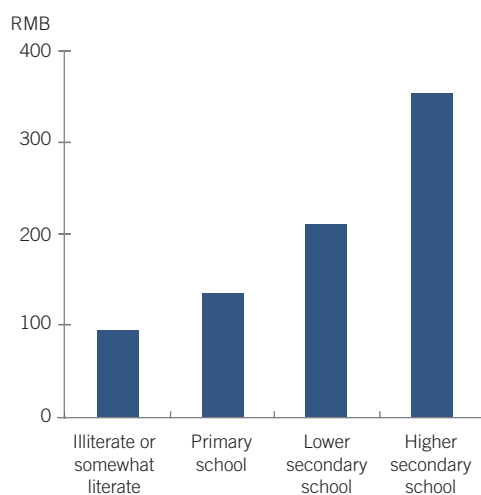
When compared with the average monthly income of migrant labourers (shown in Table 3.20 and Table 3.21), non-migrant family members earned much less.

⁶ At the time this report was written, the exchange rate was 8.266 yuan, or RMB, to US\$1.

Table 3.9: Working hours and monthly income of non-migrant family members, by education attainment

| Item | Total | | | Illiterate or somewhat literate | | | Primary school | | |
|----------------------|------------------------|--------|--------|---------------------------------|--------|--------|----------------|--------|--------|
| | Subtotal | Male | Female | Subtotal | Male | Female | Subtotal | Male | Female |
| Daily working hours | 8.61 | 8.99 | 8.16 | 8.44 | 8.44 | 8.44 | 9.11 | 9.82 | 8.14 |
| Monthly income (RMB) | 148.69 | 160.22 | 135.39 | 87.35 | 106.76 | 79.10 | 125.61 | 132.43 | 116.28 |
| Item | Lower secondary school | | | Higher secondary school | | | | | |
| | Subtotal | Male | Female | Subtotal | Male | Female | | | |
| Daily working hours | 7.75 | 7.63 | 7.91 | 8.32 | 8.10 | 8.52 | | | |
| Monthly income (RMB) | 200.54 | 203.10 | 197.01 | 346.46 | 387 | 307.86 | | | |

Figure 3.3: Monthly income of non-migrant family members, by education attainment



Most respondents had similar occupation expectations and believed that they were capable of doing those jobs. When asked about future occupation plans, 36.9 per cent of the family members (34.6 per cent female and 38.7 per cent male) interviewed specified employment in agriculture, forestry, animal husbandry, fishing or irrigation; 22.3 per cent (28.9 per cent female and 17.1 per cent male) wished to be part of a special technical staff; 17.2 per cent (8.4 per cent female and 24.3 per cent male) wanted to manage production or transportation equipment; and 14.6 per cent (19.2 per cent female and 10.9 per cent male) expected to work in the business or service sectors (Figure 3.4). When asked about their capabilities in handling their desired job, 79.8 per cent were confident (including females who, at 80.9 per cent, averaged in at a higher rate than males) while 16.1 per cent were not sure and only 4.1 per cent lacked any confidence.

The survey indicates that 70.6 per cent of respondents (73.1 per cent female and 68.7 per cent male) wanted to be independent and find a job in the local county, 14.3 per cent wanted to work in other counties, 7.9 per cent in Kunming City and 7.2 per cent wanted to find work in another province or abroad. Of them wanting to move far away, 4.8 per cent were female and 9.1 per cent were male). When asked who would help them in finding a job, 55.6 per cent answered they would do it on their own, 21.7 per cent through relevant government departments or organizations, 18.9 per cent through relatives, friends or family members, 2.0 per cent through an intermediate person or employment agencies, and 1.8 per cent said with the help of others. There were no obvious differences among the sexes in these responses (Table 3.10). When asked whether they perceived any risks or disadvantages in an expected job, 59.14 per cent “no”, 17.0 per cent said “yes” and 23.8 per cent said they were “not sure”. More females than males said “no”.

Figure 3.4: Future occupation plans of non-migrant family members

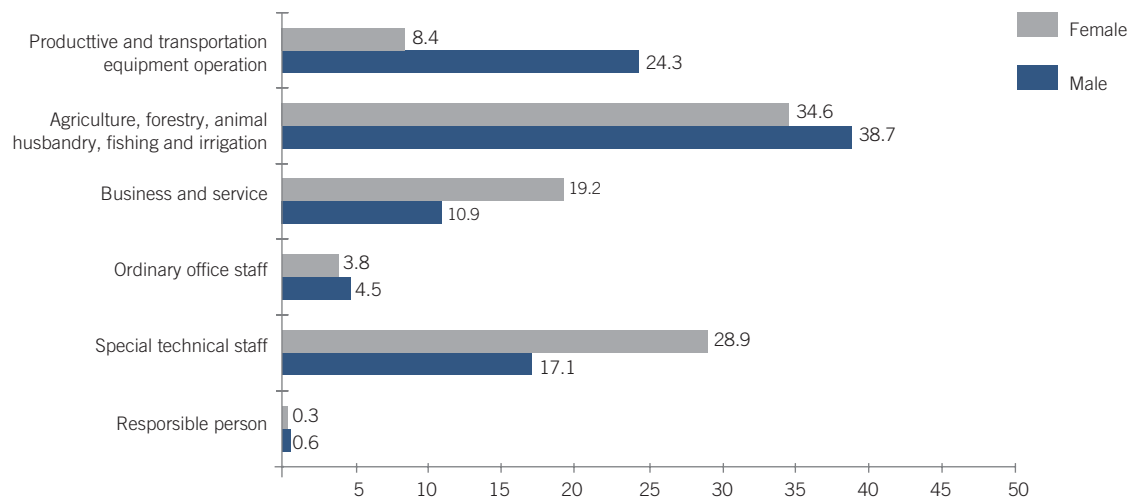


Table 3.10: Who will help family member respondents in finding a future job

Unit: %

| Organizations or individuals | Total | Male | Female |
|---------------------------------|-------|------|--------|
| Relevant government departments | 21.7 | 21.9 | 21.5 |
| Myself | 55.6 | 54.7 | 56.8 |
| Schoolmates/friends | 4.6 | 4.6 | 4.6 |
| Intermediate persons | 0.6 | 0.8 | 0.4 |
| Relatives/family members | 14.3 | 14.9 | 13.6 |
| Employment agency | 1.4 | 1.2 | 1.6 |
| Other | 1.8 | 2.0 | 1.6 |

The majority of respondents (including females at 66.3 per cent, which was only a little higher than males) believed their parents would approve of them migrating for work. Around 19.2 per cent of them thought their parents would not approve (including 19.5 per cent of females, which was somewhat higher than males). And 14.5 per cent said parent approval “does not matter”. Among those would said their parents would approve, 47.85 per cent attributed to their parents respecting individual choice, 52.5 per cent said their parents wanted them to make money, 12.4 per cent said their parents wanted them to learn new knowledge and skills, 6.5 per cent thought their parents wanted them to learn to be independent and 3.0 per cent said their parents would be happy they could see the outside world. Only 0.3 per cent attributed the approval to other reasons.

As to the reasons for disapproval, 40.8 per cent said their parents worried about them being deceived, 33.18 per cent believed their parents were concerned about safety, 14.4 per cent said their parents worried they might not make money and 27.8 per cent gave other reasons. Among females, 83.7 per cent said their parents worried about their safety or being cheated, which was 17.3 per cent

higher than males. However, 16.0 per cent of the males said their parents worried about making money, which was 3.8 per cent higher than females.

3.1.3 Migrant labourers from the surveyed counties currently living away from home

More than two-thirds of the migrant labourers of the surveyed families (in the six counties) stayed away from their home for less than one year. The survey findings also show that 67.4 per cent of the labourers migrated after 2003; around 14 per cent of them left in 2002 and the rest, 18.4 per cent, left in or before 2001. In addition, 75.7 per cent of them had migrated one to three times; 9.9 per cent migrated four to six times; and 14.4 per cent had come and gone more than six times.

After interviewing family members, the researchers found that 82.8 per cent of migrant labourers living away from home at the time of the survey had jobs; 2.8 per cent of them were looking for jobs and there was no news from 14.4 per cent of them. Among these labourers (Table 3.11), 27.4 per cent had remained within the county while 31.4 per cent

lived in another county within Yunnan and 8.2 per cent lived in the provincial capital of Kunming City. Another 18.93 per cent was living in another province and 10.3 per cent had migrated abroad. Nearly 4 per cent of the migrant labourers currently not living at home gave no indication of their whereabouts.

Most (86.7 per cent) family members who had migrated for work managed to stay in touch with their family. Among them, 67.4 per cent telephoned home, 18.2 per cent made return visits and 5.1 per cent sent a letter at least once. Another 7.8 per cent sent messages through friends and 1.5 per cent

communicated by other means. When asked to assess the quality of life migrant labourers found away from home, 24.1 per cent of family members described them as living well; 63.0 per cent described the labourer's income as enough to only feed himself/herself, while 9.5 per cent explained the labourer did not eat well and lived in poverty. Another 3.3 per cent were not sure what to say.

Most (71.5 per cent) respondents believed that migrant labourers within their family contributed to the well-being of family life; 4.5 per cent said they were not sure.

Table 3.11: Location of labourer's residence after migrating and ways of communicating with the family in originating county

Unit: %

| | Total | Pu'er | Menglian | Ximeng | Yuanyang | Jinping | Hekou |
|--|-------|-------|----------|--------|----------|---------|-------|
| The latest dwelling | | | | | | | |
| Within the county | 27.4 | 26.4 | 11.4 | 14.6 | 22.5 | 28.1 | 43.1 |
| Another county | 31.4 | 41.0 | 5.7 | 32.9 | 59.3 | 25.4 | 17.1 |
| Kunming City | 8.2 | 12.7 | 1.1 | 1.8 | 12.1 | 10.1 | 7.1 |
| Another province | 18.9 | 13.2 | 14.8 | 32.9 | 1.5 | 29.0 | 27.0 |
| Another country | 10.3 | 6.6 | 65.3 | 15.9 | 0.3 | 0.9 | 0.2 |
| Not sure | 3.8 | 0.0 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 4.3 | 6.6 | 5.5 |
| Ways of communicating with the family | | | | | | | |
| Travel back home | | | | | | | |
| frequently | 18.2 | 24.8 | 9.5 | 11.4 | 10.7 | 19.4 | 26.4 |
| Letters | 5.1 | 0.5 | 5.4 | 6.8 | 1.0 | 7.1 | 9.6 |
| Telephone | 67.4 | 71.4 | 82.3 | 75.0 | 76.0 | 66.8 | 49.0 |
| Leave message by others | 7.8 | 3.4 | 0.7 | 6.8 | 9.4 | 6.1 | 13.0 |
| Other | 1.5 | 0.0 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 2.9 | 0.5 | 2.0 |

3.1.4 Migrant labourer returnees

Current status

About one third of the migrant returnees who were interviewed said they periodically returned home, stayed a while and then migrated again. Of the returned migrant labourers, 33.3 per cent expected to leave again for work. Of them, 40.7 per cent were female, which was 12.0 per cent higher than the male proportion.

The survey analysis indicates an inverse ratio between the likelihood of re-migrating and age: As labourers age, they are less likely to migrate. According to the data, 52.3 per cent of the returnees were aged 15–17; 39.8 per cent were aged 18–25, 34.5 per cent were aged 26–30, 25.44 per cent were aged 31–35, and 22.5 per cent were 36 years old or older.

Regarding ethnic minority, more labourers looking to re-migrate belonged to the Dai people (52.5

per cent); Han people expressed the least interest in leaving again, (25.8 per cent, which was lower than the average). Of the others, 46.5 per cent Hani, 38.4 per cent Yi, 29.8 per cent Miao, 12.3 per cent Lahu and 11.8 per cent Wa, talked of leaving to find work elsewhere.

Reasons for migrating

Income generation was the key aim reported by most of the returnees for why they originally migrated – 94.3 per cent of those interviewed said they left to earn income. But there were other, or overlapping incentives, as well: curiosity about other places (48.5 per cent), seeking new experiences (21.4 per cent) and escaping farm work (13.8 per cent).

While slightly more males than females said they wanted to earn money, as Table 3.12 reveals, far more females than males said they wanted to see more of the world around them.

Table 3.12: Reasons returnees gave for originally migrating

Unit: %

| Reasons | Total | Male | Female |
|------------------------------|-------|------|--------|
| Make money | 94.3 | 95.8 | 91.9 |
| To see the outside world | 48.5 | 41.7 | 59.6 |
| To gain new experiences | 21.4 | 27.0 | 12.1 |
| Did not want to go to school | 2.0 | 2.0 | 2.1 |
| Escape farm work | 13.8 | 14.3 | 13.0 |
| To follow the trend | 5.7 | 4.8 | 7.1 |
| Other | 4.6 | 4.5 | 4.9 |

As to the average age among returnees when they first migrated, females were younger than males. Among those surveyed, as Figure 3.5 illustrates, the average age of the first labour migration overall was 22.1 years; among females it was 21.2 years, and for males 22.7, which was 1.46 older than females.

When looking at age combined with the job found in the first labour migration experience, the average age of those who worked as office staff was 19.57 years while in the business and service sectors it rose to 20.42 years – both of which were younger than the overall average. The average age of those who found employment in the agriculture, forestry, husbandry, fishing or irrigation sectors was 25.74 years.

By county, as Figure 3.5 also shows, the youngest average was found in Yuanyang at 19.26 years and the eldest in Ximeng at 24.07 years.

Making the decision to migrate

Most returnees (88.2 per cent) chose on their own to migrate, while parents (6.6), a spouse (2.5 per cent), a relative (1.6 per cent) or some other (1.1 per cent) made the decision for the others. By sex, 86.8 per cent of the females made the decision by themselves, which was 2.3 per cent less than males. Slightly more married women than men were pushed into by a spouse, as Table 3.13 shows.

Figure 3.5: Average age among returnees at the time of their first labour migration

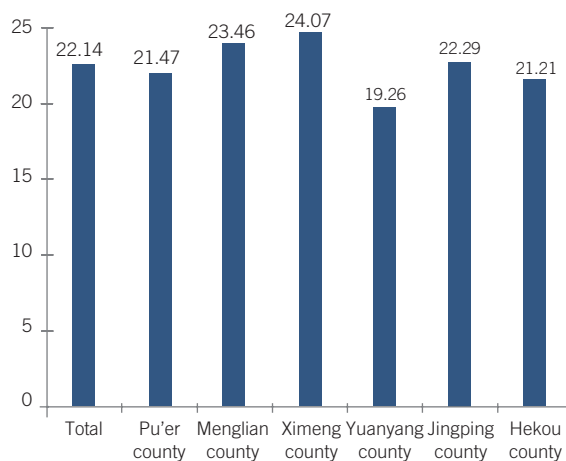


Table 3.13: Who made the returnee's final decision to migrate

Unit: %

| Decision maker | Total | Male | Female |
|----------------|-------|------|--------|
| Myself | 88.2 | 89.1 | 86.8 |
| Parents | 6.6 | 6.7 | 6.5 |
| Spouse | 2.5 | 1.9 | 3.5 |
| Relatives | 1.6 | 1.4 | 1.9 |
| Other | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.3 |

As Table 3.14 implies, the labour migration was self-initiating and not well organized: 48.9 per cent of the returnees found their first job on their own. Another 23.6 per cent used assistance from a family member or relative, while 19.6 per cent relied on a friend. An intermediary or employment agency was used by 3.6 per cent of returnees, while another 3.4 per cent used a government agency. This data suggests that the migration channels are limited, and thus migrating labourers may have little access to much choice. As well, lack of an organized system leads to poor, if any, tracing management, services and protection of legal rights.

By sex, 43.6 per cent of the female returnees found their first migrant job on their own, which was 8.6

per cent less than male returnees. However, the female rates among those who relied on assistance were higher than the male rates: 4.2 per cent higher among those using a relative or family member, 1.3 per cent higher using a friend and 3.3 per cent higher using an intermediary or employment agency.

When asked, most people (89.2 per cent) said they trusted the person or organization who helped them (of them, 89.4 per cent were male and 88.9 per cent female). Around 4.4 per cent didn't trust the source (4.7 per cent of males and 4.1 per cent of females). And another 6 per cent admitted they were suspicious at first but went ahead without a second thought (5.9 per cent male and 7.0 per cent female).

Table 3.14: Who helped returnees in finding their first job

Unit: %

| Assistance providers | Total | Male | Female |
|----------------------------|-------|------|--------|
| Relevant government agency | 3.4 | 3.7 | 3.0 |
| Myself | 48.9 | 52.2 | 43.6 |
| Schoolmate/friends | 19.6 | 19.1 | 20.4 |
| Intermediate person | 3.3 | 2.2 | 5.1 |
| Relative/family member | 23.6 | 22.0 | 26.2 |
| Employment agency | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.6 |
| Other | 0.9 | 0.7 | 1.2 |

More of the returnees first migrated by bus and in a group: 71.1 per cent took bus and 56.1 per cent went in a group (56.7 per cent female, which was 1 per cent higher than males). Some 14.46 per cent walked (17.4 per cent male, which was 7.6 per cent more than females). Nearly 12 per cent travelled in a pick-up truck (8.8 per cent male but 16.4 per cent female) and around 2 per cent rode in a vehicle provided by an employer (Table 3.15).

Most returnees initially received approval from family members in deciding to migrate, though more males than females said their decision was supported by the family. As Figure 3.6 illustrates, around 79.8 per cent of returnees described family support: of them, only 74.86 per cent of the females said they had approval and that was 7.9 per cent less

than the males. Among those who said the family did not approve of their leaving (11.19 per cent overall), 15.1 per cent were female – 6.2 per cent higher than males. Among those who said their family didn't care either way, 10.1 per cent were female – 1.7 per cent more than males (with 9.1 per cent overall).

As Table 3.16 explains, returnees said their family supported their migration decision largely because of the income that would be made and because they respected an individual's choice or approved of their becoming independent or learning new skills and knowledge. Those who were not in favour of the migration were said to be worried the labourer would be cheated or unsafe or would not really make any money.

Table 3.15: What transportation did returnees use to leave the home area

Unit: %

| Transportation means | Total | Male | Female |
|--|-------|------|--------|
| On foot | 14.5 | 17.4 | 9.7 |
| By bus | 71.1 | 71.0 | 71.4 |
| Hitchhiking | 11.7 | 8.8 | 16.4 |
| Take the vehicle provided by employers | 2.0 | 2.0 | 2.0 |
| Other | 0.7 | 0.9 | 0.5 |

Figure 3.6: Family's attitude toward labour migration

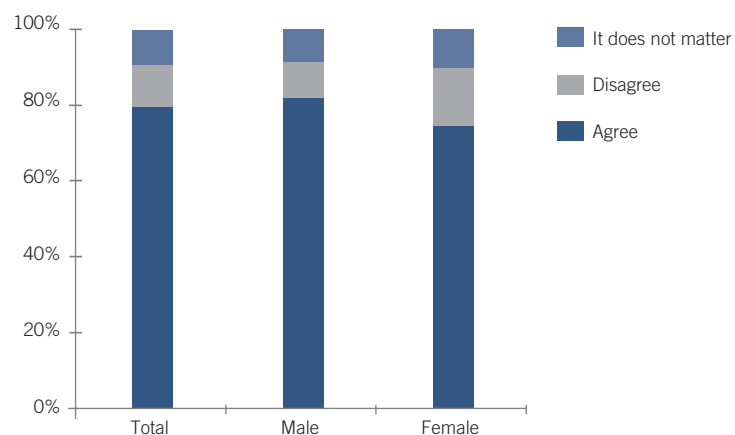


Table 3.16: Reasons for family members' attitude toward a returnee's decision to migrate

Unit: %

| Reasons for agreeing | Total | Male | Female |
|----------------------------------|-------|------|--------|
| They respect my choice | 26.7 | 21.8 | 35.7 |
| Can make money | 64.7 | 70.1 | 54.9 |
| Can gain new knowledge or skills | 3.3 | 3.3 | 3.3 |
| Can go to see the outside world | 1.8 | 1.4 | 2.7 |
| Can be independent | 3.0 | 3.0 | 3.0 |
| Other | 0.45 | 0.4 | 0.5 |
| Reasons for disagreeing | Total | Male | Female |
| The possibility of being cheated | 48.9 | 35.7 | 61.6 |
| Concern for my safety | 24.9 | 27.4 | 22.6 |
| What if I cannot make money? | 14.3 | 22.3 | 6.7 |
| Other | 11.8 | 14.7 | 9.2 |

Location of longest migrant work period

As Table 3.17 shows, most of the returnees who had migrated spent their longest period of time working within Yunnan. A large portion even stayed within the county (39.7 per cent overall). And among those who went to another province or abroad, a significantly large proportion was female. For instance, around 25 per cent of the females went abroad while only 7 per cent of the males did likewise. More males than females worked a long period of time in the provincial capital of Kunming City.

By county, 51.9 per cent of the returnees in Menglian County and 21.8 per cent in Ximeng worked for the longest period of time in another country; those two counties are border areas.

In terms of occupation among those migrating to another province or country, 37.4 per cent, 26.3 per cent and 51.3 per cent of them had a staff job in the business, service and special technical sectors, respectively.

Table 3.17a Places with the longest working period of time, by returnees per county

Unit: %

| Workplace area | Total | Male | Female | Pu'er | Menglian | Ximeng | Yuanyang | Jinping | Hekou |
|-------------------|-------|------|--------|-------|----------|--------|----------|---------|-------|
| Within the county | 39.7 | 42.6 | 34.9 | 31.9 | 30.3 | 41.6 | 34.0 | 46.1 | 57.2 |
| Another county | 31.1 | 36.0 | 23.1 | 51.2 | 10.8 | 21.2 | 53.7 | 30.1 | 23.1 |
| Kunming City | 6.0 | 6.6 | 5.0 | 6.9 | 2.2 | 1.6 | 10.2 | 8.1 | 8.7 |
| Another province | 9.2 | 7.6 | 11.8 | 5.6 | 4.9 | 13.8 | 2.1 | 15.4 | 11.0 |
| Another country | 14.0 | 7.1 | 25.2 | 4.4 | 51.9 | 21.8 | 0 | 0.3 | 0 |

Table 3.17b: Places with the longest working period of time, by age group of returnees

Unit: %

| Workplace area | Total | Aged 10–14 | Aged 15–17 | Aged 18–25 | Aged 26–30 | Aged 31–35 | Aged 36 and older |
|-------------------|-------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|-------------------|
| Within the county | 39.7 | 50.0 | 36.0 | 30.6 | 39.8 | 42.6 | 51.8 |
| Another county | 31.1 | 38.9 | 33.0 | 32.6 | 27.4 | 30.9 | 30.7 |
| Kunming City | 6.0 | 5.6 | 5.6 | 9.4 | 6.2 | 5.0 | 1.6 |
| Another province | 9.2 | 0.0 | 9.1 | 14.2 | 11.3 | 4.7 | 3.5 |
| Another country | 14.0 | 5.6 | 16.2 | 13.3 | 15.4 | 16.7 | 12.5 |

Figure 3.7 and Figure 3.8 depict low education levels among returnees. Nearly all (95.2 per cent) either didn't go beyond primary or lower secondary school. And less than 10 per cent only once participated in a skills training course. With low education and few skills, returnees reported their options were largely limited to the less-skilful service sectors, including wholesale and retail trade, restaurants, hotels, tourism, sports (gym) and entertainment services, and the simple manual labour sectors, including mining, the fixing, operation and examination of equipment, construction and operating transport equipment.

Table 3.18a shows that 52.8 per cent of the returnees (largely males) had jobs operating manufacturing or transport equipment while 29.6 per cent of them (largely females) worked in the business or service sectors. A smaller portion of the returnees (13.5 per cent) had employment in the agriculture, forestry, animal husbandry, fishing or irrigation industries (only slightly more males than females). When combining occupation and education, as Table 3.18b does, those with lower secondary or higher education found jobs on a special technical staff or in an ordinary staff. Not surprising, no one either illiterate or somewhat literate had those types of jobs.

Figure 3.7: Education attainment of migrant returnees

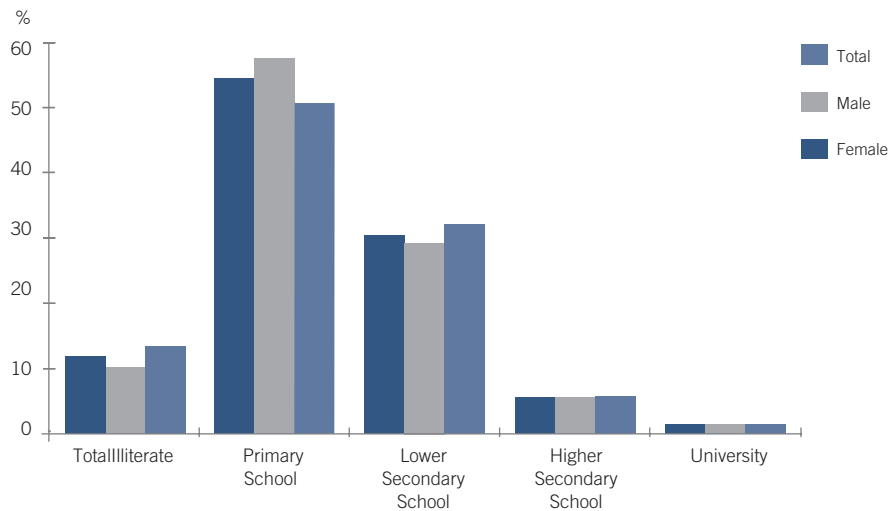


Figure 3.8: Occupational training among returnees

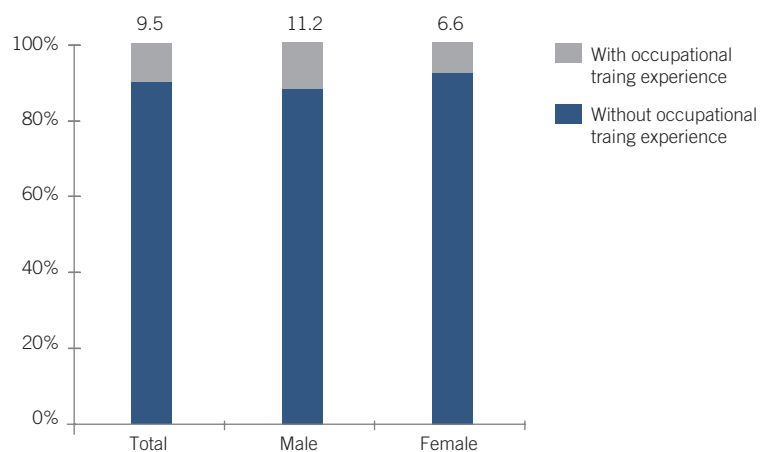


Table 3.18a: Occupation of returnees

Unit: %

| Occupation type | Total | Male | Female |
|--|-------|------|--------|
| Responsible person in government organizations, CCP organization or enterprise | 0.05 | 0.1 | 0 |
| Special technical staff | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.6 |
| Office staff | 0.8 | 1.3 | 0 |
| In business or service sector | 29.6 | 8.9 | 63.5 |
| In agriculture, forestry, animal husbandry, fishing or irrigation | 13.5 | 14.4 | 11.9 |
| In the sectors of manufacturing and transportation equipment operation | 52.8 | 74.2 | 17.8 |
| Other | 2.7 | 0.5 | 6.2 |

Table 3.18b: Occupation of returnees, by education

Unit: %

| Occupation Type | Illiterate or somewhat literate | Primary school | Lower secondary school | Higher secondary school | Total |
|---|---------------------------------|----------------|------------------------|-------------------------|-------|
| Special technical staff | 0 | 26.3 | 36.8 | 36.8 | 100 |
| Office staff | 0 | 30.4 | 39.1 | 30.4 | 100 |
| In business or service sector | 7.8 | 50.8 | 35.4 | 6 | 100 |
| In agriculture, forestry, animal husbandry, fishing or irrigation | 22.5 | 51.3 | 23.3 | 2.9 | 100 |
| In the sectors of manufacturing or transportation equipment operation | 12.0 | 55.4 | 28.6 | 4.1 | 100 |
| Other | 5.3 | 59.2 | 34.2 | 1.3 | 100 |

More than 40 per cent of the migrant returnees reported having no allocated holiday time while employed; the majority said they could ask and receive leave time. On average, the returnees reported working 8.89 hours per day: males at 8.99 hours and females at 8.73 hours. Those who did receive allocated holiday time had 2.1 days on average per month: males had 1.99 days and females had 2.28 days. However, of the returnees who had no vacation time, 46.9 per cent were male and 40.5 per cent were female.

This data indicates unstable and discontinuous employment among some labourers. When asked, 81.5 per cent of the returnees said they could ask for time off (78.6 per cent of the females, which was 4.7 per cent lower than males).

By age, migrant returnees aged 10–14 and 15–17 reported having to work for long hours and had less holiday time than others, as Table 3.19 and Table 3.20 explain.

Table 3.19: Time off or holidays allowed returnees, by age group

| | Total | Male | Female | Aged 10–14 | Aged 15–17 | Aged 18–25 | Aged 26–30 | Aged 31–35 | Aged 36 and older |
|--|-------|------|--------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|-------------------|
| Days allowed for monthly time off or holiday | 2.10 | 1.99 | 2.28 | 0.78 | 1.96 | 2.16 | 2.18 | 2.19 | 1.97 |

Though the migrant returnees reported an average monthly income that was double that of villagers' net income, their earnings were still much less than what non-migrating urban-based workers were paid. The surveyed returnees reported earning an average monthly income of RMB490.89 (males reporting RMB418.79 and females claiming RMB608.64). That overall average was three to four times more than the per capita net income of local rural families.

By county, returnees in Menglian reported the highest monthly income level at RMB975.76, which was attributed to more of them working abroad. Next were returnees in Yuanyang whose reported average monthly earnings were RMB409.05. Returnees in the other project counties reported a monthly average income of less than RMB400; the average of those in Hekou was only RMB343.73 (Table 3.21).

Returnees aged 26–30 had the highest average monthly income at RMB552.85; those aged 10–14 earned the least at RMB267.22, on average (Table 3.20 and Figure 3.9).

By ethnic minority, average monthly income reported by returnees broke down as: RMB377.43 for the Miao, RMB404.15 for the Yi, RMB1,041.35 for the Dai, RMB358.10 for the Hani, RMB374.63 for the Wa, RMB367.19 for the Lahu, RMB409.76 for the Yao and RMB412.79 for the Han.

Not surprising, those returnees who had attended a three-year college programme or more reported having the largest earnings – RMB1,133.33 per month, while those who said they were illiterate and somewhat literate earned at the lowest end of range – only RMB361.51. The income of the others with education spanning primary, lower and higher secondary school levels reported comparable monthly earnings close to the overall average.

Table 3.20: Working hours and monthly income of returnees, by age group

| | Aged 10–14 | | | Aged 15–17 | | | Aged 18–25 | | |
|----------------------|------------|-------|--------|------------|--------|--------|------------|--------|--------|
| | Subtotal | Male | Female | Subtotal | Male | Female | Subtotal | Male | Female |
| Daily working hours | 10.61 | 12.80 | 9.77 | 9.22 | 9.11 | 9.3 | 8.96 | 9.01 | 8.91 |
| Monthly income (RMB) | 267.22 | 270 | 266.15 | 446.19 | 433.87 | 453.77 | 510.88 | 427.97 | 609.37 |

| | Aged 26–30 | | | Aged 31–35 | | |
|----------------------|------------|--------|--------|------------|--------|--------|
| | Subtotal | Male | Female | Subtotal | Male | Female |
| Daily working hours | 8.83 | 9.09 | 8.36 | 8.57 | 8.72 | 8.27 |
| Monthly income (RMB) | 552.85 | 452.05 | 729.56 | 514.91 | 422.37 | 703.48 |

| | Aged 36 and older | | | Total | | |
|----------------------|-------------------|------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| | Subtotal | Male | Female | Total | Male | Female |
| Daily working hours | 8.88 | 9.01 | 8.46 | 8.89 | 8.99 | 8.73 |
| Monthly income (RMB) | 430.42 | 391 | 559.27 | 490.89 | 418.79 | 608.64 |

Figure 3.9: Monthly income of returned migrant labourers, by age

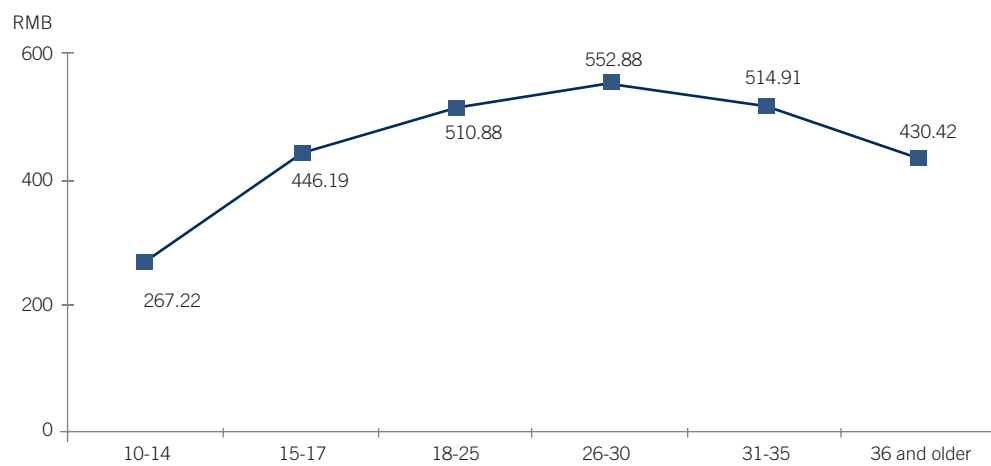


Table 3.21: Monthly income of returned migrant labourers, by county

| County | Total | Male | Female |
|--------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Total | RMB490.89 | RMB418.79 | RMB608.64 |
| Hekou | 343.73 | 355.69 | 319.7 |
| Jinping | 384.07 | 409.83 | 351.9 |
| Yuanyang | 409.05 | 428.47 | 303.28 |
| Menglian | 975.76 | 507.22 | 1156.07 |
| Pu'er | 386.31 | 433.85 | 266.8 |
| Ximeng | 399.02 | 409.33 | 368.85 |

A majority of the returning migrant labourers said they were able to communicate with their families while they were away; more females reported a higher frequency than males. Among the interviewed returnees, 47.91 per cent said they communicated with their family at least once a month, 34.88 per cent once every three months, 11.26 per cent once every four or six months, and a small proportion seldom communicated home or weren't sure how often, as [Table 3.22](#) shows. Returnees reported various types of unfair treatment, ranging from wages withheld to abuse. Their experiences underscore the need for an

organized urban labour market that provides all workers with legal protection and access to recourse for unfair treatment. The lack of it has inhibited some labourers from seeking better economic opportunity.

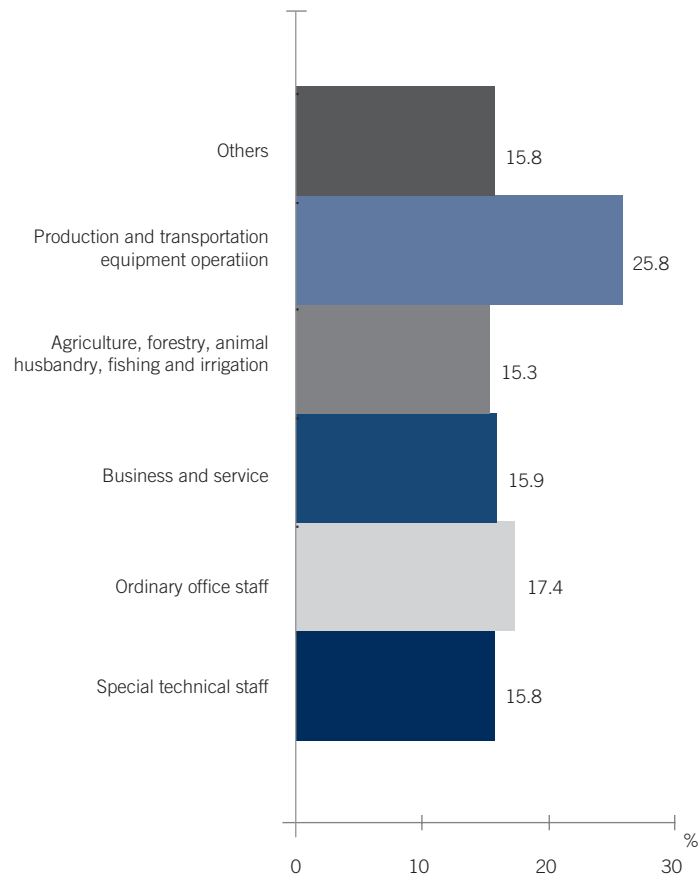
According to the data, 21.1 per cent of the returning labourers reported being unfairly treated at least once during their employment (23.7 per cent male and 16.8 per cent female). The more common complaints came from returnees who had been working in the manufacturing and transport equipment sectors, as [Figure 3.10](#) illustrates.

Table 3.22: Ratio of working days to the frequency of communicating with families

Unit: %

| Frequency | Total | Male | Female |
|-----------------------|-------|------|--------|
| At least once a month | 47.9 | 45.0 | 52.7 |
| 1–3 months | 34.9 | 36.2 | 32.8 |
| 4–5 months | 4.8 | 5.4 | 3.8 |
| Every six months | 6.5 | 7.4 | 5.1 |
| 7–11 months | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.7 |
| Once a year or longer | 2.4 | 2.36 | 2.57 |
| Not sure | 2.7 | 2.9 | 2.5 |

Figure 3.10: Experience among returnees of unfair treatment, by occupation



Returning labourers described frequent instances of wage delay or deduction and regarded it as a serious problem for migrant workers. As Table 3.23a shows, 48.7 per cent of the surveyed returnees had experienced wage delay (55.6 per cent male and 32.8 per cent female); 35.6 per cent reported some type of abuse (30.6 per cent male and 47.0 per cent female), 31.8 per cent had to work long hours, 30.1 per cent could not get fully paid, 17.2 per cent encountered discrimination from employers and 7.3 per cent could not freely leave their workplace.

By occupation (Table 3.23b), more returnees (54.2 per cent) who had worked in manufacturing and

transport equipment operation reported that at least once their wages were either delayed or not paid. Another 34.3 per cent said they were not fully paid. Among returnees who had worked in the business or service sectors, the greatest complaint involved verbal abuse: 47.4 per cent reported experiencing verbal abuse and 35.6 per cent said they worked overtime but received no remuneration for it. A frequent complaint among returnees (25.4 per cent) who had worked in agriculture, forestry, animal husbandry, fishing or irrigation was discrimination; the most common complaint was delay of wages (44.1 per cent).

Table 3.23a: Proportion of returnees who received unfair treatment

Unit: %

| Problems | Total | Male | Female |
|---|-------|------|--------|
| Verbal abuse | 35.6 | 30.6 | 47.0 |
| Beaten | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.9 |
| Sexual abuse | 1.2 | 0.2 | 3.3 |
| Wage deduction (delay) | 48.7 | 55.6 | 32.8 |
| Short payment | 30.1 | 34.2 | 20.8 |
| Long hours | 31.8 | 32.5 | 30.1 |
| Freedom confined (cannot leave the workplace) | 7.29 | 6.4 | 9.3 |
| Safety cannot be ensured | 10.9 | 13.1 | 6.0 |
| Discrimination | 17.2 | 14.5 | 23.5 |
| Other | 3.6 | 2.4 | 6.6 |

Table 3.23b: Proportion of returnees who received unfair treatment by occupation

Unit: %

| | Special technical staff | Ordinary office staff | Business and service sectors | Agriculture, animal husbandry, fishing and irrigation sectors | Operating production and transportation equipment | Other |
|---|-------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------------|---|---|-------|
| Verbal abuse | 33.3 | 25.0 | 47.4 | 28.8 | 32.5 | 41.7 |
| Beaten | 0.0 | 0.0 | 5.2 | 6.8 | 3.1 | 8.3 |
| Sexual abuse | 0.0 | 0.0 | 3.7 | 0.0 | 0.5 | 0.0 |
| Payment deduction (delay) | 66.7 | 75.0 | 32.6 | 44.1 | 54.2 | 58.3 |
| Payment shortage | 0.0 | 25.0 | 18.5 | 33.9 | 34.3 | 16.7 |
| Long hours | 33.3 | 25.0 | 35.6 | 25.4 | 32.2 | 8.3 |
| Freedom confined (cannot leave the workplace) | 0.0 | 25.0 | 11.1 | 6.8 | 6.1 | 0.0 |
| Safety cannot be ensured | 0.0 | 0.0 | 6.7 | 10.2 | 12.8 | 8.3 |
| Discrimination | 0.0 | 0.0 | 21.5 | 25.4 | 14.8 | 16.7 |
| Other | 0.0 | 0.0 | 4.4 | 8.5 | 2.1 | 25.0 |

Only 10.6 per cent of the returnees said they reported the unfair employer treatment to the police or any relevant organization; 33.4 per cent of them thought about it but then took no action. Another 56.0 per cent either resolved the situation on their own or did nothing.

While more women than men did not go to the police or an assisting agency for help, (57.9 per cent female, which was 2.8 per cent more than males) at least 14.8 per cent of the women said they took some action – which was 6.0 per cent more than men. This suggests that females may be more aware of their rights or the laws protecting them.

The survey results indicate that labourers' working

conditions need to be improved. As Table 3.24 shows, unfavourable conditions ranged from lack of fresh air (19.2 per cent of the returnees noted this problem) and poor lighting (46.3 per cent) to lack of cleanliness (46.3 per cent) and to lack of protective gear or garments (67.1). Another 66.1 per cent (66.7 per cent male and 65.2 per cent female) said they were not protected from exposure to a virus.

By occupation, most complaints came from returnees who had worked in highly dangerous or strenuous situations through their jobs in manufacturing or transport equipment operation, the service sector, construction, a restaurant, mining or goods processing.

Table 3.24: Working environment conditions for returnees

Unit: %

| | Total | Male | Female |
|---|-------|------|--------|
| Fresh air? | | | |
| Yes | 80.8 | 78.4 | 84.9 |
| No | 19.2 | 21.6 | 15.1 |
| Enough lighting? | | | |
| Yes | 84.1 | 83.3 | 85.5 |
| No | 15.9 | 16.7 | 14.5 |
| Cleanness? | | | |
| Yes | 53.7 | 40.8 | 74.7 |
| No | 46.3 | 59.2 | 25.3 |
| Provision of safety-protection gear, clothing and other injury-prevention measures? | | | |
| Yes | 32.9 | 31.5 | 35.1 |
| No | 67.1 | 68.5 | 65.0 |
| Protection from viral infections? | | | |
| Yes | 33.9 | 33.3 | 34.8 |
| No | 66.1 | 66.7 | 65.2 |

Living conditions

The survey showed that more than 40 per cent of the returning migrant labourers (54.3 per cent female and 32.8 per cent male) lived in houses provided by employers, and 43.9 per cent (24.1 per cent female and 56.1 per cent male) were provided accommodations at their workplace.

When asked with whom they lived, 73.0 per cent of the returnees noted friends or fellow workers, 13.2 per cent with relatives or family members, and 11.43 per cent stayed alone. Far more males (78.7 per cent) than females (63.7 per cent) lived with friends or fellow workers; more females (17.8 per cent) than males (10.5 per cent) stayed with relatives or family members; and more females (15.1 per cent) than males (9.2) lived alone.

Reasons for and process of returning home

Most of the returnees were actually just on a home visit to see their family when interviewed. The survey found that of all the reasons for returning, visiting family members ranked first at 68.8 per cent (73.7 per cent female, which was 7.9 per cent higher than males), helping farming work at 34.4 per cent (31.5 per cent female, which was 4.8 per cent lower than males), marriage or giving birth at 12.2 per cent (15.0 per cent female, which was 4.4

per cent higher than males); unemployment counted for 10.2 per cent (7.9 per cent female and 11.7 per cent male).

When asked about the returning transportation, 77.7 per cent took a bus, 10.8 per cent rode in a pick-up truck, 9.6 per cent walked; only 0.9 per cent took a vehicles provided by the employer and 1.1 per cent returned another way. By sex, 92.0 per cent of the females returned by bus or in a pick-up truck, which was 5.7 per cent more than males; 11.6 per cent of the males walked, which was 5.4 per cent more than females.

Future plans

When asked about future plans, more returnees (47.1 per cent female and 51.2 per cent male) expected to re-migrate for the purpose of earning money; 10.1 per cent would go again to seek new knowledge; 31.0 per cent said they were staying home. Around 5 per cent said they had no future plans as of yet.

Broken down by minority group as [Table 3.25](#) shows, the Hani, Yi and Dai had the highest re-migration expectation rates at 59.5 per cent, 54.0 per cent and 53.3 per cent, respectively. The Wa among the returnees expressed the least interest in re-migrating (48.4 per cent).

Table 3.25: Future plans among returnees, by ethnic group

Unit: %

| | Total | Han | Miao | Yi | Yao | Hani | Dai | Wa | Lahu |
|----------------------------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Labour migration for money | 50.1 | 44.0 | 44.1 | 54.0 | 46.8 | 59.5 | 53.5 | 43.2 | 50.9 |
| Learn useful skills | 10.1 | 9.2 | 13.1 | 11.6 | 9.7 | 17.5 | 7.5 | 3.7 | 5.3 |
| Do some decent work | 0.84 | 0.68 | 0.4 | 1.5 | 0.8 | 0.5 | 1.9 | 0.6 | 0.0 |
| Live outside | 2.2 | 1.4 | 2.9 | 2.0 | 2.4 | 0.8 | 6.4 | 0.8 | 3.5 |
| Stay home | 31.0 | 40.3 | 35.1 | 26.8 | 19.4 | 17.0 | 21.4 | 48.4 | 35.1 |
| Other | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0 | 1.0 | 0.8 | 1.0 | 0.6 | 0.2 | 1.8 |
| Not sure | 5.1 | 3.8 | 4.5 | 3.0 | 20.2 | 3.8 | 8.6 | 3.1 | 3.5 |

Most of the returnees thought that access to a better job was affected by such key factors as education, skill level, job experience and age. As Table 3.26 shows, skill level was perceived as the most critical, followed by education then job experiences and age. Broken down between the sexes, males perceived the key factors in the same order as the average

but females on their own placed importance in a different way: education first, then age, skill level and job experiences. It was interesting to see that also among the females, their sex ranked least among issues affecting their ability to get a better job.

Table 3.26: Factors affecting access to a better job

Unit: %

| Factors | Total | Male | Female |
|----------------------|-------|------|--------|
| Age | 25.8 | 19.2 | 36.7 |
| Sex | 7.6 | 4.6 | 12.5 |
| Marriage status | 8.5 | 4.5 | 15.3 |
| Education attainment | 48.7 | 50.9 | 45.0 |
| Skill level | 50.1 | 61.4 | 31.6 |
| Job experiences | 30.0 | 31.0 | 28.4 |
| Other | 7.1 | 7.0 | 7.4 |
| Not sure | 10.5 | 10.0 | 11.4 |

Among the various reasons stated against re-migration, the foremost (69.0 per cent) was a desire to stay with family members. Some (35.0 per cent) thought that at their age they should be at home and 27.5 per cent preferred to work in their hometown. 25.6 per cent believed they could find a job in the hometown. A similar portion (23.2 per cent) did not think it was good to stay gone for too long and 12.0 would not leave for other reasons. Both sexes responded alike to these questions, except more females (28.0 per cent) than males (20.0 per cent) did not think it was good to stay gone too long from home.

Economic status remained the primary factor leading to re-migrating. More than 90 per cent of the returnees said they already had decided to migrate again within the year. Table 3.27a shows that 76.7 per cent of the returnees (85.1 per cent male and 62.2 per cent female) reported wanting to improve the family's living conditions, while only 17.1 per cent (10.0 per cent male and 29.3 per cent

female) were more interested in a job elsewhere. A small portion (2.4 per cent) said they had many friends outside to return to. This finding reflects that males bear more economic responsibility than females and probably due to traditional gender roles. The situation by age was the same with the general trend (Table 3.27b).

When asked when they were likely to migrate again, 8.9 per cent of the returnees said within the week, 30.2 per cent within the month and 52.7 per cent said within the year. Only 8.1 per cent said they would wait a year at least.

When asked to where they would migrate, 71.6 per cent of the returnees (82.6 per cent female and 65.16 per cent male) wanted to return to their original workplace, and 28.4 per cent wished to have new employment. When broken down by age, more than 70.0 per cent of the returnees among the 15–30 age group planned to return to their original workplace.

Table 3.27a: Reasons returnees gave for possibly migrating again

Unit: %

| Reasons for migrating | Total | Male | Female |
|---------------------------|-------|------|--------|
| The family needs money | 76.7 | 85.1 | 62.2 |
| Enjoy to work outside | 17.1 | 10.0 | 29.3 |
| Have many friends outside | 2.4 | 1.9 | 3.4 |
| Others | 3.8 | 3.1 | 5.1 |

Table 3.27b: Reasons returnees gave for possibly migrating again, by age group

Unit: %

| Reasons for migrating | Age 10–14 | Age 15–17 | Age 18–25 | Age 26–30 | Age 31–35 | Age 36 and older |
|---------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------------|
| Family needs money | 66.7 | 64.7 | 69.0 | 80.0 | 87.1 | 90.2 |
| Enjoy working outside | 26.7 | 28.2 | 23.5 | 14.6 | 7.3 | 5.7 |
| Have many friends outside | 0.0 | 1.8 | 3.2 | 2.1 | 1.7 | 1.9 |
| Other | 6.7 | 5.3 | 4.4 | 3.2 | 3.9 | 2.2 |

The survey shows that among the returnees who planned to change their job, 18.2 per cent wanted to work on a plantation, 7.2 per cent in animal husbandry, 49.4 per cent (the majority of them male) in construction, and 8.1 per cent in the service sector (the majority of them female) such as cosmetology, hairdressing, childcare, domestic labour or environment sanitation. A small portion (4.6 per cent and most of them male) would seek a job in the repair and maintenance of vehicles and instruments, 6.1 per cent (the majority of them female) would move to the wholesale/retail trade and 5.5 per cent to a restaurant.

Skills trainings

Only a small portion (16.5 per cent) of the returning migrant labourers had any off hours' study or skills training experience, and more of them (14.2 per cent) were female than male (10.6 per cent).

By county, more returnees (32.9 per cent) in Pu'er had some type of training than elsewhere: 18.8 per cent in Hekou, 15.0 per cent in Jinping, of 13.7 per cent in Menglian, 11.8 per cent in Yuanyang, and 6.2 per cent in Ximeng.

Of those with training experience, half (47.2 per

cent male and 57.4 per cent female) had attended a training session only once; 22.8 per cent went to a training twice and 26.6 per cent (30.5 per cent male and 18.7 per cent female) attended something three times or more. The data suggests that more training opportunities were available to males.

Around 90 per cent of the returnees thought skills training would help them in finding a better job. When asked whether training had led to a better job, 91.5 per cent of the males and 86.5 per cent of the females said "yes", and only 5.1 per cent (7.7 per cent female and 3.8 per cent male) said "no".

When asked what area of training they would seek in the future, 48.4 per cent of the returnees preferred skills in farming/growing cash-crops. Another 39.9 per cent wanted to learn more science-oriented skills in animal husbandry. Around 14 per cent preferred construction skills (the majority of them male) and 8.5 per cent would like to learn vehicle and equipment maintenance (again the majority of them male). Other occupational skills of choice and largely among the females, as Table 3.28 shows, involved wholesale/retail trade and the service sector, including restaurant, cooking, tourism, sports (gym) and entertainment services, cosmetology, hairdressing, childcare and domestic labour.

Table 3.28: Occupational skills returnees would like to learn for future plans

Unit: %

| Major occupations | Total | Male | Female |
|---|-------|------|--------|
| Agriculture extension workers | 3.0 | 3.0 | 3.0 |
| Goods stock and distribution staff | 3.4 | 2.0 | 6.0 |
| Chinese and Western food cook | 1.8 | 0.9 | 3.3 |
| Restaurant waiter/ waitress | 3.2 | 1.0 | 6.9 |
| Waiters and waitress in restaurants and the sites of travelling, sports (gym) and entertainment | 4.4 | 1.3 | 9.4 |
| Provide services for others' daily lives | 7.0 | 1.2 | 16.5 |
| Work in business or service sector | 2.2 | 1.6 | 3.1 |
| Work in plantation industry | 48.4 | 46.9 | 50.8 |
| Work in animal husbandry industry | 39.9 | 38.5 | 42.3 |
| Work in mining or exploring industries | 2.4 | 3.7 | 0.4 |
| Mechanic equipment repairman | 4.7 | 7.2 | 0.7 |
| Work in the sectors of sewing, cloth cutting, leather and fur processing | 1.7 | 0.5 | 3.8 |
| Construction | 14.3 | 22.5 | 1.0 |
| Transportation equipment operator | 8.5 | 12.8 | 1.5 |

Health

Most migrant returnees (97.6 per cent) described their health as “good” or “ok” – only 2.1 per cent said they are often ill. However, only 21.1 per cent of them (33.5 per cent female and 13.6 per cent male) had had a medical check-up in the previous two years. When asked, and of concern, was the 38.3 per cent of the returnees (65.2 per cent female and 59.5 male) who said they had never heard of HIV/AIDS. This finding strongly indicates the need for more advocacy and health education to prevent the spread of HIV and other sexually transmitted infections.

Protection from traffickers or abuse

Most returnees believed there were effective approaches to preventing or minimizing trafficking

risks or the infringements of their rights. Table 3.29 lists the importance the returnees gave to possible recourse: turn to a government agency or relevant organization (36.3 per cent), discuss with relatives or friends (36.0 per cent), choose not to believe others easily (45.9 per cent), try to ask and learn more (26.0 per cent), or go to the police or other law enforcement (36.7 per cent).

More males than females preferred going to the police or relevant government agency. However, more females than males would choose the other methods. The 7.4 per cent of the returnees (equally between the sexes) who responded with “not sure” would likely be key targets for protective measures.

Table 3.29: Methods for preventing or minimizing trafficking risks and rights infringement

Unit: %

| Methods | Total | Male | Female |
|--|-------|------|--------|
| Go to government agency or relevant organization | 39.6 | 43.3 | 32.7 |
| Discuss with relatives or friends | 36.0 | 32.8 | 41.4 |
| Do not believe others easily | 45.9 | 40.6 | 54.7 |
| Try to ask and learn more | 26.0 | 25.4 | 27.0 |
| Turn to the police | 36.7 | 41.4 | 29.0 |
| Other | 1.6 | 1.9 | 1.2 |
| Not sure | 7.4 | 7.3 | 7.6 |

3.2 Analysis of the key data from migrant labourers in the two receiving districts

3.2.1 Demographics

A total of 3,375 migrant labourers were interviewed during the baseline survey in two districts of Kunming City, which is regarded as a migration destination. Of that total, 44.1 per cent (1,487) were male and 55.9 per cent (1,888) were female.

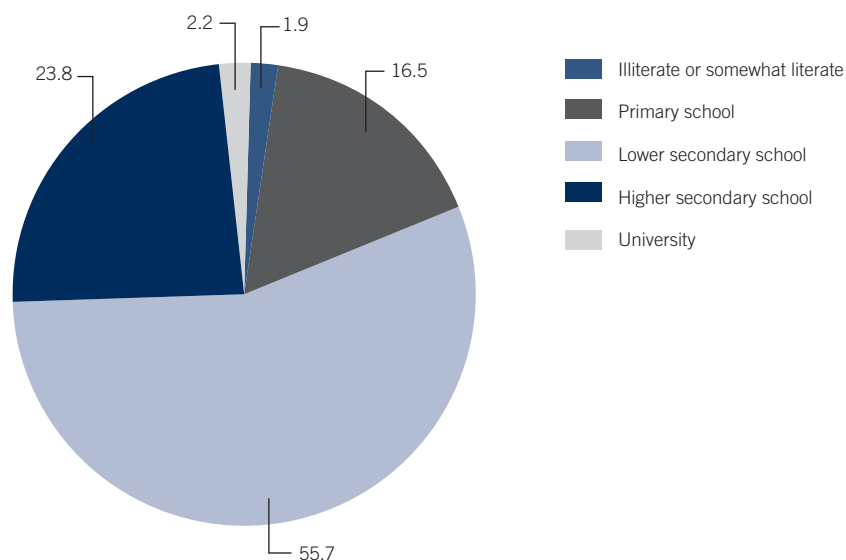
The largest grouping was aged 18–25 years, at 63.8 per cent. And on average, females were younger than males. As for the others, 0.2 per cent were aged 10–14; 10.1 per cent were 15–17 years; 14.9 per cent were aged 26–30; 9.4 per cent were aged 31–35; and 1.7 per cent were 36 years old or older. The data indicates that child labour does exist and raises the need for labour inspection departments to strengthen their law enforcement.

By ethnic minority, most (82.2 per cent) of the labourers were Han; 8.3 per cent were Hui, 4.6 per cent were Yi and 1.3 per cent were Dai. A few others belonged to other minority groups in

very small number. By marital status, most (76.6 per cent) of the labourers were single; 22.8 per cent were married, 0.5 per cent were divorced and 0.1 per cent were widowed.

And by schooling, 16.5 per cent of the migrant labourers only had a primary school education while 55.7 per cent had no more than a lower secondary education and 23.8 per cent had higher secondary school experiences (Figure 3.11). If described by schooling status, 81.16 per cent of the respondents had graduated (from both primary and secondary school), 12.71 per cent had dropped out and 4.15 per cent “finished schooling”. (In China, people who do not do well in school but complete all grades receive a certificate stating only that they have “finished schooling”; those who do well receive a graduation certificate and are considered “graduated”.) Nearly 2 per cent of the labourers had attended university.

Figure 3.11: Education level of migrant labourers in receiving areas



3.2.2 Age and motivation at time of first migration

On average, the labourers in the two surveyed districts first migrated when they were 18.71 (18.77 years for males and 18.67 for females). As Table 3.30 shows, nearly 60 per cent of them said

they migrated to make money. Another 53.6 per cent reported wanting to see the outside world, and less than half of them wanted to gain new knowledge or seek enriching experiences. A small portion admitted wanting to escape farm work (10.2 per cent) or school (4.5 per cent) or to follow the trend (5.5 per cent).

Table 3.30: Reasons for labour migration

Unit: %

| Reasons | Total | Male | Female |
|--------------------------|-------|------|--------|
| Make money | 59.9 | 65.1 | 55.8 |
| To see the outside world | 53.6 | 48.9 | 57.3 |
| Enrich experiences | 45.8 | 45.6 | 45.9 |
| Escape schooling | 4.5 | 4.7 | 4.3 |
| Escape farm work | 10.2 | 10.2 | 10.2 |
| Follow the trend | 5.52 | 5.3 | 5.8 |
| Other | 4.7 | 4.6 | 4.8 |

3.2.3. Deciding to migrate

As Table 3.31a indicates, most (87.5 per cent) of the interviewed labourers said they made the decision to migrate on their own. Among the some 13 per cent who did not decide for themselves, more were female: 2.4 per cent of them allowed their spouse, parents, relative or someone else to make the decision for them. The data reflects that females had less freedom than males in making the decision of labour migration, although the difference is not very significant.

Broken down by age groups in Table 3.31b, a high rate (nearly 90 per cent) among those labourers aged 18–30 made the labour migration decision on their own. Not surprising, parents made the decision for most of those aged between 10 and 17 years who left the decision-making up to someone else – although most of the people in those two age groups also made the decision to migrate on their own.

Table 3.31a: Who made the decision for labour migration, by sex

Unit: %

| Decision makers | Total | Male | Female |
|-----------------|-------|------|--------|
| Myself | 87.5 | 88.8 | 86.4 |
| Parents | 8.0 | 7.8 | 8.2 |
| Spouse | 1.9 | 1.1 | 2.5 |
| Relative | 2.2 | 2.0 | 2.4 |
| Other | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.5 |

Table 3.31b: Who made the decision for labour migration, by age group

Unit: %

| Dcision makers | Aged 10–14 | Aged 15–17 | Aged 18–25 | Aged 26–30 | Aged 31–35 | Aged and older |
|----------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|----------------|
| Myself | 83.3 | 80.9 | 89.4 | 88.7 | 81.1 | 80.4 |
| Parents | 16.7 | 14.1 | 7.5 | 6.9 | 6.9 | 5.4 |
| Spouse | 0.0 | 0.3 | 0.7 | 2.8 | 8.8 | 8.9 |
| Relative | 0.0 | 3.8 | 2.0 | 1.6 | 2.5 | 5.4 |
| Others | 0.0 | 0.9 | 0.4 | 0.0 | 0.6 | 0.0 |

As with the labourers in the sending counties, the labour migration seemed unorganized. When asked who assisted them in finding the first job, 51.9 per cent of those interviewed did it on their own; 25.6 per cent relied on the help of relatives or family members, 16.3 per cent used a friend and only 1.8 per cent went through a government agency (Table 3.32a). Females may have had more difficulty finding a job; in all categories, the female rates were lower than the male rates.

This data reflects a need for the Government to concentrate more effort on surplus rural labourers and on creating more and safer choices for them. In the current unsound labour market, there can be many hidden troubles in labour management, service supply and legal protection.

According to education levels, 84.6 per cent of workers who found a job on their own had a university education, 76.7 per cent had three-years of college, 60.2 per cent had been to lower secondary school, 54.7 per cent had only primary

school education and 55.4 per cent were illiterate or somewhat literate. This data underscores the relationship between education level and employment choices: The higher the education level, the more choices there are available either because of skills or a person's confidence in knowing how to find them. Some 88.97 per cent of the labourers (89.7 per cent female and 88.0 per cent male) said they trusted the organization or individual who helped them find work. Only 11.0 per cent (10.3 per cent female and 12.0 per cent male) did not or were suspicious at first but did not give it a second thought. This data suggests that the female labourers were not as cautious as the males.

The data in Table 3.32b is fairly consistent among age groups in reporting who helped them find a job – except for the older teenagers. More of them relied less on their own than others; nearly half of them seemed to have used a family member or relative to find employment, suggesting that possibly they followed them into the same workplace.

Table 3.32a: Department or individual who helped in finding the first job

Unit: %

| Department or individual | Total | Male | Female |
|--------------------------------|-------|------|--------|
| Relevant government department | 1.8 | 2.0 | 1.5 |
| Myself | 51.9 | 53.0 | 51.1 |
| Schoolmate/friend | 16.3 | 17.4 | 15.5 |
| Intermediate person | 1.5 | 2.1 | 1.0 |
| Relative/family member | 25.6 | 22.6 | 27.9 |
| Employment agency | 1.7 | 1.6 | 1.8 |
| Other | 1.3 | 1.4 | 1.3 |

Table 3.32b: Department or individual who helped in finding the first job, by age group

Unit: %

| | Aged 10–14 | Aged 15–17 | Aged 18–25 | Aged 26–30 | Aged 31–35 | Aged 36 or older |
|--------------------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------------|
| Relevant government department | 0.0 | 0.3 | 1.8 | 2.9 | 1.9 | 0.0 |
| Myself | 66.7 | 32.1 | 53.3 | 54.8 | 59.3 | 50.0 |
| Schoolmate/friend | 16.7 | 17.1 | 16.9 | 15.7 | 11.7 | 21.4 |
| Intermediate person | 0.0 | 2.1 | 1.3 | 2.2 | 0.6 | 1.8 |
| Relative/family member | 16.7 | 45.0 | 23.3 | 22.4 | 24.9 | 26.8 |
| Occupational agency | 0.0 | 2.4 | 1.8 | 1.6 | 1.0 | 0.0 |
| Other | 0.0 | 1.2 | 1.7 | 0.6 | 0.6 | 0.0 |

A large proportion of the labourers interviewed in the two districts migrated there alone: 61.9 per cent (68.7 per cent male but only 56.5 per cent female). And as Table 3.33 shows, most of the migrant labourers travelled by bus, as did more of the

females. A small portion actually walked, and among them more were female. The small portion that took the transport an employer provided suggests that very few of the migrating labourers had been hired before they migrated.

Table 3.33: Transportation means during the process of labour migration

Unit: %

| Transport | Total | Male | Female |
|--|-------|------|--------|
| On foot | 2.7 | 2.1 | 3.1 |
| Bus | 77.6 | 75.9 | 78.9 |
| Hitchhiking | 4.9 | 4.8 | 5.0 |
| Take the vehicle provided by employers | 1.2 | 1.4 | 1.0 |
| Other | 13.7 | 15.9 | 12.0 |

3.2.4. Employment indicators

Job sector

The migrant labourers with lower education ended up in jobs that they regarded as harder work and inferior to those available to people with a higher education. According to the data, 74.07 per cent of the surveyed migrant labourers in the two districts had either a lower secondary education or less (71.4 per cent male and 76.2 per cent female). As Table 3.34 shows, most of the labourers had low-skilled, hard and repetitive manual work. Most of the females (97.2 per cent, which was 30.3 per cent higher than males) had a job in the business or services sectors, such as in a restaurant, tourism, sports (gym) and entertainment services, cosmetology, hairdressing, domestic labour, product marketing or other commercial services. Of the labourers who had a job of operating manufacturing or transportation equipment, including

construction material production and processing, construction, vehicle driving and simple manual work, most were male. Only a small portion (6.2 per cent), and most of them male (13.5 per cent compared to 0.5 per cent female), had an office staff job in areas such as administration or worked as building security guards. Very few labourers interviewed worked in other sectors.

Location of longest working period

In terms of where the labourers had worked the longest, most (89.2 per cent) reported Kunming City (with females higher at 90.7 per cent than males at 87.2 per cent). Among the others who worked longer elsewhere, 2.8 per cent had been employed in their local county, 4.3 per cent in other counties, 3.7 per cent in other provinces and 0.03 per cent in other countries. Women had lower rates than men in all these indicators.

Table 3.34: Occupation sector of the migrant labourers

Unit: %

| Occupation | Total | Male | Female |
|--|-------|------|--------|
| Responsible person | 0.05 | 0.1 | 0.0 |
| Special technique staff | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.6 |
| Ordinary office staff | 6.2 | 13.5 | 0.5 |
| Work in business or services sectors | 83.9 | 66.9 | 97.2 |
| Work in agriculture, forestry, animal husbandry, fishing or irrigation | 0.05 | 0.2 | 0.1 |
| Operate manufacturing or transportation equipment | 9.2 | 18.7 | 1.6 |
| Other | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.0 |

Average working day

The females interviewed reported working only slightly longer hours but with less income than males; all worked longer than the universal standard of eight hours per day. According to the data, on average the labourers worked 9.63 hours (females reported 9.74 hours, which was 0.25 hours more than males).

By education, those with less schooling reported working longer hours: Those describing themselves as illiterate and somewhat literate worked on average for 9.82 hours per day and those with

a primary school education worked 10.32 hours daily. In comparison, those migrant labourers with three years of college study or had graduated university worked only 8.58 hours and 8.62 hours, respectively, per day.

Income

Those who worked longer hours earned an average of RMB590.06 (US\$71.38) per month (with females earning RMB551.73 (\$66.74), which was RMB86.99 (\$10.52) less than males). As [Figure 3.12](#) and [Table 3.35](#) illustrate, more education meant more income.

Figure 3.12: Income of migrant labourers, by education level

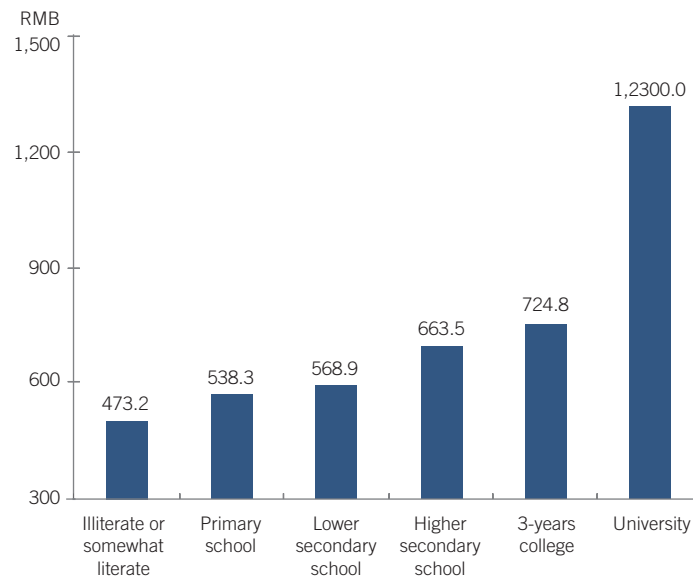


Table 3.35: Income and working hours of migrant labourers, by education level

| Item | Total | | | Illiterate or somewhat illiterate | | | Primary school | | |
|----------------------|--------|--------|--------|-----------------------------------|--------|--------|----------------|--------|--------|
| | Total | Male | Female | Subtotal | Male | Female | Subtotal | Male | Female |
| Daily working hours | 9.63 | 9.49 | 9.74 | 9.82 | 10.04 | 9.68 | 10.32 | 9.98 | 10.57 |
| Monthly income (RMB) | 590.06 | 638.72 | 551.73 | 473.23 | 490.80 | 462.25 | 538.25 | 574.64 | 511.61 |

| Item | Lower secondary school | | | Higher secondary school | | |
|----------------------|------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------------|--------|--------|
| | Subtotal | Male | Female | Subtotal | Male | Female |
| Daily working hours | 9.79 | 9.64 | 9.89 | 8.85 | 8.9 | 8.81 |
| Monthly income (RMB) | 568.88 | 627.45 | 525.37 | 663.48 | 684.00 | 643.95 |

| Item | 3-years college | | | University | | |
|----------------------|-----------------|--------|--------|------------|----------|----------|
| | Subtotal | Male | Female | Subtotal | Male | Female |
| Daily working hours | 8.58 | 8.85 | 8.36 | 8.62 | 8.88 | 8.2 |
| Monthly income (RMB) | 724.77 | 820.00 | 646.85 | 1,300.00 | 1,287.50 | 1,320.00 |

Time off

About one-third of the migrant labourers said they did not have vacation time though they could ask for a leave of absence. According to the data, on average the labourers took 2.77 days of vacation (3.08 days for males and 2.53 days for females), although 31.5 per cent of them reported having no vacation (28.85 for males and 33.58 per cent for

females). These findings suggest that a large portion of the surveyed labourers in the two districts did not have stable or long-term work. They also suggest that labour inspection departments should pay more attention to whether employers properly pay the subsidy due to those without vacation days, as outlined in the country's wage regulations. Many labourers had no holiday time off.

Table 3.36: Frequency of family communication

Unit: %

| Frequency | Total | Male | Female |
|-----------------------|-------|------|--------|
| At least once a month | 70.1 | 65.9 | 73.4 |
| 1–3 months | 20.2 | 22.7 | 18.2 |
| 4–5 months | 2.3 | 2.6 | 2.0 |
| Every six months | 2.79 | 3.7 | 2.1 |
| 7–11 months | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.7 |
| Once a year or longer | 2.4 | 3.0 | 2.0 |
| Not sure | 1.6 | 1.4 | 1.8 |

Communication with family

The majority of the migrant labourers reported keeping in touch regularly with their family, especially the females. As Table 3.36 shows, some 70 per cent communicated at least once a month and 20.1 per cent talked every one to three months.

Nearly 92 per cent of the females reported communicating with their family once in three months – 2.9 per cent more than males. By marital status among them, those who were married (85 per cent) were more likely to stay in more regular touch with their family than those who were divorced or widowed.

Unfair treatment

The survey results show that 16.4 per cent of the interviewed migrant labourers (17.0 per cent male and 15.9 per cent female) reported receiving unfair treatment by an employer at least once. More complaints came from the labourers employed in the business or services sectors (84.5 per cent) and an ordinary office (83.8 per cent), as well as from those operating manufacturing or transportation equipment (75.1 per cent).

The long hours of work and delays or deductions of wages were the main complaints from the migrant labourers. As shown in Table 3.37a, around 39 per cent of the labourers ranked the hours as the most unfair treatment (a complaint heard more from females than males) while nearly 19 per cent reported problems with the wages. However, if the different types of abuses were combined, it would have been the second most common complaint at 24 per cent. There were no reports of sexual abuse.

By occupation as shown in Table 3.37b, more labourers handling productive and transportation equipment complained of problems with their wages (57.1 per cent), although around 16 per cent of them noted long hours. In the business or services sectors, some 44 per cent complained of long hours and nearly 29 per cent mentioned wage problems, but 14 per cent said they could not leave their workplace. In addition to having the greater portion of the migrant labourers in the survey, more problems were reported in these two employment categories.

Table 3.37a: Proportion of migrant labourers experiencing unfair treatment

Unit: %

| Unfair Treatment | Total | Male | Female |
|--|-------|------|--------|
| Verbal abuse | 19.0 | 18.2 | 19.7 |
| Beaten | 5.1 | 7.9 | 2.7 |
| Sexual abuse | -- | -- | -- |
| Wage deduction (delay) | 19.0 | 22.5 | 16.0 |
| Part payment | 12.8 | 13.4 | 12.3 |
| Long hours | 39.4 | 31.2 | 46.3 |
| Freedom confined (cannot leave the workplace) | 14.5 | 13.4 | 15.3 |
| Individual safety cannot be ensured | 6.7 | 8.7 | 5.0 |
| Discrimination | 15.9 | 12.3 | 19.0 |
| Other | 5.4 | 7.9 | 3.3 |

Table 3.37b: Proportion of migrant labourers experiencing unfair treatment, by occupation

Unit: %

| Unfair treatment | Total | Ordinary office staff | Business and service sectors | Operating production and transportation equipment |
|--|-------|-----------------------|------------------------------|---|
| Verbal abuse | 19.0 | 5.9 | 16.9 | 33.8 |
| Beaten | 5.1 | 0.0 | 2.3 | 23.4 |
| Payment delay/no pay | 19.0 | 8.8 | 16.4 | 39.0 |
| Payment deduction | 12.8 | 5.9 | 12.5 | 18.2 |
| Long working hours | 39.4 | 35.3 | 44.2 | 15.6 |
| Freedom confined (cannot leave the workplace) | 14.5 | 38.2 | 14.1 | 6.5 |
| Safety cannot be ensured | 6.7 | 2.9 | 7.3 | 2.6 |
| Discrimination | 15.9 | 5.9 | 18.7 | 5.2 |
| Other | 5.4 | 32.4 | 3.6 | 3.9 |

Most of the migrant labourers, especially the females, said they were not aware of the necessity of taking any legal action against an employer treating them unfairly. Only 8.9 per cent of the labourers once reported a complaint to the police or relevant organization (11.9 per cent male and 6.3 per cent female); 32.0 per cent considered some type of recourse but ultimately did nothing (34.8 per cent male and 29.7 per cent female). And 59.1 per cent never knew that they could go to the police or other organizations for help (53.4 per cent male and 64.0 per cent female).

Comments from the migrant labourers indicate that the working conditions and protective measures in workplaces continue to need improvement. In answer to questions about the conditions, 57.6 per cent of the migrant labourers said they needed more fresh air, 52.5 per cent needed better lighting and 30.9 per cent wanted a cleaner workplace. As well, 77.9 per cent of the labourers reported having no protective gear or garments (72.6 per cent male and 82.0 per cent female) and 92.2 per cent were not protected from an environment that might contain a virus.

When broken down by occupation, more complaints came from the labourers in the sectors with high risk, harder labour, long working hours and dirty environment, such as operating manufacturing or transportation equipment, business or services. Among the workers in the sector of operating manufacturing or transportation equipment, 72.2 per cent said they wanted an

environment with fresh air, 52.4 per cent wanted more lighting, 82.2 per cent needed a cleaner workplace and 60.5 per cent asked for protective gear and garments. Among the workers in the business or services sectors, 56.9 per cent wanted fresh air, 53.8 per cent wanted more lighting, 25.3 per cent needed a cleaner workplace, 81.9 per cent were asking for protective gear and garments and 91.7 per cent were not protected from an environment that might contain a virus.

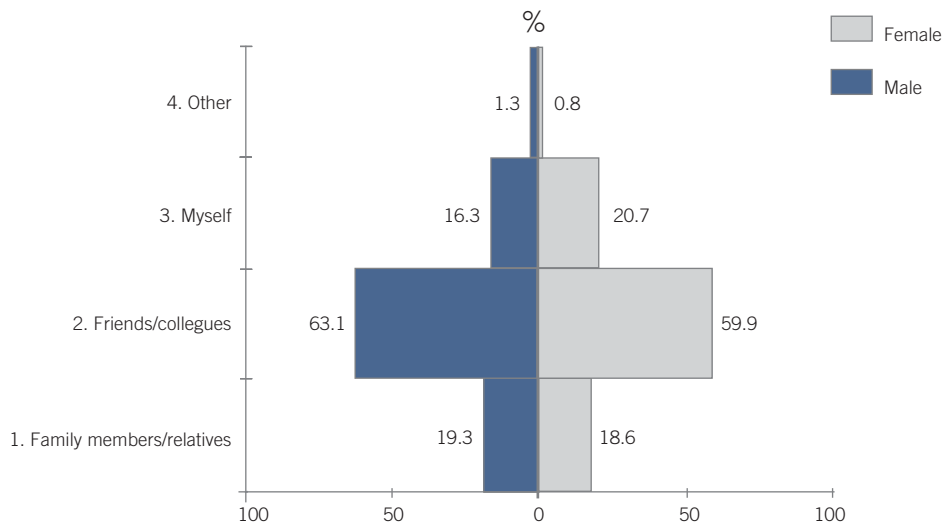
The data emphasizes the need for law enforcement and labour supervision departments to explore resolutions to the existing health and safety problems in workplaces.

3.2.5. Housing

Around half (55.4 per cent) of the migrant labourers lived at their workplace or in dormitories provided by their employer, while 62.0 per cent lived with fellow workers or friends (more females than males). (A portion of the 55.4 per cent of migrants living at the workplace or dormitory might overlap with the 62.0 per cent those who lived with fellow workers or friends.) Around 19 per cent (more females than males) lived with relatives or family members, while nearly 19 per cent lived alone (more males than females), as [Figure 3.13](#) illustrates.

As well, 52.8 per cent of the labourers did not pay any fee or rent for their accommodations (49.6 per cent male and 55.4 per cent female).

Figure 3.13: Lives with whom while away working

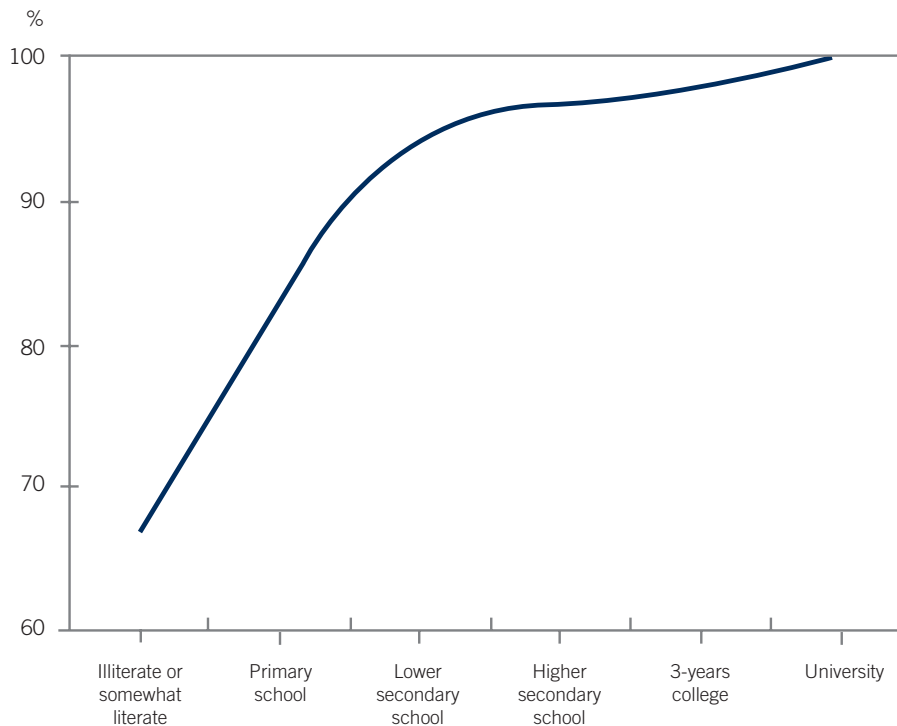


3.2.6. Off-duty study and skills training

Slightly more than half (52.7 per cent) of the migrant labourers in the survey said they had participated in some type of off-duty study or skills training, including more males than females. Males and females reported a similar training frequency:

38.1 per cent of them took a training course once, 23.2 per cent went twice, and 38.76 per cent participated in a training three times or more. The majority (94.0 per cent) of them believed such an opportunity would help them in finding a better job, as Figure 3.14 indicates. Those labourers with more education favoured more training.

Figure 3.14: Persons who believe education and training are useful, by education level



The surveyed migrant labourers said they were in dire need of skills training. As Table 3.38 shows, the more preferred skills sought were in office administration, such as computer operation (nearly 34.0 per cent), restaurant service (12.0 per cent) and daily life services, such as cosmetology and hairdressing (nearly 11 per cent), while some people wanted to specialize in learning to cook Chinese or Western food (nearly 9 per cent overall, though nearly 15 per cent of the males specified it). Another

12.0 per cent (with significantly more males) wanted to learn how to operate transportation equipment, such as driving trucks. Other favoured occupational skills mentioned included goods marketing, hotel work or other tourism fields, working in a gym or an entertainment place, childcare and domestic services.

Table 3.38: Proportion of migrant labourers wanting to attend an occupational training in the future

Unit: %

| Major occupations expected | Total | Male | Female |
|--|-------|------|--------|
| Administrative office affairs (computer operation) | 34.0 | 26.2 | 40.2 |
| Building security guard and fireman | 1.9 | 4.1 | 0.1 |
| Product marketing | 3.7 | 2.8 | 4.4 |
| Chinese and Western food cooking | 8.8 | 14.5 | 4.4 |
| Restaurant service | 12.3 | 8 | 15.7 |
| Service in hotels, tourism, gyms or entertainment establishments | 3.9 | 2.7 | 4.8 |
| Daily life service | 10.7 | 4.0 | 15.9 |
| Social work | 4.2 | 3.0 | 5.2 |
| Construction workers | 1.3 | 3.0 | 0.1 |
| Operate transportation equipment | 12.0 | 21.1 | 4.8 |

3.2.7. Factors affecting access to a better job

In order of importance given overall, education, skill level, job experiences and age were major factors affecting access to a better job, according to

the interviewed migrant labourers. However, females differed from the average rates by putting less importance on skills and a little more emphasis on sex than males did, as Table 3.39 indicates.

Table 3.39: What factors will affect access to a better job

Unit: %

| Factors | Total | Men | Female |
|----------------------|-------|------|--------|
| Age | 17.9 | 16.1 | 19.3 |
| Sex | 2.5 | 1.9 | 3.0 |
| Marriage status | 3.8 | 4.2 | 3.6 |
| Education attainment | 59.5 | 56.8 | 61.6 |
| Skill level | 42.6 | 50.2 | 36.5 |
| Job experiences | 41.3 | 38.7 | 43.3 |
| Other | 5.8 | 6.5 | 5.2 |
| Not sure | 9.0 | 8.6 | 9.4 |

Around 40 per cent of the surveyed labourers thought that their migration experiences could create a positive impact on their future, while 18.6 per cent considered it would have both positive and negative impacts. A small portion, 2.8 per cent, decidedly thought it would be negative. A large portion, 32.7 per cent, said it would have no impact and 6.0 per cent were not sure. There were little differences in opinion between the sexes.

The majority of the migrant labourers were aware of various recourse approaches to prevent or reduce the trafficking risks and other infringements of their rights. For example, as Table 3.40a shows, 51.4 per cent of them would turn to the police or ask for other legal assistance and 22.3 per cent would go to a government agency. Nearly 54 per cent said they would not believe others (except government

and legal employment agencies) easily, while 35.9 per cent said they would try to learn as much as they could before accepting an employment offer that required migrating. Only 5.1 per cent had no idea at all of how to better protect themselves. This latter finding suggests that more efforts should be given to advocacy, education and training of potential migrant labourers.

When broken down between the sexes, females were less aware of what to do to protect themselves: more of them were not sure at all what to do than males. When comparing age groups on the point of going to the police or seeking some other type of legal assistance, as shown in Table 3.40b, a noticeable drop was noted among those interviewed labourers aged 10–14. This implies their greater vulnerability due to less legal knowledge.

Table 3.40a: Recourse to prevent or reduce trafficking risk or rights infringement

Unit: %

| | Total | Male | Female |
|---|-------|------|--------|
| Turn to government department or relevant organization | 22.3 | 25.3 | 20.0 |
| Discuss with relatives or friends | 16.1 | 15.4 | 16.6 |
| Do not believe others easily | 53.7 | 48.0 | 58.2 |
| Try to ask and learn more | 35.9 | 38.2 | 34.1 |
| Report the case to the police or ask for legal assistance | 51.4 | 52.9 | 50.2 |
| Other | 2.2 | 2.6 | 1.9 |
| Not sure | 5.1 | 4.2 | 5.83 |

Table 3.40b: Recourse to prevent or reduce trafficking risk or rights infringement, by age group

Unit: %

| | Aged 10–14 | Aged 15–17 | Aged 18–25 | Aged 26–30 | Aged 31–35 | Aged 36 and older |
|--|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|----------------------|
| Go to relevant government agency | 33.3 | 17.7 | 21.1 | 26.6 | 30.3 | 10.7 |
| Discuss with relatives or friends | 16.7 | 15.6 | 15.4 | 14.9 | 18.6 | 41.1 |
| Do not believe others easily | 66.7 | 55.6 | 54.2 | 50.4 | 50.5 | 69.6 |
| Learn more and ask more | 50.0 | 29.7 | 38.0 | 36.5 | 29.0 | 23.2 |
| Report to the police or ask for legal assistance | 16.7 | 52.4 | 51.2 | 52.4 | 51.1 | 46.4 |
| Other | 0.0 | 2.940 | 2.230 | 1.0 | 3.16 | 1.8 |
| Not sure | 0.0 | 6.18 | 4.93 | 5.2 | 5.7 | 1.8 |

3.2.8. Health

Most (91 per cent) of the migrant labourers believed they were in good health. However, many of them (81.1 per cent) reported having only one medical check-up in the past two years (84.5 per cent female and 76.8 male). Another 8.5 per cent described their health status as “okay” and only 0.36 per cent reported being constantly ill. Such a sense of feeling fit most likely reflects the large portion of labourers who were younger than 25 when interviewed.

Only 67.1 per cent of the interviewed migrant labourers (64.3 per cent female and 70.5 per cent male) knew about HIV/AIDS or how to prevent infection. This again emphasizes the need to strengthen advocacy and health education campaigns among migrant labourers regarding the spread of HIV and other sexually transmitted infections.



4. ANALYSIS OF THE BASIC SOCIAL-ECONOMY INFORMATION OF PROJECT COUNTIES/DISTRICTS

Yunnan is a province with a large agriculture-based population. It contains wide mountainous areas, long borders, many ethnic minorities and much poverty. It covers a total area of 394,000 sq km, which is 4.1 per cent, or eighth in rank, of the nation's total land area. Yunnan neighbours Guizhou Province and Guanxi Zhuang Autonomous Region to the east, Sichuan Province, which is across the Jinsha River to the northeast, Tibet to the northwest, Myanmar to the southwest and Lao PDR and Viet Nam to the south. Its total borderline runs 4,060 km.

Of the eight TICW Project counties and districts, Panlong and Wuhau districts have the most advanced social-economy (as well as among the province's total 129 counties and districts). These two districts (seen as receiving areas) have no agriculture base and only have second and third industries. They are the centre of Yunnan's economy as well as political and cultural centres. The Chinese State Department has prioritized the other six sending counties as poverty-alleviation targets. They are typical agriculture-based counties with an undeveloped social-economy. With large agricultural, ethnic minority and impoverished populations and limited resources to promote economic development, these counties are facing many difficulties in implementing the Government's strategy of people-centred development.

4.1 Economic development levels

Yunnan's economy: its value, development speed and rank in the nation

In 2003, Yunnan's gross domestic product (GDP) was valued at RMB245.88 billion and was 8.6 per cent higher than the previous year. However, with the rapid development of Yunnan's economy, several problems have grown troubling, such as the gap between its total economic value as well as its speed of development and the national rates.

In 2003, Yunnan held the following ranks nationally⁷:

| | |
|---|------|
| Increased speed of GDP | 31st |
| Social consumables' retail value | 28th |
| Urban residents' per capita controllable income | 29th |

If described as per capita indicators, its GDP ranked 28th nationally and farmers' net income ranked 27th.

⁷ The ranking covers all provinces of China

Contrast analysis on the economic value of the eight TICW Project counties/districts

Panlong and Wuhua districts, located in the centre of Kunming City, lead the province in economy value indicators, as shown in Tables 4.1a and Tables 4.1b:

Per capita GDP of Wuhua district is

RMB34,348 and ranks 2nd
Per capita GDP of Panlong district is RMB30,552 and ranks 3rd

Local finance income of Wuhua district is RMB542.83 million and ranks 2nd

Local finance income of Panlong district is RMB535.8 million and ranks 3rd

Table 4.1a: Major economic indicators of the project counties/districts, 2003 ranking within the province

| Area | Local GDP | | Total production value of agriculture, forestry, animal husbandry and fishing industries | | Total production value of all industries | |
|------------------------|----------------------------------|------|--|------|--|------|
| | Price in 2003 and in million RMB | | Price of 2003 and in million RMB | | Price in 2003 and in million RMB | |
| | Absolute No. | Rank | Absolute No. | Rank | Absolute No. | Rank |
| Yunnan Province | 24,588,000 | – | 7,993,300 | – | 1,557.17 | – |
| Wuhua District | 132,201 | 41 | – | – | 291,524 | 16 |
| Panlong District | 157,272 | 31 | – | – | 650,996 | 8 |
| Yuanyang county | 69,227 | 90 | 39,007 | 89 | 15,387 | 110 |
| Jinping County | 48,026 | 109 | 39,204 | 87 | 23,914 | 91 |
| Hekou County | 51,160 | 106 | 21,839 | 116 | 8,770 | 120 |
| Pu'er County | 79,027 | 80 | 33,762 | 99 | 36,378 | 74 |
| Menglian County | 29,514 | 123 | 18,978 | 119 | 13,762 | 112 |
| Ximeng County | 15,545 | 127 | 7,117 | 127 | 3,612 | 124 |

Table 4.1b: Major economic indicators of the project counties/districts, 2003 ranking within the province

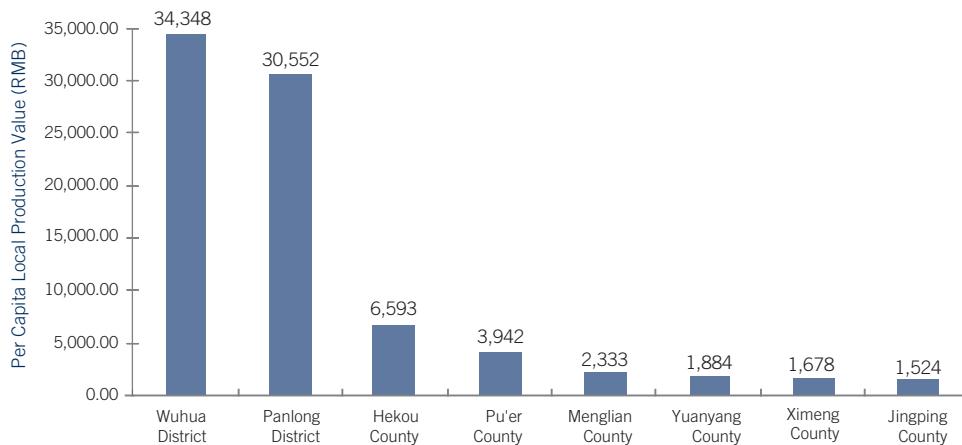
| Area | Local finance income | | Local finance expenses | | Sales of social consumable products | | Fixed assets of the whole society | |
|------------------------|----------------------|----------|------------------------|----------|-------------------------------------|----------|-----------------------------------|----------|
| | million RMB | | million RMB | | Total sale's volume million RMB | | Invest million RMB | |
| | Absolute No. | Rank | Absolute No. | Rank | Absolute No. | Rank | Absolute No. | Rank |
| Yunnan Province | 2,289,000 | – | 5,880,000 | – | 7,824,600 | – | 1,021.18 | – |
| Wuhua District | 54,283 | 2 | 64,430 | 2 | 802,918 | 3 | 25,241 | 80 |
| Panlong District | 53,580 | 3 | 49,453 | 7 | 824,651 | 1 | 10,446 | 122 |
| Yuanyang County | 2,530 | 108 | 17,373 | 86 | 19,958 | 90 | 15,996 | 105 |
| Jinping County | 3,228 | 97 | 18,164 | 80 | 17,446 | 95 | 27,519 | 71 |
| Hekou County | 5,655 | 62 | 14,102 | 114 | 8,428 | 122 | 18,744 | 95 |
| Pu'er County | 5,072 | 70 | 16,673 | 93 | 24,383 | 72 | 21,085 | 89 |
| Menglian County | 3,000 | 101 | 12,945 | 118 | 10,586 | 119 | 12,736 | 116 |
| Ximeng County | 789 | 128 | 10,012 | 128 | 5,138 | 128 | 7,134 | 127 |

All six of the counties (considered labour-sending areas in the TICW Project) have weak economies and large agriculture-based populations. Ranked by local per capita GDP, Hekou County comes in as the best performer (of the six) in the province at 24th, followed by Pu'er County at 52nd. Both counties have a per capita GDP of more than RMB2,500. They rank at the top in the province and have reached the national well-to-do standards.

The other four counties fall beyond the 100th spot with comparatively undeveloped economies and a per capita GDP of less than RMB2,500: Menglian

County ranks 105th, Yuanyang County ranks 111th, Ximeng County 119th and Jinping County 122nd (Table 4.2). At the bottom of the scale, Jinping County's per capita GDP is only one-fourth of the provincial level's GDP and, for comparison with the other end of the scale, it is one-twenty-third of Wuhua District's, as Figure 4.1 illustrates. All six counties have far more financial expenses than income; for example, Ximeng County's expenses are 12.7 times greater than its income. The country relies on financial support from central and provincial governments.

Figure 4.1: Per capita local GDPs compared with the surveyed counties



Comparison of living standards

Due to Yunnan's weak economic basis, its farmers' per capita income hovers around the national poverty line. The baseline survey data shows that in 2003, Yunnan farmers' per capita net income was RMB1,697 (US\$205.30). Urban residents' controllable income in the same year was RMB7,643 (\$924.63) – 4.5 times greater than the farmers'. This large gap translates to large difference between urban and rural people's living standards.

Among the eight TICW Project counties/districts, only Pu'er County reached the average provincial level while in Kunming it was only RMB7,979. As Table 4.2 shows, the other counties rank beyond the 90th spot and Jinping County with RMB838 and Ximeng County with RMB669 are nearly one-tenth of Kunming residents' income. When daily life expenses are subtracted from the farmers' incomes, almost nothing remains. Because of the great difference between the urban and rural living standards, city life has been a big attraction to rural villagers.

Table 4.2: Major per capital indicators compared with provincial level

| Area | Year end total population 10,000 million persons | | Per capital local GDP Total valueRMB | | Farmers' per capita net income RMB | | Per capita food production kg | |
|------------------------|---|----------|---|----------|---------------------------------------|----------|----------------------------------|----------|
| | Absolute No. | Rank | Absolute No. | Rank | Absolute No. | Rank | Absolute No. | Rank |
| Yunnan Province | 4,375.60 | – | 5,647 | – | 1,697 | – | 338 | – |
| Wuhua District | 51.59 | 16 | 34,348 | 2 | – | – | – | – |
| Panlong District | 46.16 | 22 | 30,552 | 3 | – | – | – | – |
| Yuanyang County | 36.94 | 44 | 1,884 | 111 | 1,144 | 93 | 330 | 62 |
| Jinping County | 31.63 | 57 | 1,524 | 122 | 838 | 121 | 336 | 58 |
| Hekou County | 7.82 | 127 | 6,593 | 24 | 1,378 | 67 | 211 | 116 |
| Pu'er County | 20.11 | 92 | 3,942 | 52 | 1,513 | 60 | 336 | 58 |
| Menglian County | 12.71 | 119 | 2,333 | 105 | 1,066 | 100 | 361 | 37 |
| Ximeng County | 9.32 | 125 | 1,678 | 119 | 669 | 127 | 339 | 55 |

Backward social development levels

Following a comprehensive evaluation, the National Statistics Bureau ranks the social development of all provinces, cities and districts. In its latest listing, Yunnan ranks 28th among provinces. The status of Yunnan's basic economy (ranked at 19th) helps offset the other indicators of living standards, such as labour and employment, social insurance, medical care, education, culture, physical training and social security, all of which individually rank beyond 20th on the provincial level. That still remains a big gap between the national average levels. Social development in the province can be described into four levels by comprehensive development indicators. Kunming City ranks first with an indicator of 184.1. Honghe Prefecture ranks second with an indicator level of 115.67. Simao City reaches 82.62 and its social development level remains very far from the provincial average level.

Because villagers cannot benefit the same social medical care service as urban dwellers, they look to migrate to cities.

4.2 Population and employment

In 2003, Yunnan's total population reached 43,756 million (with ethnic minorities representing 33 per cent of the total) – which made it the twelfth-largest of China's 31 provinces. With a poverty line set at RMB882 (US\$106.70) annual per capita income, some 6.87 million people in the province were considered as living in poverty (nearly 16 per cent of the population).

The ethnic minority populations in the six TICW Project counties (regarded as labour-sending places) are as follows: 88.3 per cent of Yuanyang, 85.5 per cent of Jinping, 58.4 per cent of Hekou, 51.4 per cent of Pu'er, 53.8 per cent of Menglian and 90.2 per cent of Ximeng.

According to the 2000 national census, there were 21,359 million (74 per cent) rural labourers in Yunnan. Of them, 51.4 per cent were male and 48.6 per cent female. Half of them were aged 20-40. Broken down by age group, however, 11.5 per cent were aged 15-19, 50.8 per cent were 20-40, 24.7 per cent were 41-60 and 13.0 per cent were aged 61 or older. Around 20.6242 million labourers, or 79.3 per cent, are working in the first industries.

The six TICW Project counties are typical agriculture areas with the rural populations in each country measuring more than 80 per cent (in Jinping, 96 per cent of the total county population is rural-based). More than 90 per cent of the villagers engage in farm work and their per capita food production ranks in the middle level within the province.

In comparison, Panlong and Wuhua districts have excellent geographic locations, convenient transportation, sound industry development, flourishing businesses and a developed private-business economy. Their outstanding advantages are attracting investments from around the country and abroad as well as large numbers of rural migrants. They have become important receiving places of surplus rural labourers who find employment in second and third industries. They have contributed considerably to the economic development of the two districts.

According to the 2000 national census, more than 40,000 (42 per cent) people in Panlong and more than 50,000 (45 per cent of the city's total) in Wuhua were migrant labourers and residents without local *Hukou*.

Table 4.3: Population and employment information of the project counties, 2003

Unit: 10,000 persons

| Counties | Rural population | Rural labourers | Rural population in farming work | Rural population in non-agriculture sectors | Rural migrant labourers | | |
|----------|------------------|-----------------|----------------------------------|---|-------------------------|-------|--------|
| | | | | | Total | Male | Female |
| Yuanyang | 34 | 20.2 | 18.7 | 1.5 | 13,744 | 7,292 | 6,452 |
| Jinping | 30 | 16.4 | 15.2 | 358 | 148 | 210 | |
| Pu'er | 15 | 8.6 | 7.2 | 1.4 | 8,514 | 6,031 | 2,483 |
| Menglian | 10 | 5.3 | 5 | 0.3 | 1,541 | 1,027 | 514 |
| Ximeng | 7 | 3.5 | 3.4 | 0.1 | 7,188 | 4,746 | 2,442 |

4.3 Education levels

Again according to the 2000 national census, the illiterate population in Yunnan numbered 4.843 million (11.4 per cent, which is 1.6 times more than the national figure). And the average schooling experience was 6.3 years – which ranked Yunnan 28th in the country in a measure of illiteracy.

According to the 2000 national census, the illiterate population among those aged 15 or older is 37.4 per cent in Yuanyang, 44.6 per cent in Jinping, 15.7 per cent in Hekou, 14.4 per cent in Pu'er, 11.4 per cent in Menglian and 35.0 per cent in Ximeng. The illiterate population among the females aged 15 or older in these counties had higher ratios: 55.1 per cent, 58.0 per cent, 22.8 per cent, 20.8 per cent, 17.3 per cent and 42.0 per cent, respectively. Female illiterate populations of these counties numbered 65,000 in Yuanyang, 63,000 in Jinping, 8,000 in Hekou, 14,000 in Pu'er, 11,000 in Menglian and 12,000 in Ximeng.

Looking at the two districts, the available data from the census shows that the illiterate population aged 15 and older is less alarming: It was only 2.3 per cent of total population in Wuhua (with 3.8 per

cent female) and 2.4 per cent in Panlong with 4.0 per cent female. Less than 10,000 females in both districts were illiterate.

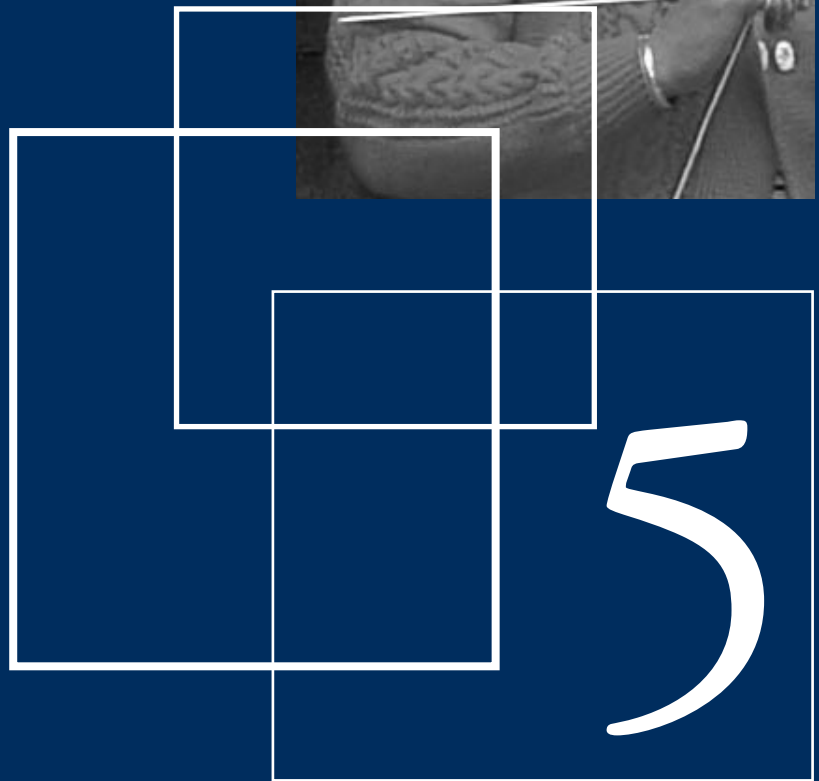
Table 4.4 shows that although children's primary school entrance rate reaches above 98 per cent and the drop-out rate is less than 2 per cent, the entrance rate into lower secondary school of students in the TICW Project counties, except Pu'er County, is lower than the provincial level. For example, the rate in Ximeng County is only 30 per cent. If students cannot continue their schooling in secondary school after graduation from primary schools due to poverty or other reasons, the students then have to work. Dropping out of school leaves them with limited social experiences and social knowledge. Most likely their parents are poorly educated and not very aware of how vulnerable their children are and how to better protect them. All these factors help make these children, especially girls, targets of traffickers.

Table 4.4: Education attainment of project counties, 2003

Unit: %

| Indicators | Kindergarten children aged 3–6 | Children's primary school entrance rate | Drop-out rate of pupils | Entrance rate of lower secondary students | Literacy rate of people aged 15 and older |
|------------------------|--------------------------------|---|-------------------------|---|---|
| Yunnan Province | 32.9 | 96.1 | 1.1 | 90.8 | |
| Male | 33.3 | 96.4 | | | |
| Female | 32.4 | 95.9 | 1.3 | | |
| Yuanyang County | 9.9 | 95.5 | 1.0 | 77.5 | 91.1 |
| Male | 9.2 | 95.3 | | | |
| Female | 11.0 | 95.8 | 1.4 | | 88.1 |
| Jinping County | 27.5 | 98.5 | 0.2 | 85.1 | 93.5 |
| Male | 27.1 | 98.7 | | | |
| Female | 28.1 | 98.4 | 0.1 | | 88.7 |
| Pu'er County | 23.0 | 94.2 | -0.4 | 97.1 | 86.1 |
| Male | 24.0 | 94.2 | | | 92.4 |
| Female | 22.0 | 94.2 | -0.4 | | 81.0 |
| Menglian County | 44.3 | 95.7 | 2.8 | 115.2 | 87.2 |
| Male | 44.24 | 96.69 | | | 44.7 |
| Female | 44.41 | 94.65 | 2.15 | | 42.48 |
| Ximeng County | 14.92 | 96.85 | 1.11 | 80.92 | 97.1 |
| Male | 15.36 | 97.19 | | | |
| Female | 14.48 | 96.5 | 0.95 | | |

Source: Data report forms of relevant education departments.



5. TRAFFICKING IN CHILDREN AND WOMEN AND IRREGULAR MIGRATION IN YUNNAN PROVINCE

5.1 Cracking down on the trafficking of children and women in Yunnan

The Chinese Government has been paying much attention to protecting the legal rights of children and women by revising existing laws and creating new ones to combat the trafficking of children and women. As described in Part I, the legislation efforts include specific protection of the legal rights of children and women and harsher punishment to people convicted of trafficking. During 2001 to 2003, the public security departments nationwide handled 20,360 trafficking cases, arrested 22,018 suspected offenders and rescued 42,215 child and women victims of trafficking.

Cross-border trafficking in children and women is a pressing issue that has drawn attention from several countries. During 15–31 March 2002, the public security department of Mengla County in Xishuangbanna Dai Autonomous Prefecture cooperated with Lao PDR's police and cracked down on cross-border trafficking gangs. The Xishuangbanna Dai police travelled to Shangdong Province and rescued four Lao women.

In 1998 two special campaigns to combat cross-border trafficking in women were promoted in the three border areas of Menglian Dai and Lahu Autonomous County, Langcang Lahu Autonomous County and Jiangcheng Hani and Yi Autonomous County. As a result, three cross-border trafficking gangs were smashed, ten suspected traffickers were arrested, including one Burmese person and six

women who were rescued from other countries. After the special campaigns, the authorities detected a decrease in trafficking crimes. Nationwide trafficking cases in 2003 were 24.5 per cent lower than the same period in the previous year. Of the known 24 women victims (including three Chinese women and 21 Burmese women) in 13 cross-border trafficking crimes that occurred between 2001 and 2003, 22 have been rescued.

Yunnan Province is considered part of the Greater Mekong Sub-region. It borders several countries and that combined with its great impoverished population, has sustained its serious problems with trafficking of children and women. According to provincial police department statistics, around 1,000 children and women have been trafficked yearly to other provinces and across the borders. Those living in border areas have been especially vulnerable. With changes in the social-economic development of the province, the police have been noticing changes in the trafficking situation, particularly where offers of employment opportunities are being used to attract more and younger victims. Traffickers' tricks are shifting to stealing and kidnapping infants and younger children.

From 1998 to the end of 2002, public security departments at all levels in the province arrested more than 7,400 suspected trafficking offenders and broke up around 900 criminal gangs. In the 2000–2002 period, police handled 631 trafficking in children cases (for adoption) and rescued 802 children.

Along the borders, security forces have made many cooperative cross-border efforts to combat trafficking offences. From 1998 to the end of 2002, they rescued 167 children and women who were trafficked out of the province and demolished three trafficking channels into other countries due to increased policing of the border areas in collaboration with frontier defence forces. Overall for the past five years, the Yunnan provincial public security department's focused actions have led to the rescue of more than 5,000 children and women. In 2003, the Yunnan police registered a 54 per cent decrease in trafficking cases of women and an 18 per cent decrease of trafficking in children from the previous year.

To maintain the momentum on the crackdown, the Yunnan provincial government and the national Public Security Ministry have allocated around RMB1 million annually to support activities. Public security departments at all levels have organized various groups for pursuing outstanding cases, advocacy and reporting, manhunt via the Internet and rescuing. They also have distributed various sheets for individual information and small bags to collect blood samples.

The provincial public security department is developing a mechanism for the timely identifying of trafficking crimes and rescuing children and women. The plan is to use high-tech approaches, including the Internet, computer discs containing the information of criminal suspects and DNA testing not only to quickly identify and rescue victims but to provide proper legitimate evidence that can effectively be used in the prosecution of offenders.

5.2 Characteristics of trafficking in children and women in Yunnan Province

Serial, professional and occupational trafficking crimes

Some criminal gangs have organized a "production line" for the abduction, transport, receiving and overall trading of infants and young children. For example, the "6.28" serial human trafficking case involved a gang containing at least 46 members who had been trading in humans for about ten years. With a collaborative effort between the Public Security Ministry, security forces and relevant agencies in Shandong Province, police in Yunnan were able to nab the gang, which was accused of trafficking 150 women and 27 children to Shandong, Jiangsu, Guangdong, Hebei, Henan and Anhui provinces since 1993.

In some cases, families are involved in trafficking. The family members have their respective responsibilities, such as deceiving, buying, transportation, transferring and selling. They are committing the crimes on a "pipeline".

Trafficking criminal gangs involve many members and make profits at every "loop of the criminal chain". Most gang members are farmers, including some women, resorting to human trafficking as the main income source. One such gang included 34 members. They bought more than 20 baby boys from Dongchuan, Huize and Qiaojia in Yunnan and sold them for adoption in Guangdong, Fujian, Jiangsu and other provinces. Two arrested female

members of the gang confessed that they were just “second-hand” traders. The “first-hand” traffickers bought the babies from families who had more children than allowed under the State plan. They bought them at prices ranging from RMB200 to RMB500 (US\$24-\$60) and sold them as “wholesale” to the arrested female traffickers for RMB2,000 to RMB5,000 (US\$242-\$605). The female traffickers then took and sold the babies in Guangdong and other provinces at prices ranging from RMB6,000 to RMB8,000 (US\$726-\$768).

As well, trafficking crimes are covering larger areas and crossing more districts with gangs expanding their activities to new areas and other provinces. In the “5.31” trafficking case, 50 suspects were arrested on charges they had organized and participated in the cross-province trafficking of babies through the railways. Since August 2000, this gang began to steal or buy babies in Xuanwei County of Yunnan Province. The criminals used young women who can suckle infants to transfer at least 46 babies into Henan, Shangdong, Anhui, Hebei, Hubei and other provinces.

Trafficking methods and approaches

Some traffickers continue to trick illiterate or somewhat-literate women or children with disabilities by promising jobs with high pay and good treatment. Once delivered to a new place, the victims are forced to violate laws, such as stealing or robbing. Punishment to those who disobey includes starvation, nakedness and physical abuse, such as beatings, burning with cigarette stubs and cold-water drenching.

In many areas, trafficking in women has shifted from offering employment opportunities, business initiatives and favours to making threats or abducting victims. Some traffickers trick women by offering marriage or matchmaking.

More and younger trafficking victims

In recent years, the trafficking of young children has been increasing and becoming more widespread. Both “6.28” and “5.31” had more interest in babies. Since 2003, many children have disappeared in Kunming City – 23 in October alone. Therefore, the public security departments at the district, city and provincial levels have organized special task forces to concentrate on the issue. With the support from the Fujian police, several child trafficking suspects were arrested and some children were rescued successfully from the families that adopted them.

In October 2003, the Kunming police broke up four child-trafficking gangs, arrested 47 suspected traffickers and rescued 63 children, among whom the youngest was only 5 months old and the eldest was 13. One boy had even been sold 12 times and to several provinces for adoption. Most of these child victims came from Yunnan. Others have parents that are labourers who had migrated to Kunming City from Sichuan and Guizhou provinces. Those parents worked in such jobs as fruit and vegetable selling or bicycle/tricycle repair. They rented houses at rural and urban bordering areas; they leave home at sunrise and return at sunset in order to making a living. They have no time to look after their children or take them to and from school. As a result, it is common to see groups of three to five children playing together without any parental supervision or protection. Additionally, many of these parents have done little to make their children aware of dangers. In one case, the trafficked child could not recall the parents’ names, workplace or address.

Table 5.1: Basic information on the trafficking of children and women in the six project counties

Unit: Persons

| County | Trafficked during 2000–2003 | | Including | | Rescued | |
|----------|-----------------------------|----------|------------|----------------|---------|----------|
| | Women | Children | Illiterate | Primary school | Women | Children |
| Yuanyang | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Jinping | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Hekou | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Pu'er | 11 | 0 | 0 | 11 | 11 | 0 |
| Menglian | 62 | 11 | 20 | 53 | 33 | 4 |
| Ximeng | 131 | 5 | 109 | 27 | 33 | 2 |

Source: Public security departments

5.3 Trafficking in children and women in the TICW Project counties

The information provided by the public security departments in the TICW Project counties records that between 2000 and May 2003, 131 women and 5 children in Ximeng County were known to have been trafficked. Of them, 33 women and 2 children have been rescued. Another known 62 women and 11 children were trafficked from Menglian County, and of them, 33 women and 4 children have been rescued. A third known case involved trafficking – and rescue – of 11 women from Pu'er County.

The actual numbers of trafficking victims are presumed to be much larger than the records indicate. Trafficking has long been a complex issue and it is not uncommon for trafficked children and women to not try to escape their situation. During interviews in the TICW Project counties, the respondents said that they had seen many trafficking victims at the destination place. But the majority of those interviewed did not take actions against traffickers or run to the police. Though the receiving places are poor and undeveloped, these

places are somewhat richer than from where the women were trafficked. They did not have to engage in hard manual work and were offered plenty to eat. Many of the trafficked women had been forced into marriage and had given birth; having children suddenly made being rescued more complicated.

Major problems confronting rural labourers during their migration

Some low-educated farmers can find a job in cities where there is heavy competition for available employment. But their “success” comes at a price: They have to face occupational safety and health problems, endure the discrimination from urban residents and unfair treatment in order to be hired.

Sacrifice of health

Data for Yunnan from the 2000 national census shows that 58 per cent of the rural labourers found employment in labour-intensive occupations, such as serving in the sectors of manufacturing, construction, business and restaurants. Within these areas and at most workplaces in general, migrant labourers are doing the hardest, most strenuous,

dirty, inferior and dangerous jobs and often without proper protection. With bad working conditions, migrant labourers are more vulnerable to occupational illnesses and injuries.

Various employment restrictions

The first problem facing rural labourers is their “identity”. They have to acquire many certificates involving the approval from several departments, such as family planning, public security, labour and civil affairs. In addition, the application procedure is complicated and involves high costs. For example, some migrant labourers interviewed in the baseline survey’s two districts reported having a migration paper, migration population paper and a marriage status paper, all of which cost RMB100 and represented 30 per cent of their total migration expenses. Moreover, though there are favourable policies about the education access for children of migrant labourers, some areas put more restrictions on these policies and even charge these children higher fees than non-migrant students.

Payment delays or deductions

At the time of the survey, the Kunming City Labour Security and Inspection Department had a record of 432 consultations and complaints involving 3,413 migrant labourers. Of the complaints, 289 cases pertained to delays or deduction of wages, 15 cases addressed long working hours, and 23 cases protested charges of deposit and security money required from the labourers.

Without employment contracts

The Labour Law specifies that employers have to sign contracts with hired labourers. In practise, very few migrant labourers ever see a contract. In the baseline survey, 86 workers from government-owned, collective-owned and the

private sector were interviewed; of them, 44 per cent had no contract. When asked about the lack of one, 52.3 per cent responded, “It does not matter.” Another 18.2 per cent said they didn’t know it was necessary, 15.9 per cent said they preferred to not make trouble, keep silent to avoid being fired, and 13.6 per cent said they requested one but were told no.

The majority of migrant labourers are not covered by social insurance

Migrant labourers are low paid and cannot bear the pressure of both living costs and paying for social insurance coverage. Many of them do not understand the benefit of the new social insurance system and therefore are not willing to pay for coverage. The undeveloped social insurance system and different standards between areas does not ensure any consistency or even benefits of their insurance after they return home or move to other places. Therefore, both migrant labourers and their employers do not want to buy the social insurance. Among the 86 migrant labourers interviewed in Wuhua and Panlong administrative districts of Kunming City, only 28 had bought social insurance coverage.

Types of rights infringement

The typical abuses migrant labourers encounter cover: employment without contract, employment without social insurance, delays or deductions of wages, wages less than the local minimum wage standard, long working hours without overtime pay, employment termination without compensation, unreasonable charges of deposit or security money or other, detention of individual certificates, unreasonable extension of working hours and infringing the legal rights of women or child labourers.

Because of gaps in the migration management and service system, the legal rights and even personal security of migrant labourers is tenuous. Five labourers who migrated from Sichuan Province to work in a coal mine in Yunnan Province were beaten up while on the job. One died from the injuries and there others were seriously hurt. To fill these gaps, the Government should create mechanisms for solving migrant labour disputes and other needs and establish more efficient management of the migrant labour situation.

In the interest of huge profits and lower costs, some employers ignore labourers' health and ask them to work in bad, toxic and even dangerous conditions. Some 76 migrant labourers, including 18 from Sichuan Province, were poisoned by neuropathic toxic materials that were part of their job in a foreign capital enterprise. The materials were banned by international regulations. The workers had never been provided any protective garments or gear. However, many migrant labourers choose to tolerate such conditions rather than remain working their farm land and living in poverty. These labourers' living and working conditions and health and personal security are typically ignored and disregarded by employers.

In one instance, a construction company and its several hundred labourers had formed a de-facto relationship for several years. Unfortunately, the company did not provide employment contracts to the labourers. Thus, when the employer failed to pay wages amounting to several million RMB, the labourers had a great deal of difficulty in resolving the issue. And the labourers' lawyer was attacked violently by company-hired thugs when he sought to collect evidence.

5.4 Analysis of the major factors leading to the trafficking of children and women

5.4.1 External factors

Trafficking in children and women takes places because of the demand for it. Those who become its victims are made vulnerable to traffickers as a result of many internal and external factors that include social and economic policies and social systems. For example, policies relevant to migration have some impact on the environment that enables trafficking to take place.

Since the 1980s, large-scale labour migration in China has attracted much attention from all levels of government and various social fields. The research on the migration groups' contribution to urbanization and industrialization has much importance. However, the negative impact of migration cannot be neglected.

According to the national census, cross-provincial migration in Yunnan in 2000 involved 1,507,944 persons; of them, 1,164,402 came from other provinces into Yunnan and 343,542 left Yunnan for other provinces. That means some 820,860 persons stayed in Yunnan. A comparison of that situation with the data in the 1990 national census indicates that Yunnan has shifted from a sending to a receiving province in ten years' time.

In Kunming City, the migrant population in 2000 reached 1.03 million. Of them, 32.7 per cent came from other provinces, 31.3 per cent from other cities/districts within Yunnan, 26.0 per cent from far streets of the city, 1.7 per cent from towns of the city, 2.4 per cent from towns of the city's counties and 1.8 per cent from townships of the city's counties.

The researchers concluded from their analysis of the baseline survey data that most of the migrant population in Yunnan came from other provinces and other cities/counties within Yunnan. The general migration movement takes place from villages to middle- and larger-sized cities.

The impact of migrant labour

One important external factor enabling trafficking of children and women is the development and negative impact of labour migration. During the 40-year period (1949–1989) after the birth of the People's Republic of China, the Mekong sub-region had few crimes of trafficking of children and women. In the 1990s, trafficking became a serious issue.

In those previous 40 years, trafficking could not survive in the social and politic systems, management measurements and social environment of China. In villages, the strict Hukou system (a household population management system) controlled the migration of villagers with the only exception for university students and military or employer recruitment. On the other hand, under the strict labour management system, the People's Committee made daily labour arrangements for everyone and had restricted regulations for the migration approval process. People with mission tasks had to obey the strict Hukou registration and management systems. There was no room for human trafficking to operate.

Gender imbalance

In some provinces, such as Shangdong, Hebei, Henan, Anhui, Jiangsu and Zhejiang (central-northern provinces), villagers traditionally have attributed more value to males than females. Because of the one-child policy, it was important that families, especially those in villages, have

a male child. The family without a son was seen as facing many problems. The sex ratio at birth is higher than what is normal. According to the 1982 national census, 108 boys were born compared to 100 girls, 111 to 100 in the 1990 census and 117 to 100 in the 2000 census. Except in only a few areas, the newborns' sex ratio has exceeded the normal range (107–103) in most provinces (cities and districts) and even worse in some places. This situation underscores the need for attention on the demand side when countering the trafficking problem.

The force of Income Expectation Theory

M.P. Tudor's "Income Expectation Theory" can be used by many developing countries to explain the movement of rural and urban labourers. Its core idea puts that the decision to migrate by someone in the rural population will be determined by analysing city and rural economies and the migration costs and profits. The outcome is known as "income expectation" and a positive outcome will encourage migration. Subtracting actual rural income from the sum of actual city income and job opportunities results in expected income. Young people's migration in Yunnan Province is a reflection of this theory. Some women who are aware of the trafficking risks make a decision to migrate after weighing their social environment and living conditions.

The force of a web

In making a migration move, a rural labourer takes risks. This is largely in part because employment-related information comes from the "web" of relatives, friends or locals rather than from formal channels, which means there are not necessarily any guarantees and even less protection. With the expanding of such webs, migration costs and risks will become less. However, some

STORIES OF TRAFFICKING, CASE 1

Ms. Hu, Han nationality, born in 1988, trafficked in 2003 at age 16

Ms. Hu was cooking for a construction team in Jiao county. The middle child of three children, she had come from Daduma Village to earn money to help her farming family. The total annual income of her family before she migrated had been 5,000 kg of paddy rice. In migrating, she joined with some local Pingbian county people and believed that cooking in another place would be safe.

Ms Hu was taken first to Kunming City and then to Shanghai where she was sold into marriage to a farmer in Shangdong by traffickers from Pingbian.

Ms. Hu was able to call home and was rescued 15 October 2003. Her family did not report her disappearance to the police. Ms. Hu had never heard about trafficking cases. Back at home, she felt stigmatized by other villagers because they said she had married once.

Ms. Hu has a primary school education. She was easily vulnerable to traffickers because of her innocence, little social experience and great trust in others.

migration webs are borrowed and reshaped into traps by trafficking gangs that use relatives, friends and locals to lure people into certain situations. The web that helps migrants has been co-opted by human traffickers to take advantage of vulnerable people.

The force of push-and-pull

In researching population movements, some Western economists have found that the outcome of migration from rural to urban areas may be the “pull strength” brought by cities’ favourable

economic development, or the “push strength” brought by rural area’s unfavourable economic development. The result of a city’s “pull” in sync with a rural area’s “push” is migration from villages to cities. This theory is very important to the study on trafficking in children and women in Yunnan Province because it describes how some labourers decide to migrate. The push-and-pull strengths have propelled some women into migration channels, ignorant of laws and their legal rights, which then make them vulnerable to trafficking crimes.

Social and historical factors

The development of trafficking in children and women in the Mekong sub-region is in relationship with local social and historical factors. For example, most child and women victims in Yunnan are Miao, Hani, Dai and Aini ethnic minorities. The study on these minorities' social and historical development can provide insights to their vulnerability. For instance, from the long history of feudalism society to the period of the People's Republic of China, all ethnic minorities in Yunnan had been under the leadership of a Tusi (indigenous group leader). Actually, life under the Tusi was a kind of slavery. The Tusi strictly controlled all aspects of life, from birth, growing up and labour. The Tusi deprived the minorities of all human rights and freedom. Since the birth of the People's Republic of China, the Chinese Communist Party and the Government have endowed the same human rights and freedom to all Chinese citizens. After China's opening to the outside world, the minorities gained their freedom and many expected to see the outside world. Thus, traffickers have used this expectation as bait in luring children and women into their traps.

5.4.2 Internal factors

According to data from the baseline survey in Ximeng, Menglian and Pu'er counties of Simao City (previously a prefecture); from 1999 to 2003, a total of 2,025 women migrated out. Of them, 1,584 (78 per cent) went to other places in China and 441 (21.8 per cent) went to other countries. Trafficking and migration of women are affected by multi-sector factors, including the following internal ones:

The family lingers along the poverty line

Quality of family life can be described as rich or poor. Many people in families that linger at the poverty line cannot stand the hard life. Their desire for a happier life prods them to migrate. They prefer the difficult life outside, away from the family, rather than remain in the poor environment with the family. This includes many females who choose to migrate knowing the risks; some are cheated, exploited and even sold in the process. This is a common situation for females in the remote mountainous areas of Menglian, Pu'er, Jinping and Yuanyang counties.

Worsening living environment

Poverty is a key factor leading to migration and in making children and women vulnerable to traffickers. Another factor is the diminishing living environment. In some remote mountainous areas of Yunnan Province, inhabitable areas are becoming smaller because the living environment has been destroyed by deteriorating soil and water quality, etc. Some women prefer to marry and move to other places or to migrate for work rather than to stay in such a "dying" situation. In the end, the desire of a better life pushes them to migrate, which also makes them vulnerable to being trafficked.

If trafficked victims find a better living condition at the destination place than where they have come from, they are quite likely to accept the situation, as the following [Case 2](#) trafficking story illustrates. And their families will not report the crime to the police. If they find that living conditions at the destination place are worse, they will ask their family to report to the police or will try to escape.

STORIES OF TRAFFICKING, CASE 2

Ms. Bai, Han nationality, born in 1980, trafficked in 2001 at age 21

Ms. Bai left a small hotel in Simao City and migrated with friends to Kunming to find better-paying jobs. Her father had died of illness and she had been supporting her mother on an annual income of RMB2,800 (US\$339). But in Kunming she was targeted by traffickers and sold twice. She had heard of people being trafficked but she wasn't aware of how to protect herself; she tended to trust anyone who treated her kindly.

Having a lower secondary school education, Ms. Bai was regarded as an independent thinker. Her mother expected she would be coming back home after some time. It never occurred to her that her daughter could have been trafficked and she never spoke about her daughter to the police.

The second time Ms. Bai was sold, it was into marriage with a man in Anhui Province. Her husband has allowed her to contact her mother in Yunnan. She remains married and describes her life currently as stable.

Ms. Bai's insufficient social experience made her a vulnerable target of traffickers. Once in their grasp, she could not escape and had no choice but to marry. Fortunately, she was "bought" by a man who treats her well. Her mother has never reported the crime to the police because both she and her daughter believe that she has been taken into a better environment than in her hometown.

Intensifying family conflicts

While studying the migration and trafficking of women, the survey researchers noticed that where they occur, family conflicts play a huge role. If family conflicts escalate and if there is no external support, some women will feel forced to take risks,

such as migrate (see the follow trafficking story, Case 3). By placing themselves in the migration channel, they may fall into the traps of exploitation and trafficking. Family conflicts may look like small problems. But once the pressure is beyond the tolerance of certain individuals, they are likely to make unexpected choices.

STORIES OF TRAFFICKING, CASE 3

Ms. Luo, Yi nationality, born in 1974, trafficked in 2003 at age 30

After quarrelling with her husband in February 2003, Ms. Luo left home with her son and headed for her aunt's house in Simao City. She left her daughter at home with her husband. Her marriage was described as inharmonious. The family's total annual income was around RMB8,000 (US\$968). On her way out of the village, she met Wusan, who lived nearby. Ms. Luo told Wusan of her marital stress and she then persuaded Ms. Luo to travel with her to Kunming City. Ms Luo had heard of trafficking but wasn't aware of how to protect herself. And she never suspected an acquaintance. Wusan, however, had been imprisoned for some years for trafficking in women. Ms. Luo, with her son, travelled to Kunming City with Wusi, the younger sister of Wusan (also imprisoned for trafficking along with Wusan) and Wusi's husband. In Kunming they stayed at Wusi's family home for a few days and then boarded a train to Qujing City in Jiangsu province.

Once there, Ms. Luo realized she had been tricked and tried to escape. But she gave in to the pressures of Wusi when she warned, "You are illiterate and nobody knows you are with me. No one will even know if I kill you." Wusi sold Ms. Luo and her son to a middle-age man named Liang to be his wife, at a fee of RMB4,000 (US\$484). Liang had been married before and his first, who also had been trafficked, had given birth to a daughter before being rescued.

Ms. Luo's family did not report her absence to the police and only asked relatives and friends for information. They learned of what had happened from the police.

Six months later, in July, Ms. Luo was rescued. Liang never thought Luo could run away because she was illiterate. So he took her out during market day several times. Ms. Luo learned the route by heart and one day was able to run to the police. The police sent her back to Kunming, where the railway station police helped her home.

Chinese villagers tend to overly trust acquaintances, especially people from ethnic minority groups. Ms. Luo left her home due to a family conflict. Illiterate and on her own, she fell into a trafficker's trap because she trusted an acquaintance.

Temptation from rich areas

Another key factor leading females to migrate (and thus making them more vulnerable to being trafficked) in Yunnan Province is the temptation they see in rich areas (see the following trafficking story, [Case 4](#)). Rural females of impoverished areas do not have opportunities to travel. They have to

take responsibilities for farming, domestic work and childcare. They have no idea about the world and living "outside". When they are approached by local women who have married and moved to "rich" places or by women from rich areas, they begin to see a slice of a rosier life. Such exposure can create frustrations with their current situation. The rosy life may seem even more attractive as the

frustrations sustain. The seemingly simple idea of seeing the outside world and having a whole new life encourages many people to seek out areas beyond their sphere of familiarity. Again, this puts them in a position that makes them vulnerable to being cheated or trafficked.

Low education attainment

Despite the incredulous advancements in technology and knowledge in the world, there are still illiterate and poorly educated people in remote or ethnic minority areas of Yunnan. The links between little education and trafficking have been well documented: Poorly educated people do not know their rights or feel empowered to seek protection and thus make for easy trafficking targets.

STORIES OF TRAFFICKING, CASE 4

Ms. Luo, Miao nationality, born in 1979, trafficked in 2002 at age 25

A young man approached Ms. Luo as she shopped on market day in July 2002. He engaged her in conversation by presenting himself as a fellow Miao. After a while he invited her to have a meal with him. Over dinner he told her that he could arrange for her to marry a man in Sichuan. Lured by the man's promises of better living conditions, Ms. Luo followed him. She believed that because he was of the same Miao nationality that she could trust him. Illiterate and with little opportunity for adventure, a part of her wanted to see what Sichuan province was like.

When Ms. Luo did not return home that day in July, her husband gathered friends and other relatives to search for her. They assumed she had been killed by torrential floods when they could find no trace of her. Her absence was never reported to the police.

Meanwhile, Ms. Luo left Jinping county and was taken first to Kunming City then to Yingbai township in Fendu county of Chongqing in Sichuan Province. Once there she met another Miao man, a Mr. Yang. He took her to Chengdu City. With a neighbourhood woman's help she called her husband back in Yunnan. She was rescued on 18 November 2002.

Perhaps because of her lack of education or her youth, this case suggests that Ms. Luo has few life skills. Or it reflects her discontent with her life, its hard conditions and harsh environment. As farmers, she and her husband report their annual income as 1,000 kg paddy rice. When offered a sparkling window of opportunity, she appears to have flown out. The encouragement and false promises of the trafficker gave her confidence to follow him.





6. ANALYSIS OF THE TICW PROJECT'S IMPLEMENTATION FEASIBILITIES

This baseline survey was more than an investigation – it also served as an advocacy campaign and instrument for building cooperation. The survey was conducted and analysed with the active participation of rural and urban residents within the project counties/districts.

In rural areas, the grassroots organizations offered human resource support and villagers offered reliable information. In the urban areas, the staff of street affair offices responded to questions with great care, employers offered positive support and migrant labourers took their interviews seriously, most likely believing that the survey would ultimately benefit them.

With the help of this project, all respondents are hoping to better protect their legal rights, improve education quality, acquire science skills, increase agriculture output, generate income and create a brighter future.

The eight TICW Project counties/districts present advantages as outlined here that are favouring a positive implementation of the project's activities.

6.1 Government support and input

Since the TICW Project first began in 2000, relevant agencies have been in place at county/district, city/prefecture and provincial levels to provide guidance and coordinating support. In exchange, these agencies have received project staff and necessary equipment.

During the baseline survey period, government at all levels and relevant departments gave much importance to the research and offered human and in-kind resource support. Chairpersons and vice-chairpersons in the various city and prefecture women's federations provided on-site and coordinating support. Local bureaus of statistics, justice, labour and education also collaborated, which helped ensure the reliability and accuracy of the survey data.

Government support, collaboration and effective leadership from relevant departments has been crucial for the project's smooth implementation to date. The eight TICW Project counties/districts are perceived as proceeding well in terms of the requirements of the Provincial Project Office.

6.2 Resource advantages

Administrative resources

During the baseline survey, administrations in all targeted communities, villages, townships, counties, districts, cities and prefecture offered full support. Government institutions conducted more aggressive advocacy and trafficking prevention campaigns. The successful baseline survey and campaign to publicize trafficking prevention have, to some extent, raised the awareness of the mass public and the working staff of local departments.

Human resources

There are about 100 graduates of colleges and technical secondary schools returning yearly to the TICW Project counties (perceived as labour-sending areas) in search of employment. Most of them find a job in village administration offices. As recent graduates in fields representing advanced education, science and technology, they are most suitable as project managers. The survey researchers found that the working staffs of selected governmental agencies, who offered support to the census, were able to grasp new ideas quickly. Furthermore, they showed strong communication capabilities and proved extremely responsible. These human resource advantages have effectively ensured the project's implementation.

Reliable human resources were even more abundant in the two TICW Project districts, which are regarded as the economic, political and cultural centres of Yunnan Province.

Green biological resources and ethnic minority cultures

The six counties in the TICW project are located in the tropical economic zones of Yunnan where they contain large forested areas and rich, green biological resources. In addition, the large populations of the diverse ethnic minorities retain their colourful traditional cultures, which can be used creatively for future economic development. Making use of the rich, green biological surroundings and ethnic minority cultures, villagers can improve their local economies, open their minds, explore resource potential, generate income and ultimately shake off their poverty.

Networking

Convenient transportation and communication networks have been in place in the eight TICW Project counties/districts. Through the Internet, county staffs are able to conveniently and efficiently link with other county departments and the provincial project office.



7. RECOMMENDED INTERVENTIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

At the end of 2003, premier Wen Jiabo helped the family of Xiong Deming, a rural woman in Chongqing City, recover her delayed wages. Since then, a “debt clearance storm” to uncover all delayed wages owed to farmers has swept across the nation. Premier Wen cautioned governments at all levels that “all the money owed to farmers had to be repaid”. Premier Wen’s words have aroused attention throughout the country to the human rights of people who are poor and unempowered. In 2004, Yunnan Province produced a series of measures to resolve the problem of delayed wages, including more training to migrant labourers, regular management of employment through qualification papers and encouraging labour migration.

In January 2004, the Chinese Government and State Department issued a paper entitled, “Opinions on the Policies about Increasing Farmers’ Income”. For the movement of surplus rural labourers, the paper outlines the rules for governments at all levels for developing second and third industries, providing more occupational skills training courses to rural labourers, encouraging labour migration and developing services for rural labourers who work in urban areas.

The reported experiences of developed countries indicate that a shift among labourers, from farmer to worker, is inevitable for many people living in rural areas. This trend is obvious in China as more and more people leave their farms and seek employment in urban industrial workplaces.

After China obtained membership in the World Trade Organization, many people requested the right to regular migration. Therefore, the Government should draft innovative policies and systems that treat labourers equally and offers them freedom of migration and settlement and it should abolish all policies that discriminate against migrant labourers.

The following highlights some of the reforms needed to create a migration-friendly environment in China:

7.1 Establish relevant polices to encourage and guide the gradual and regular movement of surplus rural labourers into urban areas

Reform the *Hukou* system. The Government should broaden its reform of the Hukou management system to further eliminate differences between the Hukou of urban and rural residents. Rural labourers who move to cities should be able to obtain the same social status as other citizens and be able to step out of the shadow of “second-class citizen”.

Renovate the existing employment system, speed up the renovation of the city employment labour market and construct an urban-rural integrated labour market. In doing so, first quicken the reform of the city employment system,

improve city labour markets, give both employer and labourers full freedom in the labour recruitment process, abolish unreasonable employment restrictions and establish the same employment management system among rural and urban labourers. And second, develop intermediate agencies in the labour market to provide employment information services, try to provide equal opportunities to both rural and urban labourers in the labour market and try to lower the cost of finding employment and labour recruitment.

Explore various approaches to providing social security to rural labourers working in urban areas. For people in non-formal enterprises or sectors, such as private businessmen, ensure a pension and unemployment and health insurance through personal savings and commercial insurance companies. Include people in the formal sectors who have labour contracts in social security coverage. Employers should pay the costs of providing social insurance for labourers who migrate.

Integrate the needs of migrant labourers, including housing and schools, into urban planning strategies. The Government should regard migrant labourers working in cities as local residents who have the same needs as any other inhabitant. It should create policies to ensure that city planners monitor the impact of migration on urban areas in terms of changing settlement patterns and adapt and adjust construction and infrastructure plans.

Urban dwellers should treat migrant labourers equally and give them a fair employment environment. This is first achieved with city management departments and their staff members adopting friendly attitudes toward migrant labourers, which can set a tone for change. Also, the Government should set up regulations and a mechanism to smooth the management of these labourers. Second, tolerance and understanding of

migrant workers should be encouraged. A stable and healthy urban society needs its citizens to respect all humanity as well as their struggles and strengths.

7.2 Eliminate the trafficking of children and women by addressing external and internal factors that enable the practice in labour-sending places

Traffickers seek to profit from the trade of humans because a market exists to receive them. Demand “causes” trafficking. But as previously explained, both external and internal factors enable the crime to persist. Poverty and poor social development are the major factors that increase people’s vulnerability to being trafficked by provoking them into migration channels where they are ill-prepared to properly protect themselves. As well, those who are illiterate or barely educated typically are more easily tricked and then unaware of how to leave an exploitative situation. Poverty and poor social development help create a mental acceptance among some people that being trafficked might lead to a “better” situation. Poverty and poor social development also help turn relatives and villagers who feel compelled to make money whatever way they can, even by exploiting or tricking a young woman or a child, into traffickers.

Therefore, the fundamental redress to human trafficking is poverty alleviation and balanced economic development between the poor and rich areas as well as better migration management and the educating of all people. That education includes basic schooling as well as teaching life and vocational skills. Various interventions in education, economic development and governance are needed to tackle the huge challenge. Cooperation among many areas of government and

society as well as between countries for cross-border efforts is also crucial.

Trafficking in children and women is a result of many social problems. No single effort by public security departments can solve the problem at the root. Trafficking prevention is most effective in targeting the vulnerable populations from different levels.

Based on insights collected through the baseline survey and other areas of inquiry for the TICW Project, the following measures are recommended to increase the successful crackdowns on human trafficking in China.

7.2.1 Resolve external factors

Increase efforts in combating the trafficking of children and women, including new mechanisms for rescue. Due to the weak awareness of laws among the public, gaps in social prevention and management and the temptation of high profits, trafficking is not likely to be eliminated. Therefore, a mechanism that can rapidly detect a trafficking crime and facilitate an efficient rescue needs to be developed. Furthermore, all relevant government departments should appoint a focal person, awards and punishments to mobilize staff to integrate the crackdown on trafficking into their daily agenda and to pursue crimes of human trade.

To work toward the reduction of trafficking in children and women, the Government should strengthen the management of migration populations, especially in specific places such as markets, main roads, bus stations and docks in large and medium-sized cities. All social sectors and the public should be mobilized to take part in the combating efforts, the prosecution of traffickers and reporting and assisting the police.

Explore new mechanisms to prevent trafficking in the receiving places while drastically demolishing the demand side. If prevention efforts and intervention only take place on the “supply” side and ignore the demand side, traffickers will still find ways to reach vulnerable people. Under such circumstances, trafficking reduction activities in the TICW Project’s intervention sites most likely will push traffickers to search for new suppliers elsewhere in and beyond the province.

Only a serious and destructive attack on the demand side can eliminate the traffickers’ expectation of profiting from the human trade. Diminishing or making the market more difficult to operate in can reduce exploiters’ interest in trafficked people. Demand-side crackdowns work in tandem with supply-side prevention efforts to more effectively prevent and reduce human trafficking.

Pursue enforcement of laws against “buyers” or receivers of trafficked persons. Though there are articles in the Criminal Law stating that the person who buys trafficked children and women will be arrested by the public security department, taken into custody and, if found guilty, sentenced to prison for a minimum of three years, few prosecutions actually take place. The “buyers” of trafficked persons do not fear the law. Therefore, the law should be revised to make the punishments harsher for people who buy trafficked children and women. And equally important, there should be active enforcement of the laws.

Demolish illegal labour employment agencies. Stronger regulation of employment agencies operating in areas that attract migrants is needed. Many agencies or employment services operate illegally, beyond their business range or behind the guise of information consultation, matchmaking or housing agent. The operators of these services engage in unlawful or exploitative recruitment,

often in collusion with employers, and demand illegal fees from labourers looking for employment.

Raise the public's awareness of the laws and human rights in receiving areas. While strengthening law enforcement, the public needs, at the same time, to be made more aware of laws pertaining to the trafficking of humans. People, including those who live and operate in labour-receiving areas, should understand that both the trafficking and buying of children and women are illegal and violate individual's human rights. The public should be encouraged to help in the prosecution of traffickers.

Strengthen the institutional capability of grassroots organizations to monitor and help police in targeting trafficking offences in receiving areas. A weak capacity among rural grassroots organizations is a frequent problem. More village groups, guard teams and women's homes are needed. Community volunteers should be given specific responsibilities through participatory planning to educate villagers of civil organizations in autonomous management.

Strengthen the ability of rural grassroots institutions and measures for better managing public security in rural areas. Chinese Communist Party (CCP) committees and governments at all levels should put more effort toward strengthening a united leadership and working relations among grassroots organizations; establish village organizations connected with CCP committee branches; improve mass autonomous organizations such as public security patrolling teams and youth and women's education teams; and offer more management assistance and guidance to these mass organizations to strengthen their ability to ensure public security, particularly in confronting trafficking.

Establish a village-based anti-trafficking mechanism: Sign responsibility letters between township CCP committee secretaries and village committee general secretaries and between village committee general secretaries and village leaders in order to monitor the movement of labour migration. Set up a population management mechanism in villages, record the information of migrants in the separate population management files and cards through registration and interview. Produce a registration system in communities for labour migrating children and women that allows for the reporting of their information to village committee general secretaries and to township leaders twice a month. Ask migrant labourers to communicate with their family before the 5th of every month, so the family can then report any problems to the village head.

Utilize fully the role of women's federations. As key partners in the TICW Project, women's federations should continue to play a strong role in advocacy and public education regarding the dangers of trafficking. The women's federations have many useful advantages to work with women and men to create consensus and common understanding of human rights protection and various gender issues. They can handle the rescue, repatriation and rehabilitation of trafficking victims and provide services to help people cope with the negative impact of trafficking experiences. They can help strengthen grassroots organizations, establish and improve a preventive and managing network through training and education on gender equality and laws among village and township leaders and grassroots police. They can conduct research on the changing trends in trafficking and migration as well as the problems and challenges of combating efforts. They can provide valuable input for more effective prevention efforts. And they can pursue international cooperation in relevant fields.

Mobilize greater advocacy campaigns.

In addition to concentrating on economic development, eliminating illiteracy and improving children's school enrolment rates, governments at all levels also should take a leading role in raising the public's awareness of the dangers and illegality of trafficking. Through massive campaigns and focused advocacy, the governments should talk of serious impacts of trafficking of children and women and provide prevention awareness, such as how to identify traffickers.

Use diversified advocacy approaches including newspapers, radio and television programmes, videos, banners, posters and art shows popular with the public. Organize trainings and other kinds of classes to analyse the instigators, features and impacts of trafficking of children and women. Fully understand the difficult, complicated and long-term nature of combating efforts and give consistently high priority to this problem.

Organize trainings, especially among students in higher grades of primary and lower secondary schools, on the laws designed to protect children's and women's rights. Talk of ways to identify traffickers and actual trafficking cases.

Mobilize the whole society and form a strong multi-community force to prevent trafficking in children and women. The political and legislative committees and comprehensive management offices of the Government should collaborate in efforts to combat trafficking. As mentioned, women's federations can play a big role in gathering information and assisting public security departments in the rescue, repatriation and rehabilitation of trafficked children and women. Justice departments should cooperate with police departments in facilitating the repatriation and temporary placement of trafficked children and women. Relevant civil departments should not allow marriages to take place between men they

suspect has bought a trafficked bride. Finance departments should make funding available to support anti-trafficking efforts. Justice departments should publicize the harm of trafficking and help improve the public's prevention awareness. Family planning departments should be familiar with the information of all families in order to know whether there are trafficked children in their management area and report any case to the police in time. Public security departments should bear the day-to-day responsibility of anti-trafficking and rescue activities.

Gradually improve prevention capabilities through effective collaboration among various departments and pay as much attention to preventing trafficking as to combating it. Expand individual responsibilities for collaborative efforts.

Increase international communication through collaboration. Trafficking in children and women can happen in any country. Human trafficking is modern slavery and a serious crime. It is a widely known characteristic of the Asia-Pacific region with a heavy flow of the illegal trade crossing borders. Therefore, close cooperation and collaboration between countries is crucial to the crackdown of the trade, both domestically and internationally. Closer cooperation is needed to investigate, arrest, prosecute and punish criminals and to support victims and ensure timely repatriations. As well, countries, especially Asian countries, should work together in other innovative ways, such as in education, economic development and governance, to improve the living standards and education levels of children and women to better attack the root dimensions that enable trafficking.

7.2.2 Resolve internal factors

Promoting economic development, promoting regular migration and raising preventive awareness are key strategies in dealing with internal factors

that enable the trafficking of children and women. Specific recommendations are as follows:

Adjust the rural economic framework and increase farmers' income. Governments need to adjust and optimize rural industrial development and encourage farmers to shift to crops and animal raising that more efficient, higher quality and have easily marketable, unique characteristics. However, adjustments in agriculture should follow market demands, be compatible with local priorities and respect farmers' choices. Governments should heavily invest in and promote information resources and scientific and technological skills to farmers, develop and promote advanced skills in agriculture production, animal husbandry, food storage and "seed project" as technical support to help increase farmers' incomes. As well, governments should produce supportive policies, improve the system of agriculture products' marketing, and speed up the steps of agriculture science development.

Governments need to intensify reforms of the agriculture products' marketing system, speed up the construction of agriculture products' markets and improve the industrialized agriculture marketing. This can be done by first helping the public to accept the idea "that marketing leads to income generation" and attach importance to both production and marketing. Second, the Government should try to de-rate some sales taxes and create a green channel for the marketing of agriculture by-products. Third, it can provide timely information services about the demand and supply of agriculture products through television, radio and other broadcasting systems and the Internet. Fourth, the Government can develop more marketing brokers, who serve as the bridge between farmers and the markets. The agriculture industry chain needs improving to better integrate production, supply and marketing. Give priorities to outstanding successful rural individuals, households and companies as role models for other villagers.

Food security is one of the most important problems confronting the Government. Therefore, the purchasing, marketing and subsidies of farm products are very important. However, the Government only can address existing problems step by step through reforms; it is not a simple problem of marketing.

Produce preferable policies to increase farmers' income. Steer farmers into active and appropriate expansion of production. As to land, identify ownership, confirm the contracting rights, and ensure farmers' rights in using the contracted land. Also allow for subcontracting and renting of the land. With the development of science skills and the elevation of labourers' skills, change from unscientific planting to intensive cultivation. The Government should allow farmers to become stockholders of the agricultural economy cooperative enterprises, using their lands as stock. Or support them to leave their farms and to work in other industries. Establish a pension insurance system in rural areas for farmers.

Actively develop the second and third industries in rural areas and encourage well-managed labour migration. Non-agriculture industries are major channels for absorbing rural surplus labour and providing alternative income opportunity. Therefore, second and third industries should be encouraged in rural areas to provide more employment opportunities. Expanding the agriculture processing industry, which is labour intensive, can help absorb more farmers needing different employment opportunities. Using the advantages offered by the large and cheap labour populations in villages, manufacturing enterprises should not shy away from labour-intensive industries. Help these enterprises to focus on precise and in-depth processing and actively participate in economic cooperation with cities.

Encourage labour migration though in an organized and well-managed manner. This requires better communication and cooperation among labour departments at all levels. Set up a long-term mechanism for labour migration and expand labour markets. Offer support to labour-exporting enterprises and encourage the establishment of rural labourer migration agencies with local agriculture departments, various economic entities, mass groups, rural grassroots organizations and outstanding successful villagers.

Explore the potential of village human resources to provide skills training. Many gaps prevail between rural and urban areas: gaps in knowledge, access to information, education, skills, supporting systems and quality of life. Therefore, governments at all levels should enhance the innovative development of agriculture with the expansion of new science skills, improved appreciation for education among villagers (at least promote the importance of nine years of basic schooling) and alternative ideas for the provision of education and vocational skills training. For instance, local people can subsidize and even operate schools. Improve occupational education that can facilitate agriculture production and rural industry through, for example, long-distance education. Expand the successful Green Certificate vocational skills training programme.

Give more support and protection to agriculture; increase infrastructure construction in rural areas. Improve agriculture infrastructure, including the facilities for irrigation and selling of agriculture products, to minimize the damage of natural disasters and marketing risks, lower production costs, provide more employment opportunities and thus increase farmers' income. There needs to be better allocation of agriculture-support capital to benefit the interests of farmers and the development of rural areas and agriculture. Support and expand villagers' access to electricity

and the construction of grain depots, roads, water pipelines and communication facilities. Try to hire rural labourers as a way of expanding opportunities for income generation.

Give more financial support to farmers. Offer more direct financial subsidy to farmers, especially those with low income. This can include funds to purchase equipment, adjust agriculture structures to promote plantation of cash crops, learn new skills, acquire agriculture insurance and cope with natural disasters. Moreover, a rural social insurance system should be set up as soon as possible. More funds should be allocated for compulsory education in rural areas and regulations with the Compulsory Education Law should be ensured to narrow the gap in school enrolments between rural and urban areas. The Government needs to address the burden on farmers. A move in this direction was made recently when the Government abolished the taxes for agriculture and special products. (The agriculture tax will be exempted gradually over the next two years.)

7.3 Governments of receiving places should shift focus from management to services for bettering the environment of farmers' employment in urban areas

Improve the environment for farmer's employment in cities by demolishing all policies that discriminate against migrant labourers. Speed up the establishment of a rural-urban integrated labour market. As already suggested, continue the reform of the Hukou system in both cities and rural areas and gradually carry out an integrated system for fair employment in the two areas. Strengthen labour security inspection and make harsher punishments

of those who abuse the rights of migrant labourers. Redress the delay of wages and cancel all unreasonable or unfair fees. City governments should bear the costs of skills trainings to migrant labourers, education to their children, labour insurance and other services and management.

Set up an employer's association for the establishment and improvement of a tripartite mechanism for solving conflicts in labour relationships. Establish an employer's association in the four administrative districts of Kunming City to protect the rights of entrepreneurs, to actively participate in the coordination of the tripartite mechanism in solving conflicts in labour relationships, to strengthen available services in skills training, consultations and information for employers and to communicate and cooperate with south-eastern countries.

The labour departments, Kunming City General Trade Union and employer associations should produce a tripartite negotiation system (based on the Labour Law and the Trade Union Labour Law and related regulations) to solve serious conflicts between employers and employees that occur in the city's four administrative districts.

Ensure access to education for children of migrant labourers. Communities can organize children of migrant labourers as possible to oversee them finishing school homework, and hire capable retired, laid-off workers or teachers to act as tutors. Try to provide these services for free or at a nominal charge.

Effectively protect the legal rights of migrant labourers. Any entity or individual who employs migrant labourers should pay some wage deposit in relation to the number of employees, in addition to the formal registration fees required by relevant regulations. Then if the employer withholds

payment of wages unfairly, the local labour department can use the deposit to pay the cheated employee. Meanwhile, the labour department should organize trainings in occupational health and safety awareness for migrant labourers, employers and other responsible persons, especially in high-risk fields such as construction.

Establish legal rights protection sub-teams to assist migrant labourers. These sub-teams would monitor the migrant labour situation and be available to help cheated or abused labourers seek recourse, such as in dealing with the delayed payment of wages.

Special accident insurance for migrant labourers should be promoted. All healthy migrant labourers aged 16–65 who hold temporary resident papers should be included in accident insurance coverage. This type of policy would be designed specifically for migrant labourers because of their exclusion in the existing social security system.

The unreasonable regulations and illegitimate charges to migrant labourers should be demolished. Any illegitimate fees charged to migrant labourers should not be allowed.

Legal assistance stations are needed to provide migrant labourers with access to law consultations and services for drafting legal papers, arbitration in a lawsuit, legal assistance, help in disputes over wages or insurance with employers, etc.

Migrant Labourer's Homes can provide other services, such as assistance in job hunting, housing, medical care, schooling for dependants and legal consultations and advice on legal rights protection.

Pre-occupational training and rules for employment qualifications. Provide migrant labourers with pre-occupational training through the labour and social security departments. The

trainings should cover labour laws, labour safety, job-hunting skills, social security regulations and responsible citizenship. After the training, the departments can issue an employment certificate to the trainees, who have necessary papers such as ID card, short-stay card and marriage certificate. Employers should be encouraged or required to only hire labourers who hold an employment certificate.

Employment management services for migrant labourers. Government should demonstrate the tenets of fair treatment, reasonable guidance, improved management and better services for migrant labourers. It also should further control the mechanical increase of population, expand the pilot area of residential certificate, improve the conjugation of system and policies, strengthen the legislation for the management of migrant labourers and speed up the pace of system reform in managing migrant labourers. Play the role of education and guidance to the management work to migrant labourers through advocacy efforts. Raise the attention and care from relevant departments and citizens to the management of migrant labourers. Implement relevant policies and educate migrant labourers on the policies and regulations.

Create a healthy culture of migration and enrich the lives of migrant labourers. In addition to setting up Young People's Culture Square and Migrant Labourers' Homes, establish literature clubs and reading clubs. Organize migrant labourers who have specialties in literature, arts and sports to conduct regular activities and support their hobbies. Arrange colourful entertainment activities such as painting, calligraphy or singing, activity months and village cultural festivals for migrant labourers to help them build friendships and social lives. Provide them a platform to display modern labour migration culture and the merits of "go-aheadism" to awaken their enthusiasm for creating a better life.

Foster citizen awareness, create a friendly environment and elevate the comprehensive quality of migrant labourers in places such as Kunming City. Responsible citizenry requires education and life skills as well as awareness and respect of laws, social morals and public as well as private property. Through the education in the name of "Kunming is my home and I am the builder of Kunming" and "Both local and migrant youths are good", the whole society should create an environment that respects migrant labourers. Instil the idea that Kunming City is also their hometown and they are part of the force driving its future development.

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