| HEALTH PROMOTION AND DISEASE PREVENTION A Handbook for Teachers, Researchers, Health Professionals and Decision Makers | | | |
|---|---|--|--|
| Title | Public Health Aspects of Trafficking in Human Beings – Health Promotion and Prevention Tasks and Possibilities | | |
| Module: 5.9.1 | ECTS: 2 | | |
| Author(s), degrees, institution(s) | Istvan Szilard, MD, PhD, Professor tit.Present: University of Pécs(Hungary), Faculty of Medicine (FormerSr. Migration Health Adviser for Europe and IOM contact person onMigration Health to the European Commission)Arpad Barath, PhD, ProfessorUniversity of Pécs (Hungary), Faculty of Humanities, Departmentof Social Work and Social Policy | | |
| Address for correspondence | Istvan Szilard, MD, PhD, Professor tit. Petőfi u. 29. H-7673 Cserkút Hungary Tel: +36 30 747 22 51 E-mail: ipszilard@t-email.hu | | |
| Key words | Trafficking in human beings, migration health, sexual and reproductive health, prevention & health promotion, victims' protection & psychosocial assistance, international collaboration | | |
| Learning objectives | After completing this module students and public health professionals should: be familiar with the concept of trafficking, its roots and dynamics in modern/postmodern societies; have a comprehensive understanding of the trafficking process as experienced by the trafficked persons; understand the specific health (public,- sexual & reproductive - and mental health) consequences of trafficking; including medico-legal issues; understand the need for multidisciplinary, interagency, intersectoral and international cooperation as essential components of combating trafficking and related violence against fundamental human rights; possess sound knowledge and communication skills needed to recognize vulnerable individuals, families and social groups for trafficking; be able to understand the essentials, the methods and techniques of preventive actions in the context of counter-trafficking on individual, community, national and international level; be familiar with basic principles, helping strategies, and ethical standards essential to ensure a multi-faced, holistic, high-quality psychosocial assistance to trafficked persons; with an emphasis on recognizing the special needs of trafficked women and children; be familiar with basic principles of self-help, prevention and control of role stressors that threaten the mental health of both the professionals and non-professional helpers working in the realms of counter-trafficking. | | |

| Abstract | In the last decades trafficking in human being has become one of the most lucrative criminal enterprises all over the world, with strong links to other illegal activities, such as money laundering, drug trafficking, document forgery, and smuggling. The US Justice Department estimated that annually some 700,000 women and children are bought, sold, transported and held in slavery-like conditions for sexual and labour exploitation. IOM estimates that around 120,000 women and children are being trafficked into the European Union each year, primarily through the Balkans, and 10,000 women, mostly from Moldova, Romania and Ukraine, are working only in the sex trade industry in Bosnia-Herzegovina. However, trafficking is not only a criminal act against human rights and dignity, but an ever increasing public health issue as it is stated in the Budapest Declaration adopted by the participants of the ministerial level Regional Conference on Public Health & Trafficking in Human Beings in Central, Eastern and Southeast Europe, held on 19-21 March 2003, in Budapest. Providing appropriate health promotion and care services for trafficked persons is <i>not only a</i> <i>humanitarian obligation, but also a public health concern</i> for countries of origin, transit and destination alike. (Eg.: Medical records from Moldavia show that some 88 per cent of the ex-victims return to their homeland with sexually transmitted infections (STI), and about the same number (84 per cent) exhibit chronic anxiety disorders with the mix of depression and post-traumatic stress syndrome (PTSD). The module provides a framework not only for the assessment and treatment of specific health and mental health needs of the ex-victims of trafficking, but takes a large-scale public health promotion of most vulnerable social groups to this kind of abuse and violence. |
|------------------|---|
| Teaching methods | A well-planned sequence of five lectures will constitute the teaching module that begins with a historical overview of trafficking, and its re-emergence in the modern/post-modern societies. It continues with outlining the trafficking process itself, i.e., the process of victimization, both from medico-legal, and the victims' perspectives. The next two lectures will focus on trafficking related health hazards and specific issues regarding victims' protection, rehabilitation and reintegration and community networking both in host, and home countries. The last lecture in the series will provide basic knowledge of and opportunities for practical skills training in health education and awareness raising programmes. Lecturing <i>per se</i> should take approximately one-third of the total teaching time, and the rest should be provided to students' experiential learning activities, including small-groups discussion, focus group discussion on selected issues, and an extensive use of PBL (problem-based learning) method. |

| Specific recommendations for teachers | The continuity and sequencing of material is of utmost importance. The personal learning, the sharing of personal and professional experience and the development of personal/professional competencies in the realms of counter-trafficking is highly significant as well as taking the perspectives of a holistic approach to prevention and the heuristics of continuing education on the subject. Students would feel devoted to study and act upon on a life-long basis. |
|--|--|
| Assessment of Students | The assessment of students takes three, interrelated stages: (1) entrance assessment for eligibility, (2) ongoing activities assessment and (3) final assessment based on tangible project proposal. As far as teaching-learning process assessment is concerned, a five minute quiz of one or two questions should start each lecture. The first one should be the students' statement on what they expect to learn from the course. Based on small group discussions, students should explore sources (the internet, the library) to find evidence supporting or rejecting what is being discussed. A one page summary of this material should be submitted at the end of each session. The summary of the first session submitted at the start of the second discussion group, and continues in sequence. A five page essay, following the criteria stated in the <i>task</i> , serves to demonstrate the students' understanding, application, and creativity regarding the concepts and modalities that constitute the thesis of this module. The essay counts for 60%, the quizzes 20%, and the summaries for 20%. |

PUBLIC HEALTH ASPECTS OF TRAFFICKING IN HUMAN BEINGS, HEALTH PROMOTION AND PREVENTION TASKS AND POSSIBILITIES Istvan Szilard, Arpad Barath

Definitions

Different definitions and expressions are used to describe smuggling of migrants and trafficking in human beings. Hereafter reference is made to the definitions in the protocols supplementing the United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime (1), in particular in Protocol to Prevent, Suppress, and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (2). Interpol also adopts these definitions.

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

Although men are also concerned, human trafficking in Europe affects mostly children and women.

Trafficking differs from people smuggling because it involves the exploitation of people for forced labour and prostitution. People smuggling involves people who are willing to pay (using cash or other favours) in order to gain illegal entry into a state or country of which they are neither citizens nor permanent residents. From health and public health point of view regarding the required assistance, the required assistance between this two most common form of irregular migration is not significantly different.

Smuggling of migrants means "the procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit, of the illegal entry of a person into a State Party of which the person is not a national or a permanent resident." (Interpol)

Short history of trafficking in human beings

Children, adolescents, women and men have been the victims of trafficking for sex and other purposes for thousands of years. Nowadays, international trafficking of human beings is a growing phenomenon, as hundreds of thousands of men, women and children are trafficked by businessmen into dens around the world. Surprisingly, many follow the trafficking routes of the Middle Ages or the Renaissance when mainly Eastern European women and children were sold in slave markets in Western Europe.

The first known phase of trafficking occurred during the Middle Ages, when each year thousands of women and children from East Prussia, the Czech lands, Poland, Lithuania, Estonia and Latvia were sold in the slave markets of Italy and southern France.

The second phase occurred during the latter part of the Middle Ages and the early Renaissance when Eastern European women and children were trafficked, mainly from Russia and the Ukraine, and sold into slavery in Italy and the Middle East. Others came from Bosnia, Albania and the Caucasian Mountains. They also ended their days as slaves in Italy and France. This trafficking route into Western Europe ceased when the Ottoman Empire conquered Constantinople. Western European countries then turned their attention to West Africa as a source of slaves.

The modern slavers from Serbia, Albania, Bosnia, Turkey, Russia and Eastern Europe model themselves on the slavers of the Middle Ages and the early Renaissance. Not much has changed, except they now dress in expensive suits, carry mobile phones and drive flashy automobiles. Contemporary slavery takes various forms and affects people of all ages, sex and race (3).

Estimated magnitude of this 'modern' type of slavery

When it comes to trafficking, it is nearly impossible to come up with well-established statistical figures. The nature of this crime – underground, often under-acknowledged – contributes to the inability to pin down the number of people who are victimized by traffickers each year.

Nevertheless, the US Department of Justice yearly reports (2002 – 2006) estimated that annually some 700,000 women and children are bought, sold, transported and held in slavery-like conditions for sex and labour exploitation (4). According to the Swedish NGO, Kvinna Till Kvinna, an estimated 500,000 women from all over the world are trafficked each year into Western Europe alone. A large proportion of these come from former Soviet Union countries.

According to International Organization for Migration (IOM) estimates, 120,000 women and children are being trafficked into the European Union (EU) each year, primarily through the Balkans and that 10,000 women, mostly from Moldova, Romania and Ukraine, are working only in the sex trade industry in Bosnia Herzegovina (5). However it is difficult to verify these figures with the information from particular regions or countries.

Economists estimate that in the 'crime industry' drogue, weapons and trafficking are the highest three income generating black businesses.

Subject overview

Health and public health professionals' understanding of trafficking, and their capability to prevent its further spread and deadly impacts both in own countries and worldwide certainly asks for a kind of special knowledge that goes beyond the knowledge of sheer descriptive statistics on its magnitude, geographic distribution and trends and the like. To advance this knowledge, professionals are expected to understand, at the first place, the attitudes, misperceptions, prejudices and myths about the phenomenon in the general (lay) public that make most people passive "by-standards", hence ignorant to this particular form of mass violence and crime.

Secondly, one has to understand the phenomenon as a special kind of migration process that shares, on one hand, certain common characteristics with other types of migration (e.g. economic migration), while on the other hand, it has vast many unique features never if ever observed before in the history of migrations.

Last but not least, one has to understand the very intricate fabrics, dynamics health, public health and mental health consequences of the trafficking process as a whole, without which effective and meaningful efforts invested in counter-trafficking would be unthinkable.

Until recently, much of the support in the fight against trafficking has focused on information exchange, criminal and juridical cooperation, and return and reintegration assistance. In the last few years, however, a number of protocols, declarations, published studies and reviews have also called attention to the serious health concerns related to trafficking (6–10). These documents also highlight the need to develop minimum standards of care and provide specialized services that specifically match the needs of the victim.

Trafficked persons – regardless of whether trafficking is for the purpose of labour, sexual or any other form of exploitation – are exposed to a range of health-related problems. During captivity, they experience physical violence, sexual exploitation, psychological abuse, poor living conditions and exposure to a wide range of diseases, which may have long-lasting consequences on their physical, reproductive, and mental health.

In recognition of these health concerns, the *Budapest Declaration* (Annex I) notes that "more attention should be dedicated to the health and public health concerns related to trafficking". Specifically, it recommends that trafficked persons should receive "comprehensive, sustained, gender, age and culturally appropriate health care (...) by trained professionals in a secure and caring environment." To this end, "minimum standards should be established for the health care that is provided to trafficked victims" with the understanding that "different stages of intervention call for different priorities". This module offers a set of information and overview for meeting these recommendations.

It should be noted that providing appropriate health promotion and care services for trafficked persons is not only a humanitarian obligation, but also a public health concern for countries of origin, transit and destination alike. Since the general population is also exposed to the high health risks associated with trafficking, states should commit themselves to both disease prevention and control in this area. This problem does not merely appear in the context of spreading sexually transmitted infections (STIs) and 'common' infectious diseases, such as the (re)-emerging problems of TB, HIV/AIDS and of Hepatitis B and C. A significant public health risk may also emerge if – as a consequence of the demolished public health system in the majority of countries of origin – 'vaccine preventable diseases' are spread to transit and destination countries where most physicians have not been confronted with these pathologies before. Providing appropriate and adequate care in the first line of service is the best security measure against such a risk. To achieve significant advances in this field, governments must harmonise their public health policies including service provision, availability of specially trained practitioners, and data and information sharing.

Myths about trafficking

It is a known fact that the general public's awareness about trafficking all over the world countries is blurred with prejudices and myths about trafficking and its victims, on one hand, and with very low-level, incoherent, sporadic knowledge of its very nature, on the other, as the consequence utmost biased and sensationalistic media communication about the entire phenomenon. To illustrate the case, here we quote a few common myths about the victims of trafficking that Ukrainian researchers and health professionals can hear and record on a day-to-day basis (11):

Myths about awareness. According to this myth: "All the girls and women who go abroad (from Ukraine) know what will be awaiting them there... These women are guilty because they broke the law and agreed to work illegally; they naively believed all the tales about big money in other countries, so they don't deserve our compassion and help."

Myths about prostitution. "A woman who returns after trafficking is a prostitute. She had fun; she earned a lot of money. Why should anyone help her? ...Once a prostitute, always a prostitute. She'll never change. Why should she get help?"

Myths about choice. "The woman went there of her own accord and earned money, just as she wanted to. So what does it have to do with us?" (...)"Look at the way she's all dolled up and covered with make-up. She's just a whore, not someone who was victimized by traffickers."

Myths about responsibility: "All these women, who went onto trafficking about all the things the claim to went through. They just want to get help, to gain basic benefits from her lies (...). These women could have escaped from their pimps. Why didn't they?"

One can find virtually the same or similar myths about trafficking in many other countries as well, such as: "All prostitutes are willing to participate in trafficking", "All participants involved in human trafficking are criminals", and the like.

Behind all myth-makings and violent attitudes one can easily discover a "double-bind" (Janus-faced) morality typical for the value structure of modern (Western-type) societies, in particular regarding sex & labour, as the two most sensitive moral issues that persist and regenerate themselves probably since colonial times (12). The essence of this double-faced morality lays, on one hand, in the historic fact that modern mainstream societies typically and permanently tend to create, enforce and reinforce a full range of myths about own "clean morality", "high-standard values", the "superiority of own culture" (over others), while on the other side, they create, maintain and re-incarnate prejudices, violent attitudes and diverse mechanisms of social exclusion towards all those social groups, who - for one or another reason – are considered "unfit" to the normative standards of the "general public". These are usually labelled as "outcast" groups, many of them "underclass", and can be of very diverse kind and origin - the "poor", the "Gypsies", the prostitutes, the gays, the immigrants, trafficked & smuggled people, to name only a few. Needless to emphasize then, that one of the first and most important steps in a public health approach to trafficking seems to lay, indeed, in the task of debunking public myths and biased attitudes both about the victims and their perpetrators.

Understanding the dynamics and process of trafficking

From a sociological point of view, trafficking in humans is a special kind of migration process, and as such, it shares to some extent two basic features common to other types of migration. One of these features is the dynamics of mass migrations, which rests, among others, on balancing between two forces. One of these forces is the complex of push factors that makes the exodus side of migration (moving from, flight from), and another is the complex of pull factors that makes the teleonomic, i.e. goal-seeking aspect of migration (moving towards, attracted to certain values and goals). This two-factor model is one of a classic (economic) approaches to migration, also known by name "the laws of migration", and it was invented by a British economist, E. Ravenstein way back in 1880's (13). As far as the trafficking in humans is concerned, this theory certainly can highlight many personal motivation factors that "move" great many victims onto the web of trafficking, but there

are still great many other push & pull factors that have little or nothing to do with personal motivation of potential victims. In Table 1 we listed a sample of this factor specific to the dynamics not only of trafficking but to other types of modern migration (e.g. smuggling).

Another base of comparison of trafficking with other types of migration lays in the fact that virtually all migrations are a stage-wise process with rather distinctive phases of change both in life conditions, and in social identity. Researchers in the past usually distinguished three major phases in this change process: (A) pre-departure stage, (B) transient stage, and (C) adaptation or integration stage (14) This rather simplistic three-stage model rests on the assumption that the migration trends are linear moves of people from one social setting to another, from one's country of origin to one or more other setting, where some of those other settings will be a kind of life-long "final" destination. At the time being, however, such kind of three-step linear moves appears to be rather atypical in more recent trends of migration, both within countries and in trends of cross-border migration. Specifically, more typical is for the currently unfolding migration trends the kind of, so called, "open-ended" migration process, where moving from one site of residency to another is not at all a linear, but rather a circular process, where "circularity" means moving forth-and back to one place or country of residence to another, and that goes along with permanent changes both in individual and social identities (15, 16).

| Push factors | Pull factors | |
|--|---|--|
| Natural or man-made disasters in home | The "illusion of prosperity & good life" in | |
| countries, including war | Western societies | |
| Civil unrest, inter-ethnic conflicts, escalation | Illusion of "personal freedom" and self- | |
| of community violence and crime at sites of | determination as part of the post-modern value | |
| residence | climate | |
| Corrupt political & bureaucratic regimes, weak | Faked self-presentation of home-coming | |
| law enforcement | migrants (guest workers) | |
| Weak democratic institutions, deepening social | Lasting impact of globalized "Hollywood- | |
| inequalities | effect" (easy-going life) through media on mass | |
| High unemployment rates, general poverty, | culture | |
| forced labour, mass exploitation | Peer pressure towards norm-breaking, | |
| Poor educational opportunities in the country | adventure & delinquency | |
| Poor health & social care | Attraction to prostitution & prostitutes as 'role | |
| Flight from family violence & child abuse | models' for easy and luxury life | |
| () any many more. | () and many more. | |

Table 1. A sample of latent push & pull factors underlying trafficking

Viewed from this perspective, trafficking apparently represents an extreme case of fully "open-ended" migration processes, which typically starts at some "fixed" point both in space and time, yet it is fully uncertain whether and how, if ever, it ends at any point in space and time. The most frequently quoted stages of trafficking experience in the literature are the followings (17):

- pre-departure stage,
- travel and transit,
- "destination" stage, and if the victim is lucky enough, the trafficking experience continues with

- rescue or escape, detention and deportation, criminal evidence, and eventually ends with
- return and
- social reintegration in the country of origin (or else).

The flow-chart below clearly indicates that after one or more, so called, "destination" sites the future of a trafficked person is typically blurred and full with uncertainties, and her/his fate is completely out of personal control. The truth is that the bulk of victims never if ever would reach any of the last two closing phases of trafficking experience. According to rough estimates, some 85-90 per cent of victims is never if ever able to return home and back to civil life. Moreover, an unknown number of ex-victims even after rescue and fortunate return home would be re-trafficked under life-threatening pressure from the side of local and/or international traffickers.

Figure 1. Major stages of the trafficking process

Destination: victimization & slavery

| | Transport, transfer | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------|---|---------------------|
| Distribution | | ? | |
| Recruitment (trapping) | Re- trafficking | ? | Rescue or escape |

Return & reintegration

Now, let us take a somewhat closer look what happens most likely (typically) with the victims all along their way in labyrinths of trafficking.

Recruitment and distribution

Traffickers usually use different, carefully ambushed techniques of complete or partial deception in targeting the potential victims personally, or using peer pressure or in the case of minors, they would manipulate with parents, relatives or close others (e.g. blackmailing). In some countries, kidnapping, faked marriage offers, abduction, and the like are not rare. Far the most used recruitment techniques among the youth in many European, in particular in CEE countries are, however: advertisements offering work and/or study abroad; agencies offering work, study, marriage or study abroad; false pre-arranged marriages, or simply relatives or friends offering "good-heart" help to a young persons facing life crisis and/or

live in desperate need for taking control over own life. The life story of a young girl from Romania quoted in the text-box below illustrates the case (18).

"I was just 15 when I left Romania. When I was 12 my mother died, my father became an alcoholic and would beat my brother and me. A cousin said he would get me out of this situation and into a 'normal' life. He sold me like a slave"

As soon as the potential victim (or any of her/his significant others) make the first move towards the offered "help" in migration, the perfectly organized networks of pimps and traffickers both within the country and abroad get mobilized, and organize the distribution of potential victims in various directions, according to "supply needs" as dictated by their national or international "bosses" in the trafficking business, including the arrangement of their travel documents (if needed), paying their travel costs (later used against them as debt bondage), arranging for them the most appropriate modes of legal or illegal pass across international borders etc.

Travel and transit stage

The travel and transit stage begins at the time of recruitment and ends upon arrival at the work destination. Recruitment is followed by a movement phase, which is far to be based upon the transported persons' free and informed consent. Already during the journey, the victim may suffer grave human rights and physical abuse, and a variety of other crimes. Most trafficked persons have never left their country of origin before and they are therefore completely dependent on the traffickers. Some leave their country without international passports, but for many, even if they do hold a passport, it is often taken from them and held by the traffickers as a way of securing greater compliance.

Traffickers often use legal modes of transportation, as this is cheaper and may convince the trafficked person that her/his travel has a legitimate purpose. But there are also instances where trafficked persons are exposed to dangerous modes of transportation, high-risk border crossing and arrest, threats and intimidation, and violence including rape and other forms of sexual abuse. Trafficked persons are vulnerable to abuse by many individuals during the movement phase, including the trafficking agents, escorts, drivers, border officials, etc. It is also not unusual to find trafficked persons who have had several cycles of travel and transit and have been re-sold or re-trafficked several times along the way. For most trafficked persons, the movement phase is also the stage of initial trauma since this is the time when illicit activities begin, as the following case report illustrates (18).

"We were kept as cattle, with no exaggeration. We did not even have the possibility to wash. We even had limited drinking water, without even mentioning food. We were poorly fed – once a day."

The destination stage

The destination stage is when the trafficked person is put to work and subjected to a combination of coercion, violence, forced labour, debt bondage or other forms of abuse. In order to coerce victims into provide services they were simply sold and bought for like a

cattle, trafficked persons, in particular women, report being subjected to physical, mental and sexual violence/abuse, such as severe beatings, rape or gang-rape. They are deprived of basic elements for survival such as food and water, human and social contact.

Debt bondage is a tactic typically used by traffickers to control them: enslavement occurs under the pretence of repaying an accumulated debt which includes the price the 'owner' paid for the person's travel, false documents and purchase. In some instances, traffickers increase the victims debt by charging for accommodation, re-sale to other 'owners', penalties, food, lodging, etc.

The physical and mental torture is compounded by threats to their families' safety, prohibition to contact any family member or friend, frequent monetary fines and seizure of money, valuables, and limited assets that they may have, forced use of alcohol, and other substances and other coercive techniques to ensure their 'cooperation' and prevent them from escaping. An excerpt from a case study below would provide a full picture of the tortures and brutalities that most victims face in slave-like conditions (18).

"In the country of destination, the girls were delivered to a hotel, assembled in one room and told to wait for the company owner. Some time later a man arrived and told the girls in poor Russian, that they were sold to him and now they had to repay their debts by providing sex-services to clients. Initially all the girls refused and were severely beaten. A couple of days later, the hosts transported 4 girls to another place, while Christina and 2 other girls remained in the hotel. When they served clients, the hosts distributed them between separate rooms. Usually, every girl from the group served from 8 to 12 clients daily. To make women less tired and more submissive the hosts forced them to drink alcohol with sedatives and psychotropic substances. For the whole period of her stay in the hotel, Christina was never allowed to leave it; sometimes she was only allowed to walk on the hotel roof with other girls. Windows in the hotel were trellised, rooms were equipped with video cameras and the girls were not allowed to make phone calls to their relatives. Oksana, a friend of Christina's, once tried to make a call from a mobile phone she had been given by a client, but was severely beaten afterwards."

Rescue and/or escape detention, deportation and criminal evidence gathering

Another series of painful events begins when the trafficked person is rescued or manages to escape from the traffickers and is now in police custody or care of immigration authorities for alleged violation of criminal or immigration law, or cooperating in legal proceedings against the traffickers, or abusive employers.

Even when relatively 'safe' and out of the traffickers' clutches, victims are generally observed to be anxious, frightened, in a confused state. They are also often suspicious of any assistance initially provided, and worry about what awaits them from the time of their escape, rescue and their stay at the transit centre up to their return home stage. In some countries of destination or transit, the harsh conditions of detention facilities may pose additional physical health risks.

Additionally from a mental health angle, an almost exclusive contact with authorities (e.g. arrest, giving evidence, testifying in a criminal proceeding) will have severe psychological effects on a trafficked person. The trafficked individuals may experience memory lapses, fear of law enforcement officials and feel deep insecurity about own futures and fear for the safety

of loved ones left back home. While the stage may be unavoidable, it may be alleviated by sufficient psychosocial support. 'Z' the 26 years old victim has explained it as follows (18):

"In the prison where I was held, they would not feed the women who had worked as prostitutes. These women had to pay the prison's staff in order to be fed. Since I had no money, I was starved. During my detention period, I lost 6 kilograms. Sometimes, I was fed by other women who had money and who would pity me."

Who are victims?

Trafficked persons are women, children and men. Women and children are particularly vulnerable. They are bought, sold, transported and re-sold mostly for sexual and labour exploitation, but a substantial minority may also end up in situations such as forced begging, delinquency, debt bondage, false marriage, adoption, or as victims of the trade of human organs. The profile of trafficked persons is constantly changing. They are currently observed to be getting younger, and children are increasingly being caught up in the process.

Frequently victims:

- Do not speak any foreign, and are unfamiliar with the culture and society they are dragged into;
- Distrust outsiders, especially law enforcement (fear of deportation);
- Typically do not identify themselves as victims; often blame themselves as predicaments;
- Although many victims have been beaten and/or raped, the current situation and life conditions still may feel and claim "better" than were they came from;
- May be unaware of their rights or may have been intentionally misinformed about any rights in the country they been transported;
- Fear for the safety of families in their home countries, who are often threatened by local traffickers.

Health consequences of trafficking, highlights of case management

The model of types and sequence of health harms of trafficked persons counts with nine categories (19):

- physical abuse/physical health;
- sexual abuse/sexual and reproductive health;
- psychological abuse/mental health;
- forced, coerced use of drugs and alcohol/substance abuse and misuse;
- social restrictions and manipulation/social well-being;
- economic exploitation and debt bondage/economic well-being;
- legal insecurity/legal security;
- abusive working and living conditions/occupational and environmental well-being, and
- risks associated with marginalization/health service utilization and delivery.

Although many of the risks and abuses associated with trafficking occur simultaneously or overlap, it is possible to delineate the different forms in order to gain a better understanding of

their attendant effects on health. This approach attempts to show the reciprocal and connected nature of harm and its consequences - how harm in one category can have consequences in another (e.g., physical violence causes physical disability that in turn creates economic problems such as when the individual has difficulty working) and the way that these can have a mutually reinforcing effect on one another (e.g., inability to work and economic problems exacerbate mental health problems, such as stress and fear). For helpers and health practitioners, it is critical to understand how these various forms of violence - both separately and in combination with each other - interact to destroy the health of a trafficked person.

Within the frame of this module we can only highlight some of the basic ethical standards in physical and mental health case management (20).

Basic ethical principles of case management:

Do no harm

"Do no harm" is the first principle of most medical ethical guidance. Given the extreme risks associated with trafficking, the fragile state of many of its victims and the potential for increased trauma, the significance of this basic rule cannot be overrated. It is the ethical responsibility of every health practitioner to assess the potential for harm, and if there is any reason to believe that carrying out an interview, or conducting an examination or procedure, will cause the individual to be worse off than before, it should not be undertaken at that time. Treat each individual and situation as though there was a significant potential for harm until there is evidence to the contrary.

It is important to recognise that for a person who has been trafficked every meeting with a service provider becomes part of the recovery process, because each positive interpersonal encounter helps build his/her faith in others, increases self-confidence, and fosters hopes s/he has for the future. Providers should be prepared to react to questions and possible distress with clear and patient responses (20).

Ensure safety, security and comfort

Before speaking with a trafficked person it is essential to make certain that s/he feels safe and secure. Even if the risks to an individual's safety have been reviewed at other times for other purposes, support persons must ask whether the individual feels safe at that particular moment and whether there is anything more that could be done that would allow her/him to feel more secure.

At the same time, it is mandatory that all trafficked persons be asked very specifically whether they are in immediate need of medical care (e.g., not simply "are you feeling okay?") and, if so, that (something seems to be missing for clarity of the sentence, such as " addressing the needs" or "this" should take precedence over an interview or any other service activity. Physical and psychological symptoms can become especially acute when an individual is under pressure - such as in an interview or service setting.

Sexual and reproductive health

Trafficking in women has serious implications for sexual and reproductive health. Even women who are not trafficked into forced prostitution frequently suffer sexual abuse or exploitation. Sexual and reproductive health has social, psychological, and medical implications, each of which must be treated professionally and with all due care (21, 22).

| Risks and Abuse from Sexual Violence | Reproductive and Sexual Health Consequences | |
|--|--|--|
| Forced vaginal, oral or anal sex; gang rape; degrading sexual acts Forced prostitution, inability to control number or acceptance of clients Forced unprotected sex and sex without lubricants Unwanted pregnancy, forced abortion, unsafe abortion Sexual humiliation, forced nakedness Coerced misuse of oral contraceptives or other contraceptive methods Inability to negotiate sexual encounters | Sexually transmitted infections (STIs), reproductive tract infections (RTIs) and related complications, including pelvic inflammatory disease (PID), urinary tract infections (UTI), cystitis, cervical cancer, and infertility HIV/AIDS Amenorrhea and dysmenorrhoea Acute or chronic pain during sex; tearing and other damage to vaginal tract Negative outcomes of unsafe abortion, including cervix incontinence, septic shock, unwanted birth Difficulties forming intimate relationships | |

Table 2. Health Risk, Abuse and Consequences of Trafficking

STI/RTI Screening Options for Women

IOM advise is that among high-risk populations such as trafficked women, routine screening for common reproductive tract infections (RTIs) and sexually transmitted infections (STIs) should be implemented in all organized assistance structures. This includes using history taking, clinical screening, and laboratory screening. Many women will only seek treatment when they are symptomatic. The use of screening strategies is an essential method for detecting and treating infections among asymptomatic women. Syphilis, gonorrhoea, HPV, Hepatitis B, and chlamydia are examples of often mild or asymptomatic infections with serious consequences that may not be recognized by the patient and can be missed by the provider. WHO estimates that 60-70% of women with gonococcal and chlamydial infection go undetected when using algorithms based on symptoms, since women have an asymptomatic infection (23).

Screening options:

- Syphilis
- Hepatitis B
- Cervical Infection (Gonorrhoea and/or Chlamydia
- Cervical Dysplasia
- HIV

HIV testing should be encouraged for all women but should not be mandatory. Active management of HIV/AIDS is recommended. That is, a woman should be aware of all the tests and treatment options available to her. Women should be counselled on the benefits of testing and assured of confidentiality. HIV/AIDS education should be provided by trained staff and testing should be always completed with pre- and post test counselling.

Contraception

Victims of trafficking should be advised on available contraceptive methods and share culturally appropriate health education material explaining contraceptive choices, methods

and techniques, in accordance with international standards established by WHO and UNFPA.

In many countries women have no or only little choice regarding their pregnancies. The subject of contraception might, therefore, be addressed within the broader framework of a woman's right to information without the threat of coercion or violence (24).

Mental health consequences of trafficking

According to available evidence, the mental health consequences of the trafficking experience must be virtually countless, and on a long run, they surely impact not only the victims themselves, but their entire social environment wherever they live, in particularly their families and local communities after, if ever, they return home. Although we do not have any extensive and much reliable epidemiological evidence on the kinds and magnitude of mental health injuries that trafficked persons contract and accumulate all along the way of trafficking experience (and it is doubtful as whether such data base ever will be available at national and international levels), we have at least some partial evidence on this matter. The following figures are evidence on the kind and magnitude of major categories of mental health disorders diagnosed in a sample of ex-victims of trafficking from Moldavia (N = 171), after their return home, and received professional help at the IOM Rehabilitation Centre in Chisinau, including medical, psychiatric and psychosocial care (25):

- Neurotic disorders, including PTSD (84%)
- Affective disorder (35%)
- Personality disorders (18%)
- Mental disorders due to alcoholism/drug addition (14%)
- Mental retardation (15%)
- Sexual aversion disorder (5%)
- Manic-depressive psychosis (3%)
- Schizophrenia (3%)
- Epilepsy (3%)
- Mental disorder due to physical trauma (2%)

Similar clinical evidence was made available on somewhat larger samples of ex-victims from Ukraine (N=427), helped in 2004 at the IOM Rehabilitation Centre in Kiev.

The above listed statistics indicate only the rates of "major" (prime) diagnosed disorders, and other (e.g. secondary) diagnoses are omitted. The rates of multiple disorders must be extremely high, presumably much higher then one would diagnose in any other population of victims hit by any natural and/or man-made mass disaster, including the morbidity rates among war veterans.

Children and adolescents

Far the most vulnerable populations to trafficking are the children and minors, who make more than half of the total population of victims, according to UNICEF estimates (30). Children and adolescents are trafficked into many of the same forms of labour and for similar purposes as adults (e.g., factory work, domestic service, sex work, and as brides). They are also exploited in ways that are more particular to children (e.g., child pornography, camel jockey, begging, mining, and organ donation) (26).

During a trafficking experience, a child is exposed to a physical and psychological

environment that damages her/his potential for normal and healthy development. Chronic abuse likely affects personality development and can cause pathological personality development. For example, children learn to "survive" in taking the path of very diverse criminal activities; feeling compelled, even while they are abused; they tend to form attachments and develop trust with their criminal caretakers. After all, children tend to trust adult caretakers, comply with authority figures and blame themselves and feel guilty even for what others impose on them. This has disastrous effects on their future capacity to form healthy relationships based on mutual trust and intimacy.

Children are not small adults, and the medical staff and other persons assisting children victims of trafficking should not treat them as such, but be sensitive to the special needs of a child in such difficult conditions (27).

Caring for children and adolescents who have been trafficked requires:

- Developing approaches that demonstrate respect and promote participation.
- An understanding of the complex ways in which their past experience has harmed them.
- Tailoring services to meet the needs of each age group and in ways appropriate to the age and characteristics of the child concerned and never merely following programmes designed for adults.
- Implementing strategies aimed at mitigating the effects of past trauma and fostering healthier patterns of development.

The right of children and adolescents to health and to health services appropriate to their age and particular requirements are not only essential for their survival and well-being, but are also fundamental human rights grounded in international human rights instruments, - in particular the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), which states that the best interests of the child shall be a primary consideration (28).

Special considerations:

Cultural competence

The term "cultural competence" is often used in medical and non-medical settings to refer to the ways ethnic, racial, national, social and linguistic factors affect health care, and the relationship between patients and providers. Gaining cultural competence involves developing an awareness and acceptance of and responsiveness to cultural differences in all of these senses. Responding appropriately to these differences is not only essential to providing effective care, but also an obligation dictated by internationally accepted human rights instruments, such as the of International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights (29).

Cultural competence has been defined as "the complex integration of knowledge, attitudes and skills that enhances cross-cultural communication and appropriate/effective interactions with others." It includes at least three aspects:

- Knowledge of the effects of culture on the beliefs and behaviour of others;
- Awareness of one's own cultural attributes and biases and their impact on others;
- Understanding the impact of the socio-political, environmental and economic context on the specific situation (30).

The ways in which their family, community, and society experience trauma and how they respond is likely to have a major impact on how a trafficked person responds.

Conceptual models from one society may be inadequate or inappropriate to address the suffering of individuals from another culture or background. Support strategies common in western settings may be alien or even offensive compared to how others deal with traumatic events. For example, offering debriefing sessions or encouraging individuals to recount past events (common to some western treatment strategies) may provide little solace for individuals from cultures where forgetting is a normal means of coping with past difficulties, or where revealing intimate or embarrassing details is not acceptable except within a family setting (31).

Why counter-trafficking so weak in many countries?

According to trafficking in persons surveys in some 140 countries conducted annually by the US Department of State, a strikingly small number of national governments (17-18 per cent) comply fully with international standards and measures of counter-trafficking (TIER 1 level), whereas the rest of countries either applies only a limited number of measures or does effectively nothing on the matter (32).

One of the reasons, as we pointed out earlier, surely lays in the poor awareness and ambivalence of the general public to pay even attention to the phenomenon in own country. However, this is only one of many barriers to combat trafficking. Brian Iselin, an international expert on trafficking from the UN Office on Drugs and Crime makes a list of eight major barriers in law enforcement to tackle human trafficking in an effective and co-ordinated way (33):

- No coherent; comprehensive international strategy on trafficking;
- Environments of crime without complains;
- Lack of competent, reliable witnesses;
- Absence of quality evidence;
- Seamless partnership required between law enforcement, communities, NGOs, psycho-social workers;
- Victims 'present' as illegal migrants;
- First level traffickers mostly women, girls, and former victims;
- All in environment of apathy and values that facilitate trade.

Perspectives to tackle trafficking in a more effective way

There is an abundance of scholarly papers, case studies, handbooks, guidelines and training manuals aiming to assist both the professional and general public to take role and responsibility in combating trafficking in a meaningful, effective and organized way (34, 35). Given the limited space for this module, certainly we are not able to discuss at any length any of counter-trafficking programs and strategies. The only thing we can do is to highlight briefly three interlocking perspectives which, sooner of later, surely will make the building blocks of a new paradigm to tackle human trafficking and related crimes.

Health promotion perspectives

It is a generally acknowledged fact that one of the most salient changes in entire philosophy of public health came around in the mid '80s, with the WHO initiated Ottawa Charter on Health Promotion (36). The turning point was, indeed, the critical re-conception

of health as a positive social construct, and paradigm shift was, indeed, in moving away from its rather narrow, largely "disease-focusing", mostly bio-medical conception as it was propagated over decades by clinical health sciences. One of the key axioms of Declaration one can find in the statement, which says: "Health is a positive concept emphasizing social and persona resources, as well physical capacities. Therefore, health promotion is not just the responsibility of the health sector, but goes beyond health life-styles to well-being."

Another famous axiom of the Declaration was a brief call, as it is: "Act locally, think globally!"

Put it differently, the Ottawa Charter '86 on Health Promotion made quite clear, for the first time in the history of health sciences and related disciplines, the health and the future of the modern societies is not, and cannot be left anymore to illusionist (utopist) thinking, rather it out to be a grand plan of social action drawn upon the following ground principles:

- social change
- physical (environmental) change
- healthy policy development
- empowerment
- community participation
- equity and social justice
- accountability (of any social action).

Although the document was not about to address any kind of crime prevention, and it was created far ahead in time before trafficking became one of the key public health issues world-wide, the above listed ground principles of social action equally apply to violence and crime prevention in modern societies. As far as counter-trafficking is concerned, of the above listed range of interlocking principles, *community participation strikes out as one of most and urgently needed avenue for social action*. As community development, in general, drawn on existing human and material resources in a community to enhance *self-help and social support, in the case of counter-trafficking*, it seems to offer, at the time being, one of most viable strategies both for early prevention and victims' protection.

A feminist perspective

If take this perspective seriously and critically, it must have little, if any, connection with the fact that the vast majority (some 90-95 per cent) of the trafficked persons in Europe are young girls and women. Rather, the importance of this perspective dwells on the historic fact that not the men, but the women became first watchful about the rise of trafficking and many other mass violence in modern societies (the bulk of which, if not all, are committed by men). On the other hand, women's care for, and understanding of the roots and lasting consequences of this particular kind of violence on family life, in particular their care for its consequences on children and the reproductive health of a society as a whole, seems to make the feminist perspective more viable and important on the whole scene of counter-trafficking than any other, mostly men-dominated, "strong-hand" law enforcement. Hence, it is no wonder that so far most of counter-trafficking programs and helping resources for victims of trafficking are created mostly by women's voluntary organizations, indeed, both on national and international levels, such as "White Ring" in Hungary, Payoke in Belgium and Holland, La Strada in Italy, Albania, Macedonia and Bulgaria, Winrock International in Ukraine, Moldova, Rumania and Russia, to name only a few. That is also the reason that

the International Organization for Migration (IOM) the most powerful intergovernmental organization that is active in this field is widely cooperating with these NGOs within the frame of its Counter Trafficking programs.

Law enforcement perspectives

It is also a known fact, that in the last one-and-half decade or so (since the mid '90s), the entire system of law enforcement in more developed parts of the world entered an era of radical changes in terms of moving away from the orthodoxy authoritarian "punitive" measures and policing of the, so called, "social order" in the direction more human strategies of care for the safety of the general public. This paradigm shift is often symbolized with the acronym "3 Ps": Prevention – Protection – Prosecution, as interlocking strategies in very diverse field and disciplines of law enforcement, from police education to care for future generations of lawyers and judges at university law schools (37).

As far as the regulation of trafficking and other illegal cross-border criminal activities is concerned, the first important push towards paradigm shift in law enforcement has arrived in 2000, in the form of the UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress, and Punish Trafficking in Person, Especially Women and Children (3-4). In the meantime, vast many important research and proposed standards were set to assist national governments to "soften" their immigration policies and criminal laws towards steadily growing masses of illegal migrants, including victims of trafficking and smuggling on domestic "black" labour market. One of the model documents created on this line, was the US' Trafficking Victims Protection Act – TVPA (Public Law 106-386), enacted in 2000, and re-authorized in 2003 by the Federal Government to set some \$200 million to continue domestic fight against human trafficking (38). The TVPA addressed three key areas:

- Prevention: public awareness and education;
- Protection: T-visa, certification, benefits and services to help victims rebuild their lives;
- Prosecution: new law reinforcement tools and efforts.

To make sure, the US's TVPA is not the only and single model act created for the cause to prevent further escalation of trafficking in humans. The impact and the challenge of the TVPA, however, is in the fact that it was one of the most important "ice-breaking" documents that mobilized both the lay and professional public to "stand up" against trafficking in a meaningful, community-based, and effective way. The agenda for social action as featured in the TVPA is clear, and viable to be applied in vast many other countries. Below, we summarized a selected number of recommendations of the TVPA document for effective law enforcement:

- Create new laws that would criminalize trafficking regarding slavery, involuntary servitude, peonage or any kind of forced labour;
- Create laws that permit prosecution where non-violet coercion used to force victims to wok in belief they would be subject of serious harm;
- Permit prosecution where victim's services compelled by confiscation of documents such as passports or birth certificates;
- Increase prison terms for all slavery violations from 10 to 20 years; add life imprisonment where violation involves death, kidnapping, or sexual abuse of victim;
- Enable victims to seek witness protection and/or other types of assistance;
- Give prosecutors and agents new tools to get legal immigration status for victims of trafficking during investigation, prosecution.

Principles for Promoting the Health Rights of Trafficked Women

- 1. The right to health of trafficked women, including the right to necessary care and treatment, is a fundamental human right.
- 2. Trafficked women have the right to be asked specific questions to determine whether they require medical assistance (physical or psychological). State authorities must fully inform women of their rights to health care, and the health service options available to them. Medical assistance must be provided to trafficked women who request it or require it, before any other action may be taken.
- 3. No legal proceedings, or other actions that are likely to negatively impact the physical security, or physical or psychological health of trafficked women should be taken by State authorities unless women's health and wellbeing can be assured.
- 4. Trafficked women, given the level of harm and mistreatment they have experienced, should be offered access to quality health care on the same basis as citizens of the country which they are in.
- 5. Trafficked women have the right to non-discriminatory, gender-appropriate health care.
- 6. In all health interventions for trafficked women, the best interests of the woman must be the primary consideration. Governments, medical professionals, public health workers, and NGOs should collaborate to ensure that necessary and appropriate medical resources, including physical health care and psychological support, are made available. Care should be provided in women's own language, whenever possible.
- 7. Trafficked women should not be subjected to mandatory medical investigation, procedures or clinical testing, including for HIV/AIDS.
- 8. Trafficked women's right to privacy and confidentiality must be respected. This includes the right to a private setting for interviews, confidential testing, treatment, and medical files, and non-disclosure of personal information.
- Trafficked women have the right to their medical and health records. In cases of deportation, removal or voluntary return, these records must be made available to women prior to their departure.
- 10. Trafficked women have the right to timely forensic examinations and medical reports to pursue cases of sexual or other violence against traffickers

APPENDIX I

Budapest Declaration

The participants of the Regional Conference on Public Health & Trafficking in Human Beings in Central, Eastern and Southeast Europe, held on 19-21 March 2003, in Budapest:

Affirming that trafficking in human beings is a violation of human rights;

Concerned that victims of trafficking in central, eastern and southeast Europe have been and continue to be exposed to a range of health-related problems, including, but not limited to, physical and psychological abuse and trauma, sexually-transmitted and other infectious and non-infectious diseases and complications, including HIV/AIDS and tuberculosis;

Recognizing that some countries in the region are currently experiencing epidemic levels in the incidence of HIV and tuberculosis, particularly drug-resistant tuberculosis;

Convinced that there is a need to address the health and public health aspects of trafficking in human beings;

Have agreed and committed themselves to the following:

Despite much effort and progress in combating trafficking in human beings both regionally and globally, more attention and resources should be dedicated to the health and public health concerns related to trafficking;

Victims of trafficking must be given access to comprehensive, sustained, gender, age and culturally appropriate health care which focuses on achieving overall physical, mental, and social well-being;

Health care should be provided by trained professionals in a secure and caring environment, in conformance with professional codes of ethics, and is subject to the principle that the victim be fully informed of the nature of care being offered, give their informed consent, and be provided with full confidentiality;

Minimum standards should be established for the health care that is offered to trafficked victims. These standards should be developed through a partnership of governments, intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations, and academic institutions, and should be based on comprehensive research and best practices;

Different stages of intervention call for different priorities in terms of the health care that is offered to victims.

During the initial rescue phase, which begins at the first point of contact between a victim and a health professional and often occurs in the country of destination and/or transit, care should focus on treatment for injury and trauma, crisis intervention, and basic health care, including counselling.

During the rehabilitation phase, which often occurs in the country of origin, care should focus on the long-term health needs and reintegration of the victim. Victims should be provided with health care which is tailored to their individual needs and circumstances.

Some examples of long-term health needs, without attempting to provide a complete and definitive list, might include counselling, follow-up care, and testing and/or treatment for sexually-transmitted infections, HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis, physical and psychological trauma, substance abuse, and other related problems.

Trafficked children and adolescents are an especially vulnerable group with special health needs. The provision of health care to this group should follow a long-term, sustained approach, and must take into consideration the possibility of long-term mental and psychosocial effects.

Moreover, the phenomenon of trafficked children and adolescents raises complex legal issues, including those relating to guardianship, that must be resolved if minimum standards for treatment and care are to be established.

In all cases, the best interests of the child must be the primary concern and motivating factor;

Shelters and rehabilitation centres play an important role in providing protection, assistance, health care, and security to victims. The operation and management of shelters and rehabilitation centres should follow a professional, standardized approach;

Specialized training programs for multi-disciplinary health teams should be developed which focus on sensitizing health professionals about the special needs of trafficked victims;

Psycho-social counselling plays a critical role in building trust, identifying the needs of the victim, gaining consent for the delivery of health care, engaging the person in setting out recovery goals, and assisting in long-term rehabilitation and empowerment;

Social, recreational, educational and vocational activities organized in shelters and rehabilitation centres play an important role in re-building self-esteem, and therefore have positive health benefits for victims;

Increased understanding is needed regarding the public health issues associated with trafficking. Non-stigmatizing and culturally-appropriate public awareness campaigns targeting at-risk groups, on both the supply and demand sides, should be implemented across the region;

Governments should take increasing responsibility for prevention, as well as the provision of security, legal rights, protection and care to trafficked victims, especially children and adolescents, by ensuring access to national health structures and institutions;

Governments, inter-governmental and non-governmental organizations should increase cooperation amongst themselves and across borders by coordinating and integrating the health care offered in destination, source and transit countries. Sharing of medical data, subject to the informed consent of the victim, and with the assurance of maximum levels of confidentiality and protection of information, is essential in ensuring continuity of care, effective case management and rehabilitation and reintegration.

The participants hereby commit themselves to the promotion and realization of the recommendations contained herein.

References

- 1. UN Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime (G.A. Res. 55/25). New York: United Nations; 2000.
- UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress, and Punish Trafficking in persons, especially women and children, supplementing the United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime. G.A. Res. 55/25, Annex II, 55 U.N. GAOR, Supp. (No. 49) at 60, U.N. Doc. A/45/49 (Vol. I). New York: United Nations; 2000.
- Anti-Slavery International. What is modern slavery? URL: <u>http://www.antislavery.org/homepage/antislavery/modern.htm</u> Last visited: 28/08/2007.
- US Department of Justice. Report on activities to combat human trafficking: Fiscal years 2001-2006. Washington, D.C.: US Department of State and Department of Social Justice. <u>http://www.usdoj.gov/crt/crime/trafficking_report_2006.pdf</u> Last visited: 29/08/2007.
- IOM (International Organization for Migration. Data and research on human trafficking. A global survey. Geneva: JOM – International Organizations for Migration; 2005.
- Brussels Declaration on Preventing and Combating Trafficking in Human Beings. The European Conference on Preventing and Combating Trafficking in Human Beings – Global Challenge for the 21st Century. Brussels: 18-20 September 2002. <u>http://www.belgium.iom.int/STOPConference</u>
- The Budapest Declaration. Regional Conference on Public Health and Trafficking in Human Beings in Central, Eastern and Southeast Europe. Budapest, Hungary: 19 – 21 March 2003. (See also as Annex I.)
- Zimmerman C, Hossain M, Yun K, Roche B, Morison L, Watts C. Stolen Smiles: A Summary Report on the Physical and Psychological Health Consequences of women and adolescents trafficked in Europe. London: London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine; 2006.
- 9. Trafficking of Women is a Health Issue. Editorial. The Lancet 2006;367(9527):1954
- Zimmerman, C., Yun, K., Shvab, I., et. al. Health risks and consequences of trafficking in women and adolescents. Findings from a European study. London: London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine ; 2003.
- 11. Bezpal'cha, R.: Prevention of domestic violence and trafficking in humans. Training manual. (Translation from the Russian and Ukrainian) Kiev: Winrock International; 2003.
- 12. Foucault, M.: Histoire de la sexualité: 1. La volunté de savoir. Paris, Gallimard; 1976.
- Ravenstein, E.: The laws of migration. Journal of the Royal Statistical Society. 48 (June 1885): 167-235; 52 (June 1889): 241-305.
- 14. Jansen, C. J. (ed.) Readings in the sociology of migration. Oxford: Pergamon Press; 1970.
- 15. Lifton, R. J.: The Protean Self. Human resilience in an age of fragmentation. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press; 1992.
- Volkan, V.D.: Individual and large-group identity: parallels in development and characteristics in stability and crisis. Croatian Medical Journal. 1999; 40(3): 458-465.

- Motus, N. : The trafficking process from the perspectives of the trafficked persons. In: Á. Baráth, P.D. Jaffé, Gy. Jakab, I. Szilárd, J. Weekers (eds.). The mental health aspects of trafficking in human beings. Budapest 2004: IOM International Organization for Migration; 2004. pp.31-45.
- 18. Zimmerman, C., Yun, K., Shvab, I., et. al. Health risks and consequences of trafficking in women and adolescents. Findings from a European study. London: London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine; 2003.
- Zimmerman C, Trafficking in women: a qualitative study to conceptualize and map health risks. Doctoral Thesis, in Public Health Policy Unit. London: London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine (LSHTM); 2005.
- 20. Zimmerman C and Watts C, The WHO ethical and safety recommendations for interviewing trafficked women. Health Policy Unit. London: London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine (LSHTM); 2003.
- 21. IOM, LSHTM. Recommendations for Reproductive and Sexual Healthcare of Trafficked Women in Ukraine: Focus on STI/RTI Care. Kiev: IOM International Organization for Migration; 2005.
- World Health Organization, Women and Sexually Transmitted Infections Fact Sheet No. 249. WHO Initiative on HIV/AIDS and Sexually Transmitted Infections (HIS) Division of AIDS and STD, WHO: Geneva. World Health Organization; 2000.
- 23. WHO Management of sexually transmitted and other reproductive tract infections a guide to essential practice. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2005.
- 24. United Nations. Department for Economic and Social Information and Policy Analysis. Population and Development: Programme of Action Adopted at the International Conference on Population and Development, Cairo, 5-13 September 1994. New York: United Nations, 1995. Par 96.
- Gorceag, V., Gorceag, L., Hotineanu, M.: Medical statistics from IOM Rehabilitation Center in Chisniau. Paper presented at IOM Conference on Counter-Trafficking,. Kiev, 19-20 March 2004.
- UNICEF. Combating Child Trafficking: Handbook for Parliamentarians. New York: Parliamentary Union and UNICEF; 2005. Available in PDF format. <u>http://www.unicef.org/publications/files/IPU_combattingchildtrafficking_GB(1)</u>. Last visited: 28/08/2007.
- Grondin, D.: "The Trafficked Children and Associated Health Issues", Regional Conference on Public Health and Trafficking in Human Beings in Central, Eastern and South-eastern Europe, Budapest, Hungary, March 18-20, 2003.
- Convention on the Rights of the Child (Adopted and opened for signature, ratification and accession by General Assembly resolution 44/25 of 20 November 1989, entry into force September 1990), Article 3 and 24. http:// www.unhchr.ch/html/menu2/6/crc/treaties/crc.htm
- 29. Article 2 International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights Adopted and opened for signature, ratification and accession by General Assembly resolution 2200A (XXI) of 16 December 1966, entry into force 3 January 1976, in accordance with article 27
- Lipson, J. G., et al.: Promoting cultural competence in and through nursing education: A critical review and comprehensive plan for action. Washington, D.C. American Academy of Nursing; 1995.
- 31. Summerfield, D.: A critique of seven assumptions behind psychological trauma programmes in war-affected areas. Social Science & Medicine 42, 1999: 1465-1471.
- U.S. Department of State. Trafficking in Persons Reports 2002 2007. Washington D.C. U.S. Department of State. Under Secretary for Democracy and Global Affairs – Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons. <u>http://www.state.gov/g/tip/rls/tiprpt/</u> Last visited /29/08/2007.
- 33. Iselin, B.: Fatally flawed. Towards a new paradigm in law enforcement to tackle human trafficking. The Human Rights Challenge of Globalization in Asia Pacific: Us Trafficking in Persons Especially Women and Children. Honolulu: November 13-15, 2002. Conference presentation.
- 34. Baráth, Á., Jaffé, P. D., Jakab, Gy., Szilárd, I., Weekers, J. (eds.): The mental health aspects of trafficking in human beings. Training manual. Budapest 2004: IOM International Organization for Migration.
- Baráth, Á., Jaffé, P. D., Jakab, Gy., Szilárd, I., Weekers, J. (eds.). The mental health aspects of trafficking in human beings: A set of Minimum Standards of Care. Budapest 2005: IOM - International Organization for Migration.
- WHO. Ottawa Charter for Health Promotion, 1986. Geneva: World Health Organization; 1986. <u>http://.euro.</u> who.int/AboutWHO/Policy/20010827_2 Last visited: 29/08/2007.
- 37. Butchard, A., Phinney, A., Check, P., Villaveces, A.: Preventing violence: A guide to implementing. Geneva: World Health Organization. Department of Injuries and Violence Prevention.2004
- U.S. Department Health and Human Services. Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000. Fact Sheet. <u>http://acf. hhs.gov/trafficking/about/TVPA_2000.pdf</u> Last visited: 29/08/2007.