

| ISSN: 2395-7852 | <u>www.ijarasem.com</u> | Peer Reviewed & Referred Journal |

| Volume 3, Issue 5, September 2016 |

# Human Trafficking -An Anti Social Act

## Dr. Harish Gujrati

Assistant Professor, Sociology, SD Govt. College, Beawar, Rajasthan, India

**ABSTRACT:** Human trafficking is the trade of humans for the purpose of forced labour, sexual slavery, or commercial sexual exploitation.<sup>[1]</sup> Human trafficking can occur within a country or trans-nationally. It is distinct from people smuggling, which is characterized by the consent of the person being smuggled.

Human trafficking is condemned as a violation of human rights by international conventions, but legal protection varies globally. The practice has millions of victims around the world.

KEYWORDS: human trafficking, forced labour, sexual slavery, anti-social, smuggled, victims, exploitation

### **I.INTRODUCTION**

Human trafficking is the third largest crime industry in the world, behind drug dealing and arms trafficking, and is the fastest-growing activity of trans-national criminal organizations.<sup>[11][12][13]</sup>

In January 2013, UNODC published the new edition of the Global Report on Trafficking in Persons.<sup>[14]</sup> The Global Report on Trafficking in Persons 2014 has revealed that 30 per cent of all victims of human trafficking officially detected globally between 2015 and 2014 are children, up 3 per cent from the period 2007–2010. The Global Report recorded victims of 137 different nationalities detected in 142 countries between 2012 and 2015, during which period, 500 different flows were identified. Around half of all trafficking took place within the same region with 42 per cent occurring within national borders. One exception is the Middle East, where most detected victims are East and South Asians. Trafficking victims from East Asia have been detected in more than 64 countries, making them the most geographically dispersed group around the world. There are significant regional differences in the detected forms of exploitation. Countries in Africa and in Asia generally intercept more cases of trafficking for forced labour, while sexual exploitation is somewhat more frequently found in Europe and in the Americas. Additionally, trafficking for organ removal was detected in 16 countries around the world. The Report raises concerns about low conviction rates – 16 per cent of reporting countries did not record a single conviction for trafficking in persons between 2007 and 2010.<sup>[15]</sup>

Trafficking of children involves the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring, or receipt of children for the purpose of exploitation. Commercial sexual exploitation of children can take many forms, including forcing a child into prostitution<sup>[28][29]</sup> or other forms of sexual activity or child pornography. Child exploitation may also involve forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude, the removal of organs,<sup>[30]</sup> illicit international adoption, trafficking for early marriage, recruitment as child soldiers, for use in begging or as athletes (such as child camel jockeys<sup>[31]</sup> or football trafficking.)<sup>[32]</sup>

Child labour is a form of work that may be hazardous to the physical, mental, spiritual, moral, or social development of children and can interfere with their education. According to the International Labour Organization, the global number of children involved in child labour fell during the twelve years to 2012 – it has declined by one third, from 246 million in 2000 to 168 million children in 2012.<sup>[33]</sup> Sub-Saharan Africa is the region with the highest incidence of child labour, while the largest numbers of child-workers are found in Asia and the Pacific.<sup>[33]</sup>

IOM statistics indicate that a significant minority (35%) of trafficked persons it assisted in 2011 were less than 18 years of age, which is roughly consistent with estimates from previous years. It was reported in 2010 that Thailand and Brazil were considered to have the worst child sex trafficking records.<sup>[34]</sup>

Traffickers in children may take advantage of the parents' extreme poverty. Parents may sell children to traffickers in order to pay off debts or gain income, or they may be deceived concerning the prospects of training and a better life for their children. They may sell their children into labour, sex trafficking, or illegal adoptions, although scholars have urged a nuanced understanding and approach to the issue - one that looks at broader socio-economic and political contexts.<sup>[35][36][37]</sup>



| ISSN: 2395-7852 | <u>www.ijarasem.com</u> | Peer Reviewed & Referred Journal |

# | Volume 3, Issue 5, September 2016 |

The adoption process, legal and illegal, when abused can sometimes result in cases of trafficking of babies and pregnant women around the world.<sup>[38]</sup> In David M. Smolin's 2005 papers on child trafficking and adoption scandals between India and the United States,<sup>[39][40]</sup> he presents the systemic vulnerabilities in the inter-country adoption system that makes adoption scandals predictable.

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child at Article 34, states, "States Parties undertake to protect the child from all forms of sexual exploitation and sexual abuse".<sup>[41]</sup> In the European Union, commercial sexual exploitation of children is subject to a directive – Directive 2011/92/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 13 December 2011 on combating the sexual abuse and sexual exploitation of children and child pornography.<sup>[42]</sup>

The Hague Convention on Protection of Children and Co-operation in Respect of Intercountry Adoption (or Hague Adoption Convention) is an international convention dealing with international adoption, that aims at preventing child laundering, child trafficking, and other abuses related to international adoption.<sup>[43]</sup>

The Optional Protocol on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict seeks to prevent forceful recruitment (e.g. by guerrilla forces) of children for use in armed conflicts.<sup>[44]</sup>

The International Labour Organization claims that forced labour in the sex industry affects 4.5 million people worldwide.<sup>[45]</sup> Most victims find themselves in coercive or abusive situations from which escape is both difficult and dangerous.<sup>[46]</sup>

Trafficking for sexual exploitation was formerly thought of as the organized movement of people, usually women, between countries and within countries for sex work with the use of physical coercion, deception and bondage through forced debt. However, the Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000 (US)<sup>[47]</sup> does not require movement for the offence. The issue becomes contentious when the element of coercion is removed from the definition to incorporate facilitation of consensual involvement in prostitution. For example, in the United Kingdom, the Sexual Offences Act 2003 incorporated trafficking for sexual exploitation but did not require those committing the offence to use coercion, deception or force, so that it also includes any person who enters the UK to carry out sex work with consent as having been "trafficked".<sup>[48]</sup> In addition, any minor involved in a commercial sex act in the US while under the age of 18 qualifies as a trafficking victim, even if no force, fraud or coercion is involved, under the definition of "Severe Forms of Trafficking in Persons" in the US Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000.<sup>[47]</sup>

Trafficked women and children are often promised work in the domestic or service industry, but instead are sometimes taken to brothels where they are required to undertake sex work, while their passports and other identification papers are confiscated. They may be beaten or locked up and promised their freedom only after earning – through prostitution – their purchase price, as well as their travel and visa costs.<sup>[50][51]</sup>

A forced marriage is a marriage where one or both participants are married without their freely given consent.<sup>[52]</sup> Servile marriage is defined as a marriage involving a person being sold, transferred or inherited into that marriage.<sup>[53]</sup> According to ECPAT, "Child trafficking for forced marriage is simply another manifestation of trafficking and is not restricted to particular nationalities or countries".<sup>[22]</sup> Labour trafficking is the movement of persons for the purpose of forced labour and services.<sup>[57]</sup> It may involve bonded labour, involuntary servitude, domestic servitude, and child labour.<sup>[57]</sup> Labour within domain trafficking happens often the of domestic most work, agriculture, construction, manufacturing and entertainment; and migrant workers and indigenous people are especially at risk of becoming victims.<sup>[45]</sup> People smuggling is a related practice which is characterized by the consent of the person being smuggled.<sup>[58]</sup> Smuggling situations can descend into human trafficking through coercion and exploitation.<sup>[59]</sup> They are known to traffic people for the exploitation of their labour, for example, as transporters.<sup>[60]</sup>

Bonded labour, or debt bondage, is probably the least known form of labour trafficking today, and yet is the most widely used method of enslaving people. Victims become "bonded" when their labour, the labour which they themselves hired and the tangible goods they have bought are demanded as a means of repayment for a loan or service whose terms and conditions have not been defined, or where the value of the victims' services is not applied toward the liquidation of the debt. Generally, the value of their work is greater than the original sum of money "borrowed".<sup>[61]</sup>

Forced labour is a situation in which people are forced to work against their will under the threat of violence or some other form of punishment; their freedom is restricted and a degree of ownership is exerted. Men and women are at risk of being trafficked for unskilled work, which globally generates US\$31 billion according to the International Labour Organization.<sup>[62]</sup> Forms of forced labour can include domestic servitude, agricultural labour, sweatshop factory labour, janitorial, food service and other service industry labour, and begging.<sup>[61]</sup> Some of the products that can be produced by forced labour are: clothing, cocoa, bricks, coffee, cotton, and gold.<sup>[63]</sup>



| ISSN: 2395-7852 | <u>www.ijarasem.com</u> | Peer Reviewed & Referred Journal |

| Volume 3, Issue 5, September 2016 |

## **II.DISCUSSION**

Trafficking in organs is a form of human trafficking. It can take different forms. In some cases, the victim is compelled into giving up an organ. In other cases, the victim agrees to sell an organ in exchange of money/goods, but is not paid (or paid less). Finally, the victim may have the organ removed without the victim's knowledge (usually when the victim is treated for another medical problem/illness – real or orchestrated problem/illness). Migrant workers, homeless persons, and illiterate persons are particularly vulnerable to this form of exploitation. Trafficking of organs is an organized crime, involving several offenders:<sup>[64]</sup>

- the recruiter
- the transporter
- the medical staff
- the middlemen/contractors
- the buyers

Trafficking for organ trade often seeks kidneys. Trafficking in organs is a lucrative trade because in many countries the waiting lists for patients who need transplants are very long.<sup>[65]</sup> Some solutions have been proposed to help counter it.

Most fraud factories operate in Southeast Asia (including Cambodia, Myanmar, or Laos), and are typically run by a Chinese criminal gang. Fraud factory operators lure foreign nationals to scam hubs, where they are forced to scam internet users around the world into fraudulently buying cryptocurrencies or withdrawing cash, via social media and online dating apps. Trafficking victims' passports are confiscated, and they are threatened with organ theft, organ harvesting or forced prostitution if they do not scam sufficiently successfully. Abolitionists who seek an end to sex trafficking explain the nature of sex trafficking as an economic supply and demand model. In this model, male demand for prostitutes leads to a market of sex work, which, in turn, fosters sex trafficking, the illegal trade and coercion of people into sex work, and pimps and traffickers become 'distributors' who supply people to be sexually exploited. The demand for sex trafficking can also be facilitated by some pimps' and traffickers' desire for women whom they can exploit as workers because they do not require wages, safe working circumstances, and agency in choosing customers.<sup>[66]</sup> The link between demand for paid sex and incidences of human trafficking, as well as the "demand for trafficking" discourse more broadly, have never been proven empirically and have been seriously questioned by a number of scholars and organisations.<sup>[87][88][89][90]</sup> To this day, the idea that trafficking is fuelled by demand remains poorly conceptualised and based on assumptions rather than evidence. Human trafficking victims face threats of violence from many sources, including customers, pimps, brothel owners, madams, traffickers, and corrupt local law enforcement officials and even from family members who do not want to have any link with them.<sup>[93]</sup> Because of their potentially complicated legal status and their potential language barriers, the arrest or fear of arrest creates stress and other emotional trauma for trafficking victims.<sup>[94][95]</sup> The challenges facing victims often continue after their removal from coercive exploitation.<sup>[96]</sup> In addition to coping with their past traumatic experiences, former trafficking victims often experience social alienation in the host and home countries. Stigmatization, social exclusion, and intolerance often make it difficult for former victims to integrate into their host community, or to reintegrate into their former community. Accordingly, one of the central aims of protection assistance, is the promotion of reintegration.<sup>[97][98]</sup> Too often however. governments and large institutional donors offer little funding to support the provision of assistance and social services to former trafficking victims.<sup>[99]</sup> As the victims are also pushed into drug trafficking, many of them face criminal sanctions also.<sup>[100]</sup> Human trafficking victims may experience complex trauma as a result of repeated cases of intimate relationship trauma over long periods of time including, but not limited to, sexual abuse, domestic violence, forced prostitution, or gang rape. Complex trauma involves multifaceted conditions of depression, anxiety, self-hatred, dissociation, substance abuse, self-destructive behaviors, medical and somatic concerns, despair, and revictimization. Psychology researchers report that, although similar to post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), complex trauma is more expansive in diagnosis because of the effects of prolonged trauma.<sup>[108]</sup>

Victims of sex trafficking often get "branded"<sup>[109]</sup> by their traffickers or pimps. These tattoos usually consist of bar codes or the trafficker's name or rules. Even if a victim escapes their trafficker's control or gets rescued, these tattoos are painful reminders of their past and result in emotional distress. Removing or covering these tattoos can cost hundreds of dollars.<sup>[110][111]</sup>

Psychological reviews have shown that the chronic stress experienced by many victims of human trafficking can compromise the immune system.<sup>[102]</sup> Several studies found that chronic stressors (like trauma or loss) suppressed cellular and humoral immunity.<sup>[105]</sup> Victims may develop sexually transmitted infections and HIV/AIDS.<sup>[112]</sup> Perpetrators frequently use substance abuse as a means to control their victims, which leads to compromised health, self-destructive



## | ISSN: 2395-7852 | <u>www.ijarasem.com</u> | Peer Reviewed & Referred Journal |

# | Volume 3, Issue 5, September 2016 |

behavior, and long-term physical harm.<sup>[113]</sup> Furthermore, victims have reported treatment similar to torture, where their bodies are broken and beaten into submission.<sup>[113][114]</sup>

Children are especially vulnerable to these developmental and psychological consequences of trafficking due to their age. In order to gain complete control of the child, traffickers often destroy the physical and mental health of the children through persistent physical and emotional abuse.<sup>[115]</sup> Victims experience severe trauma on a daily basis that devastates the healthy development of self-concept, self-worth, biological integrity, and cognitive functioning.<sup>[116]</sup> Children who grow up in environments of constant exploitation frequently exhibit antisocial behavior, over-sexualized behavior, self-harm, aggression, distrust of adults, dissociative disorders, substance abuse, complex trauma, and attention deficit disorders.<sup>[104][115][116][117]</sup> Stockholm syndrome is also a common problem for trafficked girls, which can hinder them from both trying to escape, and moving forward in psychological recovery programs.<sup>[114]</sup>

Although 98% of the sex trade is composed of women and girls,<sup>[114]</sup> there is an effort to gather empirical evidence about the psychological impact of abuse common in sex trafficking upon young boys.<sup>[116][118]</sup> Boys often will experience forms of post-traumatic stress disorder, but also additional stressors of social stigma of homosexuality associated with sexual abuse for boys, and externalization of blame, increased anger, and desire for revenge.

#### **III.RESULTS**

Sex trafficking increases the risk of contracting HIV/AIDS.<sup>[120]</sup> The HIV/AIDS pandemic can be both a cause and a consequence of sex trafficking. On one hand, children are sought by customers because they are perceived as being less likely to be HIV positive, and this demand leads to child sex trafficking. On the other hand, trafficking leads to the proliferation of HIV, because victims cannot protect themselves properly and get infected.<sup>[121]</sup> In India, the trafficking in persons for commercial sexual exploitation, forced labour, forced marriages and domestic servitude is considered an organized crime. The Government of India applies the Criminal Law (Amendment) Act 2013, active from 3 February 2013, as well as Section 370 and 370A IPC, which defines human trafficking and "provides stringent punishment for human trafficking; trafficking of children for exploitation in any form including physical exploitation; or any form of sexual exploitation, slavery, servitude or the forced removal of organs." Additionally, a Regional Task Force implements the SAARC Convention on the prevention of Trafficking in Women and Children.<sup>[166]</sup>

Shri R.P.N. Singh, India's Minister of State for Home Affairs, launched a government web portal, the Anti Human Trafficking Portal, on 20 February 2014. The official statement explained that the objective of the on-line resource is for the "sharing of information across all stakeholders, States/UTs [Union Territories] and civil society organizations for effective implementation of Anti Human Trafficking measures."<sup>[166]</sup> The key aims of the portal are:

- Aid in the tracking of cases with inter-state ramifications.
- Provide comprehensive information on legislation, statistics, court judgements, United Nations Conventions, details of trafficked people and traffickers and rescue success stories.
- Provide connection to "Trackchild", the National Portal on Missing Children that is operational in many states.<sup>[166]</sup>

Also on 20 February, the Indian government announced the implementation of a Comprehensive Scheme that involves the establishment of Integrated Anti Human Trafficking Units (AHTUs) in 335 vulnerable police districts throughout India, as well as capacity building that includes training for police, prosecutors and judiciary. As of the announcement, 225 Integrated AHTUs had been made operational, while 100 more AHTUs were proposed for the forthcoming financial year.<sup>[166]</sup>

In the U.S., services and protections for trafficked victims are related to cooperation with law enforcement. Legal procedures that involve prosecution and specifically, raids, are thus the most common anti-trafficking measures. Raids are conducted by law enforcement and by private actors and many organizations (sometimes in cooperation with law enforcement). Law enforcement perceive some benefits from raids, including the ability to locate and identify witnesses for legal processes, to dismantle "criminal networks", and to rescue victims from abuse.<sup>[94]</sup>

The problems against anti-trafficking raids are related to the problem of the trafficking concept itself, as raids' purpose of fighting sex trafficking may be conflated with fighting prostitution. The Trafficking Victims Protection Re-authorization Act of 2005 (TVPRA) gives state and local law enforcement funding to prosecute customers of commercial sex, therefore some law enforcement agencies make no distinction between prostitution and sex trafficking. One study interviewed women who have experienced law enforcement operations as sex workers and found that during these raids meant to combat human trafficking, none of the women were ever identified as trafficking victims, and only one woman was asked whether she was coerced into sex work. The conflation of trafficking with prostitution, then, does not serve to



| ISSN: 2395-7852 | www.ijarasem.com | Peer Reviewed & Referred Journal |

# | Volume 3, Issue 5, September 2016 |

adequately identify trafficking and help the victims. Raids are also problematic in that the women involved were most likely unclear about who was conducting the raid, what the purpose of the raid was, and what the outcomes of the raid would be.<sup>[94][197]</sup> Another study found that the majority of women "rescued" in anti-trafficking raids, both voluntary and coerced sex workers, eventually returned to sex work but had amassed huge amounts of debt for legal fees and other costs while they were in detention after the raid and were, overall, in a worse situation than before the raid.<sup>[198]</sup>

Law enforcement personnel agree that raids can intimidate trafficked persons and render subsequent law enforcement actions unsuccessful. Social workers and attorneys involved in anti-sex trafficking have negative opinions about raids. Service providers report a lack of uniform procedure for identifying trafficking victims after raids. The 26 interviewed service providers stated that local police never referred trafficked persons to them after raids. Law enforcement also often use interrogation methods that intimidate rather than assist potential trafficking victims. Additionally, sex workers sometimes face violence from the police during raids and arrests and in rehabilitation centers.<sup>[94]</sup>

As raids occur to brothels that may house sex workers as well as sex trafficked victims, raids affect sex workers in general. As clients avoid brothel areas that are raided but do not stop paying for sex, voluntary sex workers will have to interact with customers underground. Underground interactions means that sex workers take greater risks, where as otherwise they would be cooperating with other sex workers and with sex worker organizations to report violence and protect each other. One example of this is with HIV prevention. Sex workers collectives monitor condom use, promote HIV testing, and cares for and monitor the health of HIV positive sex workers. Raids disrupt communal HIV care and prevention efforts, and if HIV positive sex workers are rescued and removed from their community, their treatments are disrupted, furthering the spread of AIDS.<sup>[199]</sup>

Scholars Aziza Ahmed and Meena Seshu suggest reforms in law enforcement procedures so that raids are last resort, not violent, and are transparent in its purposes and processes. Furthermore, they suggest that since any trafficking victims will probably be in contact with other sex workers first, working with sex workers may be an alternative to the raid and rescue model.<sup>[200]</sup>

There are different feminist perspectives on sex trafficking. The third-wave feminist perspective of sex trafficking seeks to harmonize the dominant and liberal feminist views of sex trafficking. The dominant feminist view focuses on "sexualized domination", which includes issues of pornography, female sex labor in a patriarchal world, rape, and sexual harassment. Dominant feminism emphasizes sex trafficking as forced prostitution and considers the act exploitative. Liberal feminism sees all agents as capable of reason and choice. Liberal feminist support sex workers' rights, and argue that women who voluntarily chose sex work are autonomous. The liberal feminist perspective finds sex trafficking problematic where it overrides consent of individuals.<sup>[204][205][206]</sup>

Third-wave feminism harmonizes the thoughts that while individuals have rights, overarching inequalities hinder women's capabilities. Third-wave feminism also considers that women who are trafficked and face oppression do not all face the same kinds of oppression. For example, third-wave feminist proponent Shelley Cavalieri identifies oppression and privilege in the intersections of race, class, and gender. Women from low socioeconomic class, generally from the Global South, face inequalities that differ from those of other sex trafficking victims. Therefore, it advocates for catering to individual trafficking victim because sex trafficking is not monolithic, and therefore there is not a one-size-fits-all intervention. This also means allowing individual victims to tell their unique experiences rather than essentializing all trafficking experiences. Lastly, third-wave feminism promotes increasing women's agency both generally and individually, so that they have the opportunity to act on their own behalf.<sup>[204][205][206]</sup>

Third-wave feminist perspective of sex trafficking is loosely related to Amartya Sen's and Martha Nussbaum's visions of the human capabilities approach to development. It advocates for creating viable alternatives for sex trafficking victims. Nussbaum articulated four concepts to increase trafficking victims' capabilities: education for victims and their children, microcredit and increased employment options, labor unions for low-income women in general, and social groups that connect women to one another.<sup>[205]</sup>

The clash between the different feminist perspectives on trafficking and sex work was especially evident at the negotiations of the Palermo Protocol. One feminist group, led by the Global Alliance Against Traffic in Women, saw trafficking as the result of globalisation and restrictive labour migration policies, with force, fraud and coercion as its defining features. The other feminist group, led by the Coalition Against Trafficking in Women saw trafficking more narrowly as the result of men's demand for paid sex. Both groups tried to influence the definition of trafficking and other provisions in the Protocol. Eventually, both were only partially successful;<sup>[207][208]</sup> however, scholars have noted that this rift between feminist organisations led to the extremely weak and voluntary victim protection provisions of the Protocol.<sup>[209]</sup>



| ISSN: 2395-7852 | <u>www.ijarasem.com</u> | Peer Reviewed & Referred Journal |

# | Volume 3, Issue 5, September 2016 |

## **IV.CONCLUSIONS**

According to modern feminists, women and girls are more prone to trafficking also because of social norms that marginalize their value and status in society. By this perspective females face considerable gender discrimination both at home and in school. Stereotypes that women belong at home in the private sphere and that women are less valuable because they do not and are not allowed to contribute to formal employment and monetary gains the same way men do further marginalize women's status relative to men. Some religious beliefs also lead people to believe that the birth of girls are a result of bad karma,<sup>[210][211]</sup> further cementing the belief that girls are not as valuable as boys. It is generally regarded by feminists that various social norms contribute to women's inferior position and lack of agency and knowledge, thus making them vulnerable to exploitation such as sex trafficking.<sup>[212]</sup>

### REFERENCES

- 1. "UNODC on human trafficking and migrant smuggling". United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. 2011. Retrieved 22 March 2011.
- 2. ^ "UNTC". un.org. Archived from the original on 1 August 2013. Retrieved 2 December 2015.
- 3. ^ "United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime And The Protocols Thereto" (PDF). Retrieved 21 January 2012.
- 4. ^ Bales, Kevin. Disposable People : New Slavery In The Global Economy / Kevin Bales. n.p.: Berkeley, Calif. : University of California Press, c2004., 2004.
- ^ "Top 10 Facts About Modern Slavery". Free the Slaves. Archived from the original on 21 June 2010. Retrieved 8 December 2010.
- 6. ^ U.S. Department of State, Trafficking in Persons Report, 8th ed. (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of State, 2008), 7.
- <sup>^</sup> Smith, Heather M. "Sex trafficking: trends, challenges, and the limitations of international law." Human rights review 12.3 (2011): 271–286.
- <sup>A</sup> Special Action Programme to Combat Forced Labour (20 May 2014). "Profits and poverty: The economics of forced labour" (PDF). International Labour Organization. p. 4. Archived from the original (PDF) on 13 October 2014. Retrieved 24 October 2015.
- "21 million people are now victims of forced labour, ILO says". International Labour Organization. 1 June 2012. Retrieved 24 October 2015.
- 10. ^ "Human Trafficking by the Numbers". Human Rights First. Archived from the original on 7 May 2013. Retrieved 12 January 2013.
- 11. ^ Louise Shelley (2010). Human Trafficking: A Global Perspective. Cambridge University Press. p. 2. ISBN 978-1-139-48977-5.
- 12. ^ "The trafficking of children for sexual purposes: One of the worst manifestations of this crime". ecpat.org. 6 August 2014.
- 13. ^ "HUMAN TRAFFICKING: A GLOBAL ENTERPRISE". freeforlifeintl.org. 31 July 2013.
- 14. ^ "Global report on trafficking in persons". unodc.org. Retrieved 8 January 2013.
- 15. ^ "Global report on trafficking in persons". Unodc.org. Retrieved 8 January 2013.
- 16. ^ WomanStats Maps, Woman Stats Project.
- 17. ^ Trafficking In Persons Report June 2013 (PDF) (Report). U.S. State Department.
- 18. ^ "The Worst Countries For Human Trafficking". RadioFreeEurope/RadioLiberty.
- 19. ^ "Human trafficking, modern-day slavery". Miami Herald.
- 20. ^ Department Of State. The Office of Electronic Information, Bureau of Public Affairs (10 June 2008). "Country Narratives -- Countries S through Z". 2001-2009.state.gov.
- 21. ^ "Singapore vows 'strong' action on labor trafficking after first conviction". Reuters. 19 November 2013.
- 22. ^ "Child Trafficking for Forced Marriage" (PDF). Archived from the original (PDF) on 18 July 2013.
- 23. ^ "Slovakian 'slave' trafficked to Burnley for marriage". BBC News. 9 October 2013.
- 24. ^ "MARRIAGE IN FORM, TRAFFICKING IN CONTENT: Non consensual Bride Kidnapping in Contemporary Kyrgyzstan" (PDF). Archived from the original (PDF) on 15 April 2014. Retrieved 2 November 2015.
- 25. ^ "Trafficking in organs, tissues and cells and trafficking in human beings for the purpose of the removal of organs" (PDF). United Nations. 2009. Retrieved 18 January 2014.
- 26. ^ "Human trafficking for organs/tissue removal". Fightslaverynow.org. 30 May 2010. Retrieved 30 December 2012.



| ISSN: 2395-7852 | <u>www.ijarasem.com</u> | Peer Reviewed & Referred Journal |

- 27. ^ "Human trafficking for ova removal or surrogacy". Councilforresponsiblegenetics.org. 31 March 2004. Archived from the original on 3 December 2013. Retrieved 30 December 2012.
- 28. <sup>A</sup> Williams, Rachel (3 July 2008). "British-born teenagers being trafficked for sexual exploitation within UK, police say". The 8102998382. London. Retrieved 4 May 2010.
- 29. ^ Mother sold girl for sex, 7 May 2010, The Age.
- 30. ^ "Kideny Trafficking in Nepal" (PDF). Retrieved 9 October 2013.
- 31. ^ "The Facts About Children Trafficked For Use As Camel Jockeys". state.gov.
- 32. ^ "Agents in the UEFA spotlight". Archived from the original on 30 April 2009. Retrieved 5 February 2007., UEFA, 29 September 2006. (archived from the original on 30 April 2009)
- 33. ^ "Child Labour". www.ilo.org.
- 34. ^ "LatAm Brazil Child Prostitution Crisis". Libertadlatina.org. Archived from the original on 3 June 2015. Retrieved 22 March 2011.
- McCarthy, Lauren A. (30 May 2015). "Transaction Costs: Prosecuting child trafficking for illegal adoption in Russia". Anti-Trafficking Review (6): 31–47. doi:10.14197/atr.20121663.
- 36. ^ Okyere, Samuel (21 September 2014). "'Shock and awe': A critique of the Ghana-centric child trafficking discourse". Anti-Trafficking Review (9): 92–105. doi:10.14197/atr.20121797.
- 37. ^ Olayiwola, Peter (26 September 2013). "'Killing the Tree by Cutting the Foliage Instead of Uprooting It?' Rethinking awareness campaigns as a response to trafficking in South-West Nigeria". Anti-Trafficking Review (13): 50–65. doi:10.14197/atr.201219134. ISSN 2287-0113.
- 38. ^ "The Age: China sets up website to recover trafficked children: report". Melbourne: News.theage.com.au. 28 October 2009. Archived from the original on 27 April 2011. Retrieved 22 March 2011.
- 39. ^ The Two Faces of Inter-country Adoption: The Significance of the Indian Adoption Scandals at the Wayback Machine (archived 26 March 2009), Seton Hall Law Review, 35:403–493, 2005. (archived from the original on 26 March 2009)
- 40. ^ Child Laundering: How the Inter-country Adoption System Legitimizes and Incentivizes the Practices of Buying, Trafficking, Kidnapping, and Stealing Children by David M. Smolin, bepress Legal Series, Working Paper 749, 29 August 2005.
- 41. ^ "Convention on the Rights of the Child". ohchr.org.
- 42. ^ "DIRECTIVE 2011/92/EU OF THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT AND OF THE COUNCIL". Retrieved 9 October 2013.
- 43. ^ "Convention of 29 May 1993 on Protection of Children and Co-operation in Respect of Intercountry Adoption". hcch.net. (full text)
- 44. ^ "Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child". ohchr.org. Archived from the original on 2 May 2013. Retrieved 16 April 2014.
- 45. ^ "Forced labour, human trafficking and slavery". ilo.org.
- 46. ^ Siddharth Kara (2009). Sex Trafficking: Inside the Business of Modern Slavery. Columbia University Press.
- 47. ^ "Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act of 2000". State.gov. Archived from the original on 12 March 2009. Retrieved 22 March 2011.
- 48. ^ "Colla UK\_Sarah\_final" (PDF). Gaatw.net. Archived from the original (PDF) on 4 March 2011. Retrieved 22 March 2011.
- 49. ^ Chapman-Schmidt, Ben (29 April 2013). "Sex Trafficking' as Epistemic Violence". Anti-Trafficking Review (12): 172–187. doi:10.14197/atr.2012191211. ISSN 2287-0113.
- 50. ^ Migration Information Programme. Trafficking and prostitution: the growing exploitation of migrant women from central and eastern Europe. Geneva, International Organization for Migration, 1995.
- 51. <sup>^</sup> Chauzy JP. Kyrgyz Republic: trafficking. Geneva, International Organization for Migration, 20 January 2001 (Press briefing notes)
- 52. ^ "BBC Ethics Forced Marriages: Introduction". bbc.co.uk.
- 53. ^ "Forced and servile marriage in the context of human trafficking". aic.gov.au.
- 54. ^ Hackney, Laura K. (30 April 2015). "Re-evaluating Palermo: The case of Burmese women as Chinese brides". Anti-Trafficking Review (4). doi:10.14197/atr.20121546.
- 55. ^ "A Study on Forced Marriage between Cambodia and China" (PDF). United Nations Action for Cooperation against Trafficking in Persons (UN-ACT). 2015.
- 56. <sup>^</sup> Gallagher, Anne T. (30 May 2015). "Editorial: The Problems and Prospects of Trafficking Prosecutions: Ending impunity and securing justice". Anti-Trafficking Review (6): 1–11. doi:10.14197/atr.20121661.



| ISSN: 2395-7852 | <u>www.ijarasem.com</u> | Peer Reviewed & Referred Journal |

- 57. ^ "Trafficking for Forced Labour". ungift.org. Archived from the original on 4 April 2013.
- 58. ^ "Difference between Smuggling and Trafficking". Anti-trafficking.net. Archived from the original on 21 February 2013. Retrieved 30 December 2012.
- 59. ^ International Law of Migrant Smuggling, 2014, 9-10
- 60. ^ Palmer, Wayne; Missbach, Antje (6 September 2014). "Trafficking within migrant smuggling operations: Are underage transporters 'victims' or 'perpetrators'?". Asian and Pacific Migration Journal. 26 (3): 287– 307. doi:10.1177/0117196817726627. S2CID 158909571.
- 61. ^ "Labor trafficking fact sheet" (PDF). National Human Trafficking Resource Center. Archived from the original (PDF) on 27 May 2010.
- 62. ^ "A global alliance against forced labour", ILO, 11 May 2005.
- 63. ^ McCarthy, Ryan (18 December 2010). "13 Products Most Likely to Be Made By Child or Forced Labor". Huffington Post. Retrieved 8 October 2013.
- 64. ^ "Trafficking for organ trade". ungift.org. Archived from the original on 9 November 2014.
- 65. ^ "Types of human trafficking". interpol.int.
- 66. ^ Berger, Stephanie M (2012). "No End In Sight: Why The "End Demand" Movement Is The Wrong Focus For Efforts To Eliminate Human Trafficking". Harvard Journal of Law & Gender. 35 (2): 523–570.
- 67. ^ Weitzer, Ronald. "The social construction of sex trafficking: ideology and institutionalization of a moral crusade." Politics & Society 35.3 (2007): 447–475.
- 68. ^ Chuang, Janie (2006). "Beyond a snapshot: Preventing human trafficking in the global economy". Indiana Journal of Global Legal Studies. 13 (1): 137–163. doi:10.1353/gls.2006.0002.
- 69. ^ Scheper-Hughes, Nancy. "Organs Without Borders". Foreign Policy. Retrieved 22 January 2014.
- 70. ^ Fry-Revere, Sigrid (2014). The Kidney Sellers: A Journey of Discovery in Iran. Carolina Academic Press.
- 71. ^ Domestic Minor Sex Trafficking: Hearings on H.R. 5575, Before the Subcommittee on Crime, Terrorism, and Homeland Security, 111th Cong. 145 (2010) (statement of Ernie Allen, president and CEO, National Center for Missing & Exploited Children).
- 72. ^ Shared Hope International, Demand: A Comparative Examination of Sex Tourism and Trafficking in Jamaica, Japan, the Netherlands, and the United States, n.d., 5.
- 73. <sup>^</sup> Kim-Kwang Raymond Choo, "Online child grooming: A literature review on the misuse of social networking sites for grooming children for sexual offences", Australian Institute of Criminology Research and Public Policy Series 103, 2009, ii–xiv.
- 74. ^ Musto, J. L.; boyd, d. (1 September 2014). "The Trafficking-Technology Nexus". Social Politics: International Studies in Gender, State & Society. 21 (3): 461–483. doi:10.1093/sp/jxu018. ISSN 1072-4745. S2CID 145112041.
- 75. ^ "Michelle Goldberg, "The Super Bowl of Sex Trafficking", Newsweek, January 30, 2011". Newsweek.
- 76. ^ Latonero, Mark. "Human Trafficking Online: The Role of Social Networking Sites and Online Classifieds." USC Annenberg Center on Communication Leadership & Policy. Available at SSRN 2045851 (2011).
- 77. ^ Anna Merlan, "Just in Time for February, the Myth of Sex Trafficking and the Super Bowl Returns" Archived 2 February 2014 at the Wayback Machine, Village Voice Blogs, 30 January 2014.
- 78. ^ Ham, Julie (2011). "What's the Cost of a Rumour?" (PDF). Global Alliance Against Traffic in Women.
- 79. ^ Martin, Lauren; Hill, Annie (26 September 2013). "Debunking the Myth of 'Super Bowl Sex Trafficking': Media hype or evidenced-based coverage". Anti-Trafficking Review (13): 13–29. doi:10.14197/atr.201219132. ISSN 2287-0113.
- 80. Burkhalter, Holly (2012). "Sex Trafficking, Law Enforcement and Perpetrator Accountability". Anti Trafficking Review. 1: 122–133.
- 81. ^ 2015 Trafficking in Persons Report, U.S. Department of State
- 82. ^ A Victim-Centered Approach to Sex Trafficking Alvarez, Larry MS and Cañas-Moreira, Jocelyn.
- 83. ^ "Sex Workers Organising for Change: Self-representation, community mobilisation, and working conditions". Global Alliance Against Traffic in Women. 2014.
- 84. ^ Rao, Smriti, & Christina Presenti, Understanding Human Trafficking Origin: A Cross-Country Empirical Analysis, in Feminist Economics, vol. 18, no. 2 (April 2012), pp. 231–263, esp. pp. 233–234.
- 85. ^ Susan Heavey (19 June 2013). "U.S. cites Russia, China among worst in human trafficking: report". Reuters.
- 86. ^ Johanna Granville, "From Russia without Love: The 'Fourth Wave' of Global Human Trafficking", Demokratizatsiya, vol. 12, no. 1 (Winter 2004): p. 148.
- 87. <sup>A</sup> Ham, Julie (2011). "Moving Beyond 'Supply and Demand' Catchphrases: Assessing the uses and limitations of demand-based approaches in Anti-Trafficking". Global Alliance Against Traffic in Women.



| ISSN: 2395-7852 | <u>www.ijarasem.com</u> | Peer Reviewed & Referred Journal |

- 88. ^ O'Connell Davidson, Julia (2003). Is Trafficking in Human Beings Demand Driven? A Multi-Country Pilot Study. Geneva: International Organization for Migration.
- 89. ^ Pearson, Elaine. (2005). The Mekong challenge : human trafficking : redefining demand : destination factors in the trafficking of children and young women in the Mekong sub-region. International Labour Organization. (Abridged ed.). Bangkok: International Labour Organization. ISBN 92-2-117560-X. OCLC 607097783.
- 90. ^ "The Demand-Side in Anti-Trafficking: Current measures and ways forward" (PDF). International Centre for Migration Policy Development. 2014.
- 91. ^ "Trafficking in Persons Report 2015". www.state.gov. Retrieved 17 May 2014.
- 92. ^ "OHCHR Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons". www.ohchr.org. Retrieved 16 April 2014.
- 93. ^ A. Horning; et al. (2013). "Risky business: Harlem pimps' work decisions and economic returns". Deviant Behavior 41 (2), 160-185.
- 94. ^ Ditmore, Melissa; Thukral, Juhu (2012). "Accountability and the Use of Raids to Fight Trafficking". Anti-Trafficking Review (4). doi:10.14197/atr.201218.
- 95. ^ Cianciarulo, Marisa Silenzi. "Modern-Day Slavery and Cultural Bias: Proposals for Reforming the US Visa System for Victims of International Human Trafficking." Nev. LJ 7 (2006): 826.
- 96. ^ Brennan, Denise; Plambech, Sine (29 April 2014). "Editorial: Moving Forward—Life after trafficking". Anti-Trafficking Review (10). doi:10.14197/atr.201218101. ISSN 2287-0113.
- 97. ^ Bearup, Luke S (1 August 2015). "Reintegration as an Emerging Vision of Justice for Victims of Human Trafficking". International Migration. 54 (4): 164–176. doi:10.1111/imig.12248. ISSN 1468-2435.
- 98. ^ ia-forum.org. "Interview with Dr. Luke S. Bearup: Human Trafficking International Affairs Forum". www.ia-forum.org. Retrieved 23 February 2014.
- 99. ^ Surtees, Rebecca; de Kerchove, Fabrice (September 2014). "Who Funds Re/integration? Ensuring sustainable services for trafficking victims". Anti-Trafficking Review. 3 (3). doi:10.14197/atr.20121434.
- 100.^ Zheng, Tiantian, ed. Sex trafficking, human rights, and social justice. Vol. 4. Routledge, 2010.
- 101.<sup>^</sup> Hopper, E. and Hidalgo, J. (2006). Invisible chains: Psychological coercion of human trafficking victims. "Intercultural Human Rights Law, 1", 185–209.
- 102.<sup>^</sup> Wilson, B.; Butler, L. D. (2013). "Running a gauntlet: A review of victimization and violence in the pre-entry, post-entry, and peri-/post-exit periods of commercial sexual exploitation". Psychological Trauma. 6 (5): 494–504. doi:10.1037/a0032977.
- 103.^ McClain, N. M.; Garrity, S. E. (2011). "Sex trafficking and the exploitation of adolescents". Journal of Obstetric, Gynecologic, & Neonatal Nursing. 40 (2): 243–252. doi:10.1111/j.1552-6909.2011.01221.x. PMID 21284727.
- 104.^ Hardy, V. L.; Compton, K. D.; McPhatter, V. S. (2013). "Domestic minor sex trafficking: Practice implications for mental health professionals". Affilia. 28: 8–18. doi:10.1177/0886109912475172. S2CID 144127343.
- 105.<sup>^</sup> Segerstron, S. C.; Miller, G. E. (2004). "Psychological stress and the human immune system: A meta-analytic study of 30 years of inquiry". Psychological Bulletin. 130 (4): 601–630. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.130.4.601. PMC 1361287. PMID 15250815.
- 106.<sup>^</sup> Zimmerman, C., Hossain, M., Yun, K., Roche, B., Morison, L., and Watts, C. (2006). Stolen Smiles: A summary report on the physical and psychological health consequences of women and adolescents trafficked in Europe. The London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine: Daphne, 1–28.
- 107.<sup>^</sup> Hodge, D. R.; Lietz, C. A. (2007). "The international sexual trafficking of women and children: A review of the literature". Affilia. 22 (2): 163–174. doi:10.1177/0886109907299055. S2CID 145243350.
- 108.<sup>^</sup> Courtois, C. A. (2004). "Complex trauma, complex reactions: Assessment and treatment". Psychotherapy: Theory, Research, Practice, Training. 41 (4): 412–425. doi:10.1037/0033-3204.41.4.412.
- 109.<sup>^</sup> Sara Sidner (31 August 2015). "Old mark of slavery is being used on sex trafficking victims". CNN. Retrieved 18 May 2014.
- 110.^ "Ink180 » The INK 180 Story". ink180.com. Retrieved 18 May 2014.
- 111.^ "De-branding my body". BBC News. Retrieved 5 November 2013.
- 112.^ Galjic-Veljanoski, O.; Steward, D. E. (2007). "Women trafficked into prostitution: Determinants, human rights and<br/>health needs". Transcultural Psychiatry. 44 (3): 338–<br/>358. doi:10.1177/1363461507081635. PMID 17938151. S2CID 39871478.
- 113.^ Peled, E.; Parke, A. (2013). "The mothering experiences of sex-trafficked women: Between here and there". American Journal of Orthopsychiatry. 83 (4): 576–587. doi:10.1111/ajop.12046. PMID 24164529.



| ISSN: 2395-7852 | <u>www.ijarasem.com</u> | Peer Reviewed & Referred Journal |

- 114.^ Rafferty, Y (2013). "Child trafficking and commercial sexual exploitation: A review of promising prevention policies and programs". American Journal of Orthopsychiatry. 83 (4): 559–575. doi:10.1111/ajop.12056. PMID 24164528.
- 115.<sup>^ b</sup> Rafferty, Y (2008). "The impact of trafficking on children: Psychological and social policy perspectives". Child Development Perspectives. 2: 13–18. doi:10.1111/j.1750-8606.2008.00035.x.
- 116.^ Rafferty, Y (2007). "Children for sale: Child trafficking in Southeast Asia". Child Abuse Review. 16 (6): 401–422. doi:10.1002/car.1009.
- 117.<sup>^</sup> Browne, A.; Finkelhor, D. (1986). "Impact of child sexual abuse: A review of the research". Psychological Bulletin. 99 (1): 66–77. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.99.1.66. hdl:10983/681. PMID 3704036.
- 118.<sup>^</sup> Finkelhor, D (1990). "Early and long-term effects of child sexual abuse: An update". Professional Psychology: Research and Practice. 21 (5): 325–330. doi:10.1037/0735-7028.21.5.325.
- 119.^ "AIDSinfo". UNAIDS. Retrieved 4 March 2013.
- 120.^ Wirth KE, et al. (2013). "How Does Sex Trafficking Increase the Risk of HIV Infection? An Observational Study From Southern India". Am J Epidemiol. 177 (3): 232–41. doi:10.1093/aje/kws338. PMC 3626049. PMID 23324332.
- 121.^ "Human Trafficking and HIV & AIDS". santac.org. Archived from the original on 23 June 2014.
- 122.^ Grewal, Silky. "Human Trafficking: Threat To Economic Security Of A Nation". BusinessWorld.
- 123.^ "What Fuels Human Trafficking?". UNICEF USA.
- 124.^ U.N. GIFT and UNODC (2008). "An Introduction to Human Trafficking" (PDF).
- 125.^ "Trafficking in Persons: U.S. Policy and Issues for Congress". Congressional Research Service. 19 February 2013.
- 126.^ UNODC (April 2006). "Trafficking in Persons: Global Patterns" (PDF).
- 127.^ "Blue Campaign | Homeland Security". www.dhs.gov. 22 December 2014. Retrieved 18 May 2014.
- 128.^ "IOM's Buy Responsibly Campaign Arrives in the Netherlands". International Organization for Migration. Retrieved 20 December 2012.
- 129.^ "Sustainable Development Goal 5: Gender equality". UN Women. Retrieved 23 September 2013.
- 130.^ "'Responding to current challenges in trafficking in human beings' discussion in New York". inform.kz. 10 February 2015.
- 131.^ "Responsible Public Awareness Campaigns for Human Trafficking". Laboratory to Combat Human Trafficking. 13 February 2014. Retrieved 26 April 2014.
- 132.^ "Home". 24 Hour Race. Retrieved 26 April 2014.
- 133.^ "About the Blue Campaign | Homeland Security". www.dhs.gov. 24 May 2013. Retrieved 18 May 2014.
- 134.<sup>^</sup> Sharapov, Kiril; Hoff, Suzanne; Gerasimov, Borislav (26 September 2013). "Editorial: Knowledge is Power, Ignorance is Bliss: Public perceptions and responses to human trafficking". Anti-Trafficking Review (13): 1–11. doi:10.14197/atr.201219131. ISSN 2287-0113.
- 135.<sup>^</sup> Mendel, Jonathan; Sharapov, Kiril (June 2015). "Human Trafficking and Online Networks: Policy, Analysis, and Ignorance: Human Trafficking and Online Networks" (PDF). Antipode. 48 (3): 665–684. doi:10.1111/anti.12213. hdl:10547/593481.
- 136.<sup>^</sup> Kempadoo, Kamala (2 January 2015). "The Modern-Day White (Wo)Man's Burden: Trends in Anti-Trafficking and Anti-Slavery Campaigns". Journal of Human Trafficking. 1 (1): 8– 20. doi:10.1080/23322705.2015.1006120. ISSN 2332-2705. S2CID 154908845.
- 137.<sup>^</sup> Cho, Seo-Young, Axel Dreher, and Eric Neumayer. "The Spread of Anti-trafficking Policies-Evidence from a New Index." Available at SSRN 1776842 (2011).
- 138.^ "Pope Francis And Other Religious Leaders Sign Declaration Against Modern Slavery". The Huffington Post. 2 December 2014.
- 139.^ "Preventing Human Trafficking". Unodc.org. Archived from the original on 25 November 2009. Retrieved 21 January 2012.
- 140.^ "What is human-trafficking". Unodc.org. 6 March 2009. Retrieved 21 January 2012.
- 141.^ "Blue Heart Campaign Against Human Trafficking Mexico Campaign". Unodc.org. Retrieved 21 January 2012.
- 142.^ "Kanaal van UNODCHQ". YouTube. Retrieved 21 January 2012.
- 143.<sup>^</sup> Blue Heart Campaign Against Human Trafficking
- 144.^ "Demi Moore and Ashton Kutcher join Secretary-General to launch Trust Fund for victims of human trafficking". Unodc.org. 4 November 2010. Retrieved 21 January 2012.
- 145.^ "World Day against Trafficking in Persons 30 July". United Nations. Retrieved 25 April 2013.
- 146.<sup>^</sup> U.S. Department of State. Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons, n.d. Web. 1 April 2013.



| ISSN: 2395-7852 | <u>www.ijarasem.com</u> | Peer Reviewed & Referred Journal |

- 147.<sup>^</sup> Gallagher, Anne (28 July 2015). "Without trafficking, what would happen to global wealth and productivity?". The Guardian.
- 148.<sup>^</sup> Horning, A.; et al. (2014). "The Trafficking in Persons Report: a game of risk". International Journal of Comparative and Applied Criminal Justice. 38 (3): 3. doi:10.1080/01924036.2013.861355. S2CID 167966846.
- 149.^ "Trafficking in Persons Report 2013". U.S. Department of State. 2013.
- 150.^ "Combating Human Trafficking and Modern-day Slavery". Polaris Project. Archived from the original on 28 September 2013. Retrieved 12 January 2013.
- 151.^ "National Human Trafficking Resource Center | Polaris Project | Combating Human Trafficking and Modern-day Slavery". Polaris Project. Retrieved 12 January 2013.
- 152.^ "State Map | Polaris Project | Combating Human Trafficking and Modern-day Slavery". Polaris Project. 7 December 2007. Retrieved 12 January 2013.
- 153.<sup>^</sup> Smith, Holly Austin (2014). Walking Prey: How America's Youth Are Vulnerable to Sex Slavery. St. Martin's Press. p. 16. ISBN 978-1-137-43769-3.
- 154.^ "Presidential Proclamation -- National Slavery and Human Trafficking Prevention Month, 2013". whitehouse.gov. 31 December 2012.
- 155.^ "Memex". DARPA. Archived from the original on 23 April 2015. Retrieved 20 April 2015.
- 156.^ "Human Traffickers Caught on Hidden Internet". Scientific American. Retrieved 20 April 2015.
- 157.^ "Council of Europe Council of Europe Convention on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings (CETS No. 197)". Conventions.coe.int. Retrieved 21 January 2012.
- 158.^ "Full list". Treaty Office.
- 159.^ "Liste complète". coe.int.
- 160.^ "Action against Trafficking in Human Beings". coe.int.
- 161.^ "Liste complète". coe.int.
- 162.^ "Full list". Treaty Office.
- 163.^ "Council of Europe European Court of Human Rights". Retrieved 2 March 2012.
- 164.^ "Council of Europe European Court of Human Rights". Retrieved 2 March 2012.
- 165.^ "Combating Trafficking in Human Beings Secretariat Office of the Special Representative and Co-ordinator for Combating Trafficking in Human Beings". Osce.org. 3 October 2011. Retrieved 21 January 2012.
- 166.^ "Launching of Web Portal on Anti Human Trafficking". Print Release Print Press Information Bureau Government of India Ministry of Home Affairs. Government of India. 20 February 2014. Retrieved 15 December 2014.
- 167.^ "Singapore Accedes to the United Nations Trafficking in Persons Protocol". Ministry of Home Affairs. Singapore Inter-Agency Taskforce on Trafficking in Persons. Archived from the original on 3 March 2015. Retrieved 20 February 2015.
- 168.^ "2014 Trafficking in Persons Report Singapore". Refworld. United States Department of State. Retrieved 19 May 2013.
- 169.<sup>^</sup> Dumienski, Zbigniew (2011). "Critical Reflections on Anti-human Trafficking: The Case of Timor-Leste" (PDF). NTS Alert, May, Issue 2, Singapore: RSIS Centre for Non-Traditional Security (NTS) Studies for NTS-Asia.
- 170.^ Bialik, Carl, 2010, 'Suspect Estimates of Sex Trafficking at the World Cup', The Wall Street Journal, 19 June.
- 171.<sup>^</sup> US Government Accountability Office, 2006, Human Trafficking: Better Data, Strategy and Reporting Needed to Enhance U.S. Antitrafficking Efforts Abroad, Highlights of GAO-06-825 Report, Washington, DC.
- 172.^ "What's Wrong with the Global Slavery Index?". Anti-Trafficking Review (8). 27 April 2014. doi:10.14197/atr.20121786.
- 173.<sup>^</sup> Agustin, Laura, 2008, Sex at the Margins: Migration, Labour Markets and the Rescue Industry, London and New York: Zed Books.
- 174.<sup>^</sup> Feingold, David A. (2010) 'Trafficking in Numbers' in P. Andreas and K. M. Greenhill (eds) Sex, Drugs, and Body Counts (London: Cornell University Press)
- 175.^ Marchionni, D. M. (2012). "International human trafficking: An agenda-building analysis of the US and British<br/>press". International<br/>CommunicationGazette. 74 (2):145–158. doi:10.1177/1748048511432600. S2CID 143717855. (subscription required)145–145–
- 176.<sup>^</sup> O'Connell Davidson, Julia, 1960- (30 September 2015). Modern slavery : the margins of freedom. Houndmills, Basingstoke, Hampshire. ISBN 978-1-137-29727-3. OCLC 909538560.



| ISSN: 2395-7852 | <u>www.ijarasem.com</u> | Peer Reviewed & Referred Journal |

- 177.<sup>^</sup> Gülçür, Leyla; İlkkaracan, Pınar (July–August 2002). "The "Natasha" experience: Migrant sex workers from the former Soviet Union and Eastern Europe in Turkey" (PDF). Women's Studies International Forum. 25 (4): 411–421. doi:10.1016/S0277-5395(02)00278-9.
- 178.^ "Definition of Trafficking Save the Children Nepal". Archived from the original on 20 November 2007. Retrieved 11 January 2010.
- 179.^ Aradau, Claudia (March 2004). "The perverse politics of four-letter words: risk and pity in the securitisation of human trafficking". Millennium: Journal of International Studies. 33 (2): 251–277. doi:10.1177/03058298040330020101. S2CID 26554777.
- 180.<sup>A</sup> Marcus, Anthony; et al. (May 2014). "Conflict and agency among sex workers and pimps: A closer look at domestic minor sex trafficking". The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. 653 (1): 225–246. doi:10.1177/0002716214521993. S2CID 145245482.
- 181.^ Quirk, Joel; Robinson, Caroline; Thibos, Cameron (28 September 2013). "Editorial: From Exceptional Cases to Everyday Abuses: Labour exploitation in the global economy". Anti-Trafficking Review (15): 1– 19. doi:10.14197/atr.201220151. ISSN 2287-0113.
- 182.^ "Anti-trafficking measures 'not fit for purpose' and breach international law new report". Amnesty.org.uk.
- 183.<sup>^</sup> Collateral damage : the impact of anti-trafficking measures on human rights around the world. Global Alliance against Traffic in Women. Bangkok, Thailand: Global Alliance Against Traffic in Women. 2007. ISBN 9789748371924. OCLC 244286837.
- 184.^ No easy exit: migration bans affecting women from Nepal. International Labour Office. Labour Migration Branch., International Labour Office. Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work Branch. Geneva: ILO. 2015. ISBN 978-92-2-130310-7. OCLC 932422315.
- 185.^ Napier-Moore, Rebecca (2014). Protected or put in harm's way? Bans and restrictions on women's labour migration in ASEAN countries. Bangkok: International Labour Organization and UN Women. ISBN 9789221307624.
- 186.<sup>^</sup> Ham, Julie; Segrave, Marie; Pickering, Sharon (1 September 2013). "In the Eyes of the Beholder: Border enforcement, suspect travellers and trafficking victims". Anti-Trafficking Review. 2 (2): 51–66. doi:10.14197/atr.20121323.
- 187.<sup>^</sup> Stepnitz, Abigail (30 April 2015). "A Lie More Disastrous than the Truth: Asylum and the identification of trafficked women in the UK". Anti-Trafficking Review (4). doi:10.14197/atr.201216.
- 188.<sup>^</sup> Kerry Howley (26 December 2007). "The Myth of the Migrant Reason Magazine". Reason.com. Retrieved 21 January 2012.
- 189.<sup>^</sup> 'Chinese Prostitutes Resist Efforts to Rescue Them from Africa', 2011, Times LIVE, 1 January.
- 190.^ Siddharth, Kumar (23 October 2010). "Sex Workers Don't Want Rescue". Mid-day.com.
- 191.<sup>^</sup> Soderlund, Gretchen (2005). "Running from the Rescuers: New U.S. Crusades against Sex Trafficking and the Rhetoric of Abolition". NWSA Journal. 17 (3): 64–87. ISSN 1040-0656. JSTOR 4317158. S2CID 143600365.
- 192.^ "case G.T. Stewart Solicitors". 21 June 2013. Archived from the original on 7 November 2013.
- 193.^ "Courts and Tribunals Judiciary" (PDF). judiciary.gov.uk. Archived from the original (PDF) on 2 July 2013.
- 194.^ "Vietnamese trafficking victims win appeal against convictions, BBC 21 June 2013". BBC News. 21 June 2013.
- 195.^ "Trafficking victim's nightmare journey to UK drug farm, Channel 4". Channel 4 News. 21 June 2013.
- 196.<sup>^</sup> Guilbert, Kieran (16 February 2013). "Europe's rights court orders UK to compensate human trafficking victims". Reuters. Retrieved 16 February 2013.
- 197.<sup>^</sup> Hill, Annie (30 September 2015). "How to Stage a Raid: Police, media and the master narrative of trafficking". Anti-Trafficking Review (7): 39–55. doi:10.14197/atr.20121773.
- 198.^ "Raided: How anti-trafficking strategies increase sex workers' vulnerability to exploitative practices" (PDF). Sangram. 2014.
- 199.<sup>^</sup> Aziza Ahmed and Meena Seshu (June 2012). ""We Have the Right Not to Be 'rescued'..."\*: When Anti-Trafficking Programmes Undermine the Health and Well-Being of Sex Workers" (PDF). Anti Trafficking Review. Global Alliance Against Traffic in Women. 1: 149–19. Archived from the original (PDF) on 12 August 2014.
- 200.^ Ahmed, Aziza; Seshu, Meena (30 April 2015). ""We have the right not to be 'rescued'..."\*: When Anti-Trafficking Programmes Undermine the Health and Well-Being of Sex Workers". Anti-Trafficking Review (4). doi:10.14197/atr.201219. S2CID 55688730.
- 201.^ Wortley, S., Fischer, B., & Webster, C. (2002). Vice lessons: A survey of prostitution offenders enrolled in the Toronto John School Diversion Program" Canadian Journal of Criminology 3(3), 227–248: 394. Monto, Martin A. and Steve Garcia. 2001. "Recidivism Among the Customers of Female Street Prostitutes: Do Intervention Programs Help?" Western Criminology Review 3 (2). (Online)]



| ISSN: 2395-7852 | www.ijarasem.com | Peer Reviewed & Referred Journal |

- 202.^ Fischer, B.; Wortley, S.; Webster, C.; Kirst, M. (2002). "The Socio-Legal Dynamics and Implications of Diversion: The Case Study of the Toronto 'John School' for Prostitution Offenders" (PDF). Criminal Justice. 2 (4): 385–410. doi:10.1177/17488958020020040201. S2CID 143463294.
- 203.<sup>^</sup> Picarelli, John; Jonsson, Anna (June 2008). "Fostering Imagination in Fighting Trafficking: Comparing Strategies and Policies to Fight Sex Trafficking in the U.S. and Sweden" (PDF). NCJRS. Retrieved 31 July 2013.
- 204.^ Brenner, Johanna. "Selling Sexual Services: A Socialist Feminist Perspective". Europe Solidaire Sans Frontières. Système de Publication pour un Internet Partagé.
- 205.^ CAVALIERI, SHELLEY. "Between Victim And Agent: A Third-Wave Feminist Account Of Trafficking For Sex Work." Indiana Law Journal86.4 (2011): 1409–1458. Legal Collection. Web. 6 March 2013.
- 206.^ "Feminist Manifesto in Support of Sex Workers' Rights". Feminists for Sex Workers. Wordpress. Retrieved 21 April 2014.
- 207.<sup>^</sup> Wijers, Marjan (30 April 2015). "Purity, Victimhood and Agency: Fifteen years of the UN Trafficking Protocol". Anti-Trafficking Review (4). doi:10.14197/atr.20121544.
- 208.<sup>^</sup> Doezema, Jo. (2010). Sex slaves and discourse masters : the construction of trafficking. London: Zed Books. ISBN 978-1-84813-415-7. OCLC 650365532.
- 209.<sup>^</sup> Chuang, Janie A. (2010). "Rescuing Trafficking from Ideological Capture: Prostitution Reform and Anti-Trafficking Law and Policy". University of Pennsylvania Law Review. 158 (6): 1655–1728. ISSN 0041-9907. JSTOR 25682362.
- 210.^ "Born a girl: bad karma?". OECD Insights Blog. 8 March 2013. Retrieved 10 October 2013.
- 211.<sup>^</sup> Enrile, Annalisa (31 August 2014). Ending Human Trafficking and Modern-Day Slavery: Freedom's Journey. SAGE Publications. ISBN 978-1-5063-1675-8. ...are that women are born women because of their bad karma (Brown, 2000).
- 212.<sup>^</sup> Rafferty, Yvonne (2007). "Children for sale: Child trafficking in Southeast Asia". Child Abuse Review. 16 (6): 401–422. doi:10.1002/car.1009.