



**Trafficking in Women and Children in South Asia:
An Annotated Bibliography and Review of the Grey Literature**

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Search History

Articles and reports for this literature review were found through a search of databases of peer-reviewed literature (Sociological Abstracts, Medline, PsychLit, and Global Health Anthology) using combinations of the search terms India, Nepal, Bangladesh, traffi*, slave trade, sex trade, human slav*, human, women, girl, legal, law, justice, and sex slavery. This yielded a small minority of the articles in this review. The remainder of the articles, books, and reports were found through online searches (e.g. Google, Yale library search engines), and by following links from websites rich in resources on trafficking such as www.asiarc.org and www.childtrafficking.com.

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Trafficking in Women and Children in South Asia Literature Review

I. History

A few sources give brief historical overviews of trafficking. Rozario provides a broad overview of the history of prostitution in India, based on literary and sacred texts, arguing that prostitution was once more accepted than it is today (1988). In fact, trafficking was not defined as such until Western countries became alarmed by the “white slave trade”: white women migrating to Arab and Eastern countries for prostitution, starting around 1900 (GAATW, 2001).

Movement from Nepal to India has been on historical record since the East India Companies’ activities in the area, but was not large scale until the British Army starting recruiting soldiers from Nepal. This reached a high point in the 1950’s but declined again due to changing economics (Pranati 2001). Other sources that discuss the history of trafficking are Doezema, 2001; and Terre des hommes, 2003a.

II. Definition

Early twentieth century conventions defined trafficking as internal or cross-border movement for purposes of prostitution, and defined all sex work as trafficking, whether the women were in the profession voluntarily or not (GAATW, 2001). The modern definition of trafficking is defined by various organizations. Pointing out that there is no internationally agreed-upon definition of trafficking, a handbook from the Global Alliance Against Trafficking in Women (GAATW) gives some modern definitions of trafficking from the UN (even within the UN, there are multiple definitions) and from the Human Rights Standards for the Treatment of Trafficked Persons (HRS). Common elements include movement from community of origin; fraud, force, deception, or coercion; and exploitation in slavery, near-slavery, or servitude with or without pay. The modern definitions do not require that sexual exploitation be involved for it to be called trafficking, and GAATW emphasizes that movement for sexual exploitation is only one type of trafficking (GAATW 2001). Some definitions now recognize in-country trafficking, while others require cross-border movement (i.e. Thorbeck, 2002). One source addresses the “human trafficking paradigm” and argues that “human trafficking” is often inaccurately and inadequately defined. The article analyzes the inconsistencies in the definition and the paradigm (Trafficking Thematic Group 2003). Other sources that discuss the definition of trafficking are Community Action Centre (CAC) Nepal, 2001; Doezema, 2001; Terres des homes, 2003a; and UN, 2000.

III. Sex work vs. trafficking vs. migration

Due to the historical definition and overlapping natures of trafficking, sex work, and migration, there is confusion on how to delineate the three. One article emphasizes that to consider all women who engage in sex work abroad as trafficked is mistaken, and it is difficult to determine whether a person has been trafficked or not. A woman may migrate voluntarily, knowing she’ll engage in sex work, but then find the conditions and pay unacceptable. Another woman may be coerced into migrating, but then decide to stay with the work and is able to save money. Some people may see their traffickers as very expensive travel agents. The “habitual naming of sex-workers of foreign origin as sexual-slaves, debt-slaves or trafficked women is inaccurate” (p. 1) (Thorbeck 2002). Even the definition of migration can be disputed, based on “arbitrary standards of duration and distance” (Pranati 2001). Agency and “voluntariness” are important themes. See especially Bandyopadhyay, 2004. Other sources that deal with the definitions and differences are Butcher, 2003; Centre for Feminist Legal Research, undated; Doezema, 2001; GAATW, 2001; Hennink, 2004; Huntington, 2002; Network of Sex Work Projects, 2002; Onyejekwe, 2004; Pawar 2001; Pranati, 2001; Saunders,

2000; Skrobanek, 1997; Suwal, 2002; Trafficking Thematic Group, 2003; Thorbek 2002; Wilson, 2000; and Women's Feature Service, 2003.

IV. Laws and conventions; the role of governments and policy¹

The Indian constitution, Indian penal code, and state and local ordinances all prohibit trafficking and its associated abuses. The two main relevant laws in India are SITA, 1956, Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act, and its amendment the Immoral Traffic in Persons Prevention Act of 1986 (ITPPA, but also known as PITA or ITPA). Neither prohibits prostitution, but rather “commercialized vice” and “soliciting.” Human Right Watch/Asia criticizes SITA (1956) because it defined the prostitute as female (no men, no children), and punished prostitutes more than pimps. It did not criminalize the client (who could be a witness against the SW), and had a loophole that allowed madams, pimps, etc. to simply feign ignorance of the women's prostitution and escape prosecution. It also addressed only street prostitution and not brothel prostitution, which resulted in the growth of the brothel system.

ITPPA amended SITA by including men and children, and defined these offenses: brothel keeping; abetting in brothel keeping; living off brothel earnings; procuring (women for sex work?); detaining; activity in vicinity of public places; seducing or soliciting. (Many of these are quite ambiguous and seemingly leave plenty of room for police and judicial interpretation.) It could also prosecute clients if prostitution was carried out, but they received more lenient sentences than the women. ITPPA also gave police power to prevent trafficking (but did not provide details or methods), and recognized potential abuse by police. It required that female officers be present in searches of brothels, and female officers question women and girls (or at least that there be a female public service worker present). It also mandated rehabilitation homes with education and living facilities, but provided no means to build or operate them, or specifications on who would operate them, where, or how. It also provided punishments for those who exploited minors.

Other relevant Indian laws include the Bonded Labour System (Abolition) Act, and the Indian penal code article 376, which deals with purchasing and selling humans and forced/bonded labor, and sale and trafficking of minors. Rape, assault, and abduction laws could also apply to conditions in brothels. IPC article 374 deals with rape (defines only female victims, against her will, without her consent, with consent under duress or threat, with consent but incapable of understanding, or under 16). As of 1995, the Central Bureau of Investigation (CBI) agreed to take responsibility as an interstate, centralized anti-trafficking force, pending funding. It is unknown if this was implemented (the current CBI website makes no mention of trafficking), though the CBI has involved itself in some trafficking cases (for example, a US-India racket based in San Francisco in 2001).

In Nepal, civil code and various laws forbid trafficking and sales of humans, the “enticement of and separation of children under 16 from their legal guardians” (p79), pimping and solicitation, and intercourse with a child under 14, sexual exploitation of a child, and sale of girls for religious offerings.

A UN Special Rapporteur found that “Despite the abundance of legislation aimed at preventing trafficking and other forms of slavery, neither India nor Nepal has adequately enforced existing laws, investigated reports of official complicity in the trafficking industry or prosecuted officials found profiting from the trade. The apparent apathy on the part of both governments, the highly organized

¹ Human Rights Watch/Asia goes into detail about all of the laws in India and Nepal that apply to trafficking and sex work (1995).

nature of trafficking networks which include influential government officials, and the temptation of easy money makes police corruption virtually inevitable” (p. 82-83) (Human Rights Watch/Asia, 1995).

Sources that contribute to the discussion and debates on law and (il)legal aspects of trafficking and policy include Aengst, 2001; Ashok 2003; Asia Foundation, undated; Asia Foundation/Population Council, 2000 and 2001c; ASMITA, 1998; Bandyopadhyay, 2004; Beyrer, 2003; Brown, 2000; Center for Legal Research and Resource Development, 2002; CEDA, 2003; Centre for Feminist Legal Research, 2004b; Doezema 2001; Free the Slaves 2005; GAATW, 2001; Huntington 2002; Indian Social Institute, 1998; ILO, 2001; ILO, 1998; Kapur, 2005; The Lawyers Collective, 2003; Network of Sex Work Projects, 2002; Onyejekwe, 2004; Oxfam GB Nepal Programme, 2004; Pawar, 1991; Pranati, 2004; Ramanathan, 2001; Rao, 1996; Saunders, 2000; Sen, 2003; Shakti Vahini, 2004; Sleightholme, 1997; TdH 2003a; TdH, 2003b; TdH Germany, 2001; The Protection Project, 2002a; The Protection Project, 2002b; Thorbek, 2002; United Nations Development Program, 2003; Wilson, 2000; and Zimmerman 2004.

Some web resources that discuss law, conventions, and policy include:

- IPEC Information Resource Centre. www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/publ/
- Center for Feminist Legal Research. www.cflr.org/
- International Labour Organization. www.ilo.org/public/english/
- University of Minnesota Human Rights Library, <http://www1.umn.edu/humanrts/index.html>
- Women Engaging Globally, <http://www.wedo.org/files/trafficking.pdf>
- Council of Europe, http://www.coe.int/T/E/human_rights/trafficking/PDF_Conv_197_Trafficking_E.pdf
- Global Rights, Resources and Contacts of Human Trafficking, <http://www.globalrights.org/site/DocServer?docID=643>
- Legislation Online, <http://www.legislationline.org/?tid=178>

V. Law enforcement

Law enforcement with regards to trafficking in South Asia is reportedly poor, and according to some sources, officers are often corrupt and even complicit in trafficking. Border officials take bribes from traffickers; police accept bribes from brothel owners; police and judges make arrangements to “register” brothel workers by falsifying legal documents to establish age of majority for a fee; police accept bribes to ignore the presence of workers; police make arrests and raids in order to get bribes; police are sometimes clients or demand sex for no pay; and in some cases, police are even known to traffic women and children. Brothel owners have developed ways of dealing with the police force, such as befriending and bribing police; moving or hiding girls in attics, boxes, etc. during raids for which they had advance notice; bailing workers out of jail; and forcing workers to change their names and stories to avoid repeat-offender charges (see Sen, 2000; Human Right Watch/Asia, 1995; Rozario, 1988, as well as references below). Evading arrest multiple times and brothel owners bailing women out of jail were more common in Andhra Pradesh than other states, for unknown reasons (Sen 2000). Women are also subject to human rights abuses and sexual exploitation in the process of arrest and rescue. According to Sen’s survey of women already out of trafficked situations (debt-bondage in brothels), arrests through raids were common (almost 60% had been arrested before), with soliciting being a common charge (39%). Forty percent of arrestees had been bailed out by brothel-owners, with the cost of bail being added to their debt to the brothel. See Ashok 2003; Bandyopadhyay, 2004; Butcher, 2003; Free the Slaves, 2005; GAATW, 2005; Human Right Watch/Asia, 1995; ILO 2002a; Jayarsee, 2004; Network of Sex Work Projects, 2002; Pranati,

2004; Rozario, 1988; Sen, 2000; Sleightholme, 1997; Thorbek, 2002; WHO 2003; and Zimmerman 2004.

VI. Human rights

It is usually people and organizations that promote decriminalization, empowerment, and defining sex work as labor that take a “human rights approach,” often coupled with the public health approach. This point of view argues that only by granting trafficked victims and sex workers rights will their jobs and lives improve, and recognizes the failings of the rescue/rehab-of-victims-approach, which takes away livelihood.

Trafficking (defined as migration through force or coercion) is an obvious violation of human rights in itself. Trafficked women and girls are often sold and resold into brothels and held there while brothel owners take most or all of their income from sex work. Brothel workers are subject to physical, sexual, psychological, and emotional abuse, as well as are restricted in movement and personal choice of clients, etc. Upon rescue, rehabilitation, and reintegration, women are further subject to human rights abuses: some are rescued even if they do not want to leave prostitution; rehabilitation homes are more like prisons, and women are abused, denied legal rights, and not allowed to leave without a parent (or madam) to take them away, whether or not the rescued are adults; finally, women are sometimes repatriated against their will, as they find a livelihood in sex work that they would not find at home.

Articles and reports that contribute to the debate include Asia Foundation/ Population Council, 2000; Centre for Feminist Legal Research, undated, 2004a, and 2004b; Frederick, 2000; GAATW, 2001; Huntington, 2002; Jayasree, 2004; Network of Sex Work Projects, 2002; Sleightholme, 1997; TdH, 2003b; United Nations Development Program, 2003; USAID, 2004; and Women's Feature Service, 2003.

VII. Victim paradigm vs. agency, empowerment, and rights

Writings about trafficking tend to fall in one of two frameworks: those within the “victim paradigm” and those who try to reflect the agency (and empowerment) of women in trafficking. Some operate without self-reflection within the victim paradigm, giving women nothing but victim-hood and hopelessness, and blaming men, traffickers, and the political economy for the plight of such poor, innocent women (see Brown, 2000; Wilson 2000). Others argue that this victimization necessarily denies women’s agency and calls for their empowerment by approaching issues through the women’s points of view, and particularly from human rights and health perspectives (see especially Bandyopadhyay, 2004; and Doezema, 2001; Evans 2000; Huntington, 2002; Jayasree 2004; Network of Sex Work Projects 2002; Saunders, 2000; TdH 2003a). However, trafficking in children must operate under a separate framework than trafficking in adults, as the ability of children to use their agency is limited. Writers are more likely to define all trafficked children as victims (see TdH, 2003a, and Children and Ethics sections, below).

VIII. Reasons for trafficking; structural, societal, and cultural factors

Poverty is cited as a major reason for trafficking in the literature, though few trafficked women themselves cite it as a reason (see Sen, 2003, Bandyopadhyay, 2004). People looking for income willingly migrate, ignorantly follow promises of employment, or sell family members. Traffickers themselves are enticed by the lucrative business of buying and reselling humans. Trafficking routes attest to the poverty theory; people move from poorer to richer areas, such as from rural to urban, Nepal to India.

There are socio-cultural factors, as well, such as religious or local tradition that sanctions the sale or dedication of girls to temples (see Rozario, 1988). Other possible cultural factors are the caste system, the power difference between men and women; the demand for woman's virginity for her to be marriageable (resulting in girls who are sexually assaulted, raped, or otherwise not virgins to be sold by parents or to be more vulnerable to traffickers' enticements to leave home); sexual abuse; restrictions on the role of women (which makes women outside the role of housewife vulnerable to traffickers' promises of work or marriage); the lower relative value placed on girl children; and the low educational status of girls. Sen's report found that a large percentage of women who had been sexually assaulted cited it as a reason for entering sex work (2003). Furthermore, regression analysis showed a link between age at first sexual experience (childhood sexual abuse) and being trafficked. The Sen study also found trafficked women were likely to be uneducated, young, from low castes and socioeconomic classes, to have been married as children, and to have been married to a husband who was under 21 at marriage.

Structural factors include poor law enforcement; cooperation of law enforcement and politicians with traffickers; an open border between Nepal and India; political and economic power differences between India and Nepal; and lack of employment and education for women.

Sources that discuss structural, cultural, and societal factors in trafficking include Aengst, 2001; Asia foundation/ Population Council, 2001b, and 2001c; ADB, 2002a, 2002b, and 2002c; Bandyopadhyay, 2004; Bauer, 2003; Blanchet, 2003; Brown, 2000; Center for Economic Development, 2003; Community Action Centre, 2001; Dasgupta, 2001; Evans, 2000; Frederick, 2000; Free the Slaves, 2005; GAATW, 2001; Hennick, 2004; Human Rights Watch/Asia, 1995; ILO, 1998, 2001, and 2002a; Maatta 2002; Oxfam, 2004; Poudel, 2000; Pranati, 2004; Rao, 1996; Rozario, 1988; Sarup, 2004; Save the Children Norway, 2005; Save the Children US, 2005; Sen, 2003; Sleightholme, 1997; Surana, undated; Suwal, 2002; TdH 2003b, 2005; TdH Germany, 2001; The Protection Project, 2002a; UNICEF, 1998; UNDP, 2003; and Women's Feature Service, 2003.

IX. Traffickers

Traffickers are difficult for researchers to find and approach; therefore, primary information is not available. Most of what is known about traffickers is obtained through trafficked women, and is therefore limited. Promises of (non-sex work) jobs and promises of marriage are the most common ways of luring girls and women into trafficking situations. Most women and children, therefore, leave their homes willingly, but are tricked, deceived, and forced into sex work. UNDP comments that the style of trafficking is changing in northern India; false marriages are much more common, and men force their new "wives" to perform home-based sex work. These women are much harder to identify (for outreach or rescue) than brothel-based women (UNDP, 2003).

Traffickers are rarely strangers and abductors who forcefully take women and children (though this is more likely to happen to small children than older children and adults). Rather, they are quite often family members, both immediate and distant. Two studies that conducted primary research in India, Sen and Rozario, both found that around one-third of women's traffickers were family. Family members are involved in one of two ways. They are sometimes involved in the original selling, such as parents selling their daughters (sometimes knowing they will go to sex work, but sometimes not), or husbands (knowingly) selling their wives (many of these "husbands" marry women for the express purpose of trafficking them). Otherwise, family members are involved in the actual movement of the trafficked; taking a cousin or niece "on an outing" or to a distant city for (non-sex) work, and ultimately selling her to another trafficker or a brothel.

Rozario's survey showed that women identified 33% of traffickers as family members, 19% as professional traffickers; 6% as friends or acquaintances; and 10% as strangers or benefactors (the rest did not know or did not answer). Interestingly, traffickers are just as likely to be female as male, and they are reportedly between 18 and 40; men being younger, and women older. Sen found that a vast majority (90%) of female traffickers in India were former sex worker themselves. Non-family traffickers sometimes establish loose ties with the source villages and cities, such as engaging in casual labor or petty trading, and approaching vulnerable-seeming women and girls directly, or approaching family members about their girls. Some come to villages, show off their apparent success of working in the big city, and take girls away with promises of jobs and steady incomes. Traffickers generally operate in networks; for example, a brother may move a sister to a town, where she is sold to a former sex worker posing as a friend or employer, who sells her to a brothel in Mumbai. According to Sen's interviews, 70% of trafficked girls and women are in the sex work industry within two weeks of being trafficked. Women and children are subject to rape and other violence both en route and upon arrival to the brothel. (Some are purposefully not raped so they can be sold as virgins for higher prices [Human Rights Watch/Asia 1994; Rozario, 1988].)

Traffickers are rarely caught, and prosecution is even more rare. Women and girls who are bonded to brothels are incapable of contacting police, looking for their traffickers, or testifying. When they are free to leave the brothel, sometimes years have passed, and evidence is too old. Women may also be subject to threats that prevent her from testifying. In some places in Nepal, such a large percentage of the village is somehow involved in trafficking (they are sellers and traffickers of relatives, the receive remittances from daughters in India, etc.) that no one is willing to talk about it or to help someone find and accuse her traffickers (Human Rights Watch/Asia, 1995).

Sources that discuss or profile traffickers are Bauer, 2003; Blanchet, 2002 and 2003; Brown, 2000; CEDA 2003; Frederick, 2000; GAATW, 2001; Hennink, 2004; Human Rights Watch/Asia, 1995; ILO, 2001; Rozario, 1998; Sen, 2003; Skrobanek, 1997; TdH, 2003a and 2003b; TdH, Germany 2001; and Thorbek 2002.

X. Trafficking routes

In the literature, trafficking routes are only generally defined. In South Asia in general, people move from Nepal and Bangladesh into India, and not the reverse. Over 90% of trafficked people in India, however, are from India (Sen, 2003). Multiple sources report on the routes, provide maps showing routes, and show triangles of trade, etc. (Sen, 2003; Rozario, 1988; and TdH, 2003a; GSRC, 2000). Many routes lead out of South Asia into the Middle East, for example, but it seems that the South Asian routes do not lead to the US, while Southeast and East Asian markets do (Richard, 2000).

Twenty-five percent of Rozario's study was conducted in Andhra Pradesh, in Hyderabad/Secunderabad, Adoni, Vijayawada, and Cuddapah. Of the interviewees in Andhra Pradesh, there were religious/traditional sex workers: 200 Basavi (in Adoni), and fifteen Devadasi (in Ashoknagar near bus terminals). Women from Mahaboob District Vikrabad, Amul Basti, Maduray, and nearby villages go to Secunderabad for construction work and are sexually exploited by male workers there. Women from Azttha Aingnagar, Prakashanagar, Ganavaramu, and Vijayawada go to Guntur, Chilukalurpetta, Chirala bus stands, lorry check posts, etc. These women are often forced by husbands or parents to sell sex. Dancing girls from Vijayawada are often in sex work. Towns known for selling girls are Allgadi, Mydukar, Roddathin. The Kalavanthulu community in Cuddapah District operates home-based sex work, though traditional dedication to gods has ceased. Women move from Warrangal, Parsigudda, Tarnaka, and Tirmulgher to Chilubelguda Lal Bazar, Ramakrishnapuran, and the Secuderabad railway station. Vizayanagaram has "car festivals" where

girls are sold to Waltair in Andhra Pradesh and Jeyore in Orissa. Within Andhra Pradesh, there is trafficking between Madhya Pradesh and Hyderabad and Secunderabad. Interstate trafficking occurs between Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra, Bihar, Tamil Nadu and Karnataka. Godavari District (East or West not specified) and Cuddapah feed into the Delhi market. People from Andhra Pradesh are also trafficked to Mumbai (Rozario, 1995).

Other studies that discuss trafficking routes include ILO, 2000; Skrobanek, 1997 (in Thailand); TdH 2003b; TdH Germany, 2001.

XI. Profile of trafficking

Sources that address the process of trafficking itself (tactics, selling, etc.) and what victims experience while being trafficked and at the final destination (introduction to sex work, living and working conditions, experiences in brothels) include Aengst, 2001; Asia Foundation/ Population Council, 2001b and 2001c; ADB, 2002a and 2002b; Bandyopadhyay, 2004; Bangladesh National Women's Association, 1997; Blanchet, 2002 and 2003; Brown, 2000; CEDA, 2003; Community Action Centre Nepal, 2001; Dhar, 2000; Evans, 2000; Free the Slaves, 2005; GAATW, 2001; Hennick, 2004; Human Rights Watch/Asia, 1995; ILO, 1998, 2001 and 2002a; Maatta, 2002; National Commission for Women, 1996; Oxfam, 2004; Rao, 1996; Rozario, 1988; Sen, 2003; Surana, undated; Suwal, 2002; TdH, 2003a and 2003b, TdH Germany, 2001; The Protection Project, 2002a and 2002b; and Trafficking Thematic Group, 2003.

XII. Rescue and rehabilitation

Approaches to rescue, raids, and rehabilitation generally follow the victim versus human rights paradigms. Police and some NGOs operate through raids, while other NGOs feel raids only make the situation worse. Rescue generally involves arrest of the victim of trafficking, rather than any traffickers or clients, and sometimes simply leads to repeat trafficking or increased debt if the "rescued" women are bailed out by brothel owners (Bandyopadhyay, 2004). In a sample of girls in a rehabilitation home in Nepal, 80% had been rescued through police raids or through social workers. These police raids are aimed at finding underage girls, but girls are often told to lie about their ages or are hidden during the raids (Hennick, 2004). An NGO called STOP, which used to conduct raids but discontinued the practice, agrees that raids do not solve the problems and focus should instead be on recovery and empowerment. Specific problems with raids were that there are often leaks about the raids beforehand, so trafficked girls are simply hidden. NGO workers therefore found themselves in a bind: they know the girls were there, but if they continued looking, the girls would suffocate in their cramped hiding spaces. Raids also drove away customers, making sex workers more willing to have unprotected sex, and therefore vulnerable to HIV (UNDP 2003).

The National Plan of Action in Nepal focuses on rescuing children, mainly through a police-based approach (systems to track missing children; child-friendly police units; effective rescue units; effective border patrol; system to refer rescued children to safe homes and services) (ILO 1998). The National Plan of Action has been criticized as "paternalistic" and "ineffective" (Asia Foundation 2000, 2001c). A short piece by Ashok represents a conflict between the approaches of NGOs versus police. Police wanted NGOs to help in anti-trafficking by passing on brothel secrets; giving pimps' and madams' cell phone numbers to police; working to eradicate brothels in the area; informing police of new arrivals; and helping out during raids. The NGO Society for Development Research and Training (SFDRT) saw these efforts as anti-sex work (not just anti-trafficking), ineffectual, and invasive, and commented that identifying minors and trafficked victims can only be accomplished through establishing good, intimate relationships with key parties, and not through force (e.g. raids). NGOs suggested police should arrest people only when there is proof of sexual intercourse (by

medical examination, which also allows documentation if police violence), and they should also arrest clients. While police agreed that clients should be arrested too, the female-to-male ratio in their track record showed that many more sex workers had been arrested than clients (Ashok 2003).

Very little is known about rehabilitation and reintegration activities, though indications of problems are surfacing. Many NGOs provide services, and current practices generally revolve around rehabilitation (with medical services, education, skills training, counseling, confidence-building, etc.) and reintegration (with counseling of families and communities, seed money for women to start small businesses, assessments of family situations, etc), as well as legal help. Multiple sources define the need for not only individual work with trafficked victims, but also with family and community (to reduce stigma, etc.) (Free the Slaves 2005; Asia Foundation 2001c; Evans 2000; UNDP 2003). While most policies' and programs' emphases are on returning girls and women to their natal homes, most are beginning to recognize that many girls and women are not willing to return home and/or will not be welcomed home. Returning sex workers face major stigma and discrimination due to HIV and emphasis on women's virginity (see Hennick 2004). Other sources stress the need for self-determination and individually-tailored programs to best help rescued victims (Oxfam 2004; Huntington 2002).

Whether or not rehabilitation and reintegration improve the lives of girls and women is unknown. Sources suggest that rescue and rehab are simply another form of trafficking (Bandyopadhyay 2004), and that women who return to their homes have trouble being accepted, marrying, or making a living. Many engage in sex work upon their return to home countries or villages (ILO 2001). Some NGOs themselves have discriminatory policies, such as one that segregates HIV-positive victims not only from their families but also from other rescued victims (Evans 2000). For reasons such as this, some sources suggest monitoring, assessment, and evaluation of government and NGO operations is necessary to determine best practices (Asia Foundation 2001c; Evans 2000). Other sources give recommendations on how to improve practices (Asia Foundation 2000; Oxfam 2004).

Additional sources that address rescue and rehabilitation include Asia Foundation/ Population Council, 2001a; GAATW, 2001; ILO, 2001; Sen, 2003; Thorbek, 2002; and UN, 2000a.

XIII. HIV/AIDS and other health issues

Few studies link trafficking to risk of HIV/AIDS; the most obvious connection is trafficking for purposes of sex work. In this case, the risks can be defined similarly to those that all sex workers face. However, trafficked sex workers are at greater risk in multiple ways. First, they usually do not know the local language, and cannot receive HIV/AIDS awareness messages, negotiate protection with clients, or ask for help. Second, they are more likely debt-bonded to brothels, and their movement to seek health care, speak with others, refuse clients, or negotiate condom use is severely restricted. Third, they are more likely to be from rural villages, uneducated, and illiterate (see Sen, Rozario); they are therefore less likely to have received HIV/AIDS information before being trafficked, and are not in positions to receive it now or even to know to ask about it. Nepali girls are "known" to be more submissive and more "willing" to engage in riskier sex, such as unprotected anal sex, and sado-masochistic activities (Human Rights Watch/Asia, 1995). The "virgin myth" idea is also mentioned in the literature, where men believe they can cure STI and HIV/AIDS by engaging in (unprotected) sex with a virgin. This perpetuates the demand for younger girls, and subjects them to rape and unprotected sex (Rozario 1988). Also, trafficked women are at greater risk of being removed from brothels for repatriation, which would subject them to rape, exploitation, and repeat trafficking. They are also at risk of being raped during the original trafficking process. There are some reports of forced HIV testing upon rescue or repatriation (Human Rights Watch/Asia, 1995).

Sources that discuss or mention HIV/AIDS include Ashok, 2003; Asia Foundation/ Population Council 2000, 2001b, and 2001c; Beyrer, 2003; Busza, 2004; Butcher, 2003; Dhar, 2000; Frederick, 2000; Jayasree, 2004; Maatta, 2002; Onyejekwe, 2004; Poudel, 2000; Rao, 1996; Suwal, 2002; Trafficking Thematic Group, 2003; and the United Nations Development Program, 2003.

General health of trafficked persons is scant in the literature; after HIV/AIDS, STI are the next concern of studies. Sources that discuss health of the trafficked include Busza, 2004; Center for Multicultural Human Services, undated; ILO, 1998; Sen, 2003; and Suwal, 2002.

XIV. Interventions, program strategies, empowerment

Ideas about interventions parallel the victim paradigm vs. empowerment/human rights debate. Victim-ists demand criminalization of prostitution and approach anti-trafficking through stiffer border control, severe restriction of migration, and restriction of movement of women and children. The other side argues that such measures only drive the activities further underground, give trafficking networks more power, and make women and children more vulnerable to human rights abuses. Human rights and sex workers' rights groups do not support trafficking, but seek to distinguish voluntary from involuntary, and children from adults, and to punish the traffickers rather than the trafficked. Still others criticize those who use empowerment rhetoric and the rights-based approach, because they fail to transform theory into action (Oxfam GB Nepal Programme, 2004).

The Bandyopadhyay (2004) article explains Durbar's (an organized forum of sex workers based in West Bengal) views of trafficking and what they are doing to intervene. Durbar sees sex work as legitimate work and seeks to gain rights for workers. However, for sex work to be work, it must be an agreement between adults, and the woman must have given informed consent; by definition, trafficked women and all girls did not give consent. They recognize that increased border patrol and policing could only make the situation worse. Durbar thus tries to ensure that no trafficked people get recruited into sex work. Recognizing that this will happen anyway, Durbar has set up Self-Regulatory Boards in red light areas, with several sex worker and non-sex worker members. The boards try to monitor abuse; find trafficked women and children and get them to seek help; provide counseling, health services, and organize repatriation (by escorting them and following-up) or removal to government residential homes for children. The organization STOP is adopting self-regulatory boards, saying they are part of a long-term solution to trafficking. The same article describes Durbar's self-regulatory boards in some depth (UNDP 2003).

Sources that discuss interventions or program strategies include Asia foundation/ Population Council 2001a, 2001c; Asian Development Bank 2002a, 2002b, 2002c; ASMITA, 1998; Beyrer, 2003; Busza 2004a, 2004b; Center for Economic Development, 2003; Community Action Center, 2001; Dhar, 2000; Evans, 2000; Frederick, 2000; Free the Slaves, 2005; Huntington, 2002; ILO 1998, 2002a, 2002b; Kapur, 2005; Oxfam GB Nepal Program 2004; Poudel, 2000; Saunders, 2000; Surana, undated; TdH Germnay, 2001; and UNDP, 2003.

XV. Children

Trafficking in children is certainly a problem, though it is unclear what percentage of people trafficked for sexual exploitation are children. Traffickers, victims, brothel owners, and clients alike would all have reasons for hiding the age of the victim. Sources tell of one brothel tactic that forces girls to lie about their age, place of origin, and reason for migrating. They also tell of a process of falsifying papers to officially make a newly trafficked girl over 18 (Human Rights Watch/Asia, 1995; Sen, 2003). The Sen study asked respondents their ages, and got different responses from those

currently in trafficked situations versus those who were “survivors”: survivors were slightly more likely to admit to being under 18 at the time of interview (20% vs. 18%), and much more likely to admit they were trafficked when they were under 18 (60% vs. 40%). This makes accurate research difficult; the investigators felt that many women (girls) in both groups were hiding their true ages.

Children also present a particular problem for the issues of “voluntariness” and agency. There is the question of whether or not children are capable of giving consent for migration or for sexual activity. In India girls under 16 (statutory rape law does not address the case of boys), and in Nepal children under 14 have not legally reached the age of consent; therefore, some unknown number of trafficked sex workers are being raped by legal definition.

The special case of researching children, particularly children who have been subject to emotional, sexual, and psychological abuse and have been victims of crime, has brought forth a small body of literature. See the Center for Multicultural Human Services, undated; CSEC World Congress Yokohama Conference, 2001; Edmonds, 2003; ILO, 2002b and 2004; and Save the Children Alliance, 2004.

Other sources that discuss child trafficking include Aengst, 2003; Bauer, 2003; Childline India Foundation, 2003; Dhar, 2000; Free the Slaves, 2005; HRP, undated; Indian Social Institute, 1998; ILO, 1998, 1999, and 2002a; Mukherjee, 1997; Pawar, 1991; Rao, 1996; Save the Children Norway, 2005; Sen, 2003; Suwal, 2002; TdH, 2003b; TdH Germany, 2001; UNICEF, 1998; UNICEF, 2006; and Zimmerman 2004.

Sources that mention children within a broader discussion of trafficking include ABC/Nepal, 1996; Bangladesh National Women's Association, 1997; Blanchet, 2002; GAATW, 2001; Huntington, 2002; Rozario, 1988; Sarup, 2004; TdH 2003a; Trafficking Thematic Group 2003; United Nations 2000a; and Women's Feature Service 2003.

XVI. Research ethics

Conducting research with women and children who have migrated or been trafficked illegally and conduct illegal activity for a living poses particular ethical problems. For example, the interview itself could place a respondent in danger of reprisal by her exploiters or expose a secret sex worker. Researchers must consider certain ethical obligations to help respondents, such as if she reveals she is in danger or if she reveals mental health problems. Also, researchers must consider that the information they gather could be incriminating to the respondents, and they may be legally required to report to the authorities (even if that may put the respondent in a worse situation). Issues of informed consent are obviously important, but may become problematic when children are the respondents.

Sources that discuss the process of research and attendant ethical implications include Edmonds, 2003; HRP, undated; ILO, 2002b and 2004; Save the Children Alliance, 2004; Sen, 2003; WHO, 2003; and Zimmerman, 2004. (See also a separate Project Parivartan annotated bibliography on the Ethics of Researching Sex Workers.)

Trafficking in Women and Children in South Asia Annotated Bibliography

Contents

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I. India

- _____. (2004). Sex workers unhappy with revisions in Trafficking Act. zeenews.com (online). New Delhi: 1.
A news article highlighting how sex workers are unhappy with proposed 2004 amendments to the Immoral Traffic Prevention Act (1956) to prosecute brothel owners and clients.
- Ashok, S. (2003). Abuses Against Sex Workers and Erosions of HIV Prevention Efforts Resulting From Anti-Trafficking Initiatives. Pondicherry, SFDRT (NGO): 2.
This report presents a critique of anti-trafficking measures in India, including certain aspects of rehabilitation, reintegration and linked to HIV/AIDS prevention (www.childtrafficking.com).
- Asian Development Bank (ADB) (2002a). Combating Trafficking of Women and Children in South Asia. Country Paper: India: 93 p.
Analysis of the ADB's Regional Technical Assistance (RETA) in India (www.childtrafficking.com).
- Bandyopadhyay, N. (2004). "'Streetwalkers Show the Way': Reframing the Debate on Trafficking from Sex Workers' Perspective." *IDS Bulletin* 35(4): 104-111.
Abstract: Challenging the dominant discourses on trafficking that fail to include or reflect the experiences of those who are trafficked into a range of labor markets every year, and deny the trafficked "victims" any possibility of autonomy or voice, Durbar, an organized forum of sex workers based in West Bengal, has intervened into the debate on trafficking and has offered creative, inclusive, and effective ways of thinking about and acting on the issue. The article recounts the stories of women who had once been trafficked, to understand why and how some women get trafficked, and more critically, how they exercise their agency to get out of the trafficked condition. In analyzing these stories and Durbar's position on an intervention against trafficking, the article also explores the ways in which a marginalized group of poor women can claim citizenship rights by participating in public discourses and voicing and actualizing their demand for self-determination.
Notes: This article is based on 60 qualitative interviews with sex workers in Calcutta and presumably members of Durbar (no methods section) on the topic of trafficking. It gives three case studies, which follow a basic pattern: they start with a girl in a difficult situation at home (not necessarily poverty, but rather involving family putting her in an unwanted marriage situation); move to a the girl being trafficked by a "sympathetic" neighbor or acquaintance into a brothel; and end with the woman taking control of her life, establishing her own place, and remaining in sex work. The article argues against the myth that poverty

leads inevitably into trafficking, but rather some women leave home looking for work or better lives, but others leave to escape abuse, bad marriages, or to find love, and end up being tricked into brothels by middlemen or women. The authors argue that sex work is often accepted by trafficked women as a legitimate form of work. Some specifically chose sex work once they were in the city and saw the advantages of the work, and the lack of other options. Another myth the article argues against is that trafficked sex workers are "eternally doomed" victims who never regain control of their lives. All of the interviewees, even if they started as debt-slaves in brothels, managed to find some independence as sex workers (and were able to make it on their own or arrange to split wages 50/50 with brothel owners). These women were able to get out with their own "agency and determination" as well as with help from other, more experienced sex workers and even brothel owners. In no case did any of them just wait passively to be "rescued." (There may be a bias in that they only interviewed women who were out of debt-bondage work because they were easier to get to interview. They didn't interview any women who were still in the worst situations.) Durbar has a troubled relationship with the police, as they do not always cooperate, and they are not legally recognized. However, to build legitimacy, the Boards recruit members from mainstream society, such as state representatives, members of the Labour Commission, etc. Durbar also does not support "raid and rescue" operations, as these generally put trafficked women into even worse situations, and often lead to re-trafficking and more debt if bailed out by madams. Durbar also seeks to normalize sex work as work through such tactics as changing discourse: they have used a new word to refer to sex workers (jounokarmee), which has found its way into media sources and everyday conversation.

Centre for Feminist Legal Research. "Thinking Through, Thinking Beyond....; Human Rights, Sex Work, Migration and Trafficking." Centre for Feminist Legal Research.

Abstract: Plea to the reader for incisive thinking and critical reflection on the issue of trafficking of children and women. The "reader" is assumed to include the entire gamut of individuals and stakeholders – from researchers, activists, policy makers, legal experts, law enforcers, government authorities, donors, NGOs – all such parties who engage, to whatever degree, in anti-trafficking initiatives. Deviating from the established norm of objective and dispassionate writing which customarily characterizes suchlike strategy documents, I deliberately locate myself in this paper as a consciously engaged insider by including my voice, thus positioning myself within a rich community of insiders in the anti-trafficking arena which is genuinely engaged in "solving" the problem of trafficking in this country. This document is presented in the spirit of an invitation for collective reflection and stock-taking of the anti-trafficking strategies and interventions developed and implemented over the past decade or more in India. It is also a plea to think beyond and outside of the box.

Centre for Feminist Legal Research (2004a). International Seminar on Cross Border Movements and Human Rights - January 9-10, 2004, New Delhi, India, New Delhi, Centre for Feminist Legal Research.

Childline India Foundation (2003). Child Trafficking - Issues and Concerns. Mumbai, Childline India Foundation: 100.

Dhar, S. (2000). Rights-India: Building a New Life for HIV-Infected Child Sex Workers. Inter Press Service.

Article discussing HIV-infected child sex workers in India, the prevention of entry into sex work for minors, and rescue (www.childtrafficking.com). The NGO Sanlaap in Mumbai and

the DMSC in Kolkata are mentioned.

Free the Slaves (2005). *Recovering Childhood. Combating Child Trafficking in Northern India*. Washington, DC; Delhi, Free the Slaves: 114 p.

From document: Free the Slaves carried out research on child trafficking in northern India at an important time: While we carried out our interviews with officials, police, nongovernmental organizations, as well as parents and their trafficked children, we recognized the urgent need for evidence-based recommendations in a time of change. It would seem that for the families and communities at the heart of the problem, evidently abandoned to a life of relentless hunger in some of the world's poorest villages, the factors that propel their children into slavery have simply intensified over time.

Indian Social Institute (1998). *The Girl Child in Crisis*. New Delhi, Indian Social Institute: 134.

Jayasree, A. K. (2004). "Searching for justice for body and self in a coercive environment: sex work in Kerala, India." *Reproductive Health Matters* 12(23): 58-67.

Abstract: Sex workers in Kerala, India, live in a coercive environment and face violence from the police and criminals, lack of shelter, lack of childcare support and have many physical and mental health problems. This paper documents the environment in which women have been selling sex in Kerala since 1995, and their efforts to claim their rights. It is based on sex workers' own reports and experiences, a situation analysis and a needs assessment study by the Foundation for Integrated Research in Mental Health. Involvement in HIV/AIDS prevention projects first gave sex workers in Kerala an opportunity to come together. Some have become peer educators and distribute condoms but they continue to be harassed by police. Most anti-trafficking interventions, including rescue and rehabilitation, either criminalise or victimise sex workers, and sex workers reject them as a solution to sex work. They understand that the lack of sexual fulfillment in other relationships and their own lack of access to other work and resources are the reasons why commercial sex flourishes. Sex workers are not mere victims without agency. They have a right to bodily integrity, pleasure, livelihood, self-determination and a safe working environment. Sex workers are organising themselves for these objectives and demand decriminalisation of sex work.

Notes: This article stresses agency and criticizes the "innocent victim" paradigm as infantilizing and a denial of agency. It advocates decriminalization, and shows the horrors of rehabilitation homes.

The Lawyers Collective (2003). *Legislating an Epidemic: HIV/AIDS in India*. Delhi, Universal Law Publishing Company.

Mukherjee, K. K., et al (1997). *Child Prostitution in Rajasthan*. New Delhi, National Commission for Women, Government of India.

National Commission for Women (1996). *Societal Violence on Women and Children in Prostitution*. New Delhi, Government of India.

Pawar, M. S. (1991). "Prostitution and the Girl Child." *The Indian Journal of Social Work* 52(1): 105-113.

Abstract: India has sought to abolish the traffic in persons for the purpose of prostitution, not to abolish prostitution itself, though the Immoral Traffic (Prevention) Act (ITPA), 1956, and

several state acts. Despite these efforts, sexual exploitation or abuse of females, including children, has continued to grow at an alarming rate. Official statistics and figures provided by the media are examined and compared, revealing that ITPA enforcement leaves much to be desired. Recent amendments to the ITPA have had little impact on the growing phenomenon of sexual exploitation.

Ramanathan, U. (2001). *Human Rights in India: A Mapping*: 76 p.

This huge study covers more than thirty human rights issue in India and explores the strategies and responses related to these issues, including trafficking issues on page 41. (www.childtrafficking.com).

Sen, S. (2003). *A Report on Trafficking in Women and Children in India*. New Dehli.

The National Human Rights Commission commissioned this study in response to reports of the rise of trafficking. The study conducted primary data collection (929 interviews of women currently in sex work) in several states, as well as a review of the literature. Volume 1 covers the following topics: challenges in research; profile of the study area; survivors; victims; clientele; brothel owners; traffickers; children rescued from labor exploitation; migration and trafficking; tourism and trafficking; culturally sanctioned practices and trafficking; missing persons versus trafficking; legal and police issues; judicial and government response; community response; international agency response; prevention; and action research. Volume 2 provides case studies.

The following information is from interviews of currently working trafficked women and girls.

-Age: almost 20% were under 18 (none from Andhra Pradesh admitted to being a minor), and almost half said they started before age 18 (the writers feel this number is too low).

-Origin: Ninety-four percent were from India, and 77% were Hindu.

-SES: Almost two-thirds were from Scheduled or Backward Castes, and over two-thirds were illiterate or barely literate.

-Marital status: Half were unmarried; 60% of the married ones had been married as children.

-Sexual history: Over 70% had their first sexual experience under age 18. Sixty percent said it was explicitly without consent, and the rest involved promises of money or favors.

-Family: About half have children. One-third had been treated poorly by husbands or in-laws, and two-thirds had been sexually assaulted while married by someone other than their husbands. Almost half of these said this was a key factor toward their sex work. Almost half of the women said their families knew they were trafficked; only 15% had family try to trace them (that they knew of).

-Traffickers: One-third of traffickers had been family members, and half had been persons known by the victim; only 10% were strangers. Traffickers are just as likely to be female as male; they tend to be young, are more likely Hindu, and almost half are from Schedules Castes.

-Traffickers' tactics: While traveling with victims, traffickers pretended to be family members 15.6%; relatives 27%; or friends 26%.

-Reasons leading to being trafficked: forced, deceived, lured 52%; marriage-related problems and violence 22%; poverty 13%; regular sexual abuse as child 5.4%; tradition 7.3%; family migration .2%.

-Incentives into being trafficked: Over two-thirds has promises of jobs, and one in six had been promised marriage.

-Victims experiences with trafficking: Most experiences feelings of helplessness, self-contempt. Most realized they were being trafficked when sexual exploitation or abuse started

(by trafficker or another). Many stopped at transit points, such as traffickers' or brothel owners' houses for a "cool off" period before CSW started. 70% said sexual exploitation started at the first place of transit.

-Sex work experience: Women averaged seven clients per day. One in five clients was working class, 11% were businessmen, 10% were tourists (but only 3% foreigners), 9.8% were students, and others were police/army, doctors, teachers, lawyers, politicians, criminals, and film personalities.

-Income: The average income Rs 6076 per month (Rs 4753 in Andhra Pradesh). Huge chunks of this went to brothel owners, police, and other stakeholders. CWSs used most of their money on household items, family, cosmetics and entertainment; and small portions was spent on medicines, alcohol, tobacco, pr property. Almost two-thirds reported no savings.

-Health: One third self-reported serious health problems. Most had been living with their illness for years (42% for 5 years). Nearly all knew about STI/HIV, but only 77% were using prevention regularly (8% never).

-Escape: 52% had made some effort to return to their families (2/3 of these attempted to return in order to be free of exploitation, 16% in order to remit money or meet family, and 8% wanted to traffic more girls). Almost half had made no effort to return. Reasons given were there was no alternative livelihood (35%), they feared being caught and punished by their exploiters (49%), they thought they wouldn't be accepted (11%), or they didn't know where they came from (5%).

-Arrest: Over half had never been arrested; one-fourth had been arrested once, and 15% had been arrested more than four times, usually the charge was soliciting. To get out of jail, 72% were bailed by the brothel owner, 20% bribed police, and 7.5% had gotten out through NGO intervention. About 40% said they were made to change their names to avoid repeat offender charges on re-arrest. There were also methods of evading arrest. In 58% of the cases, brothel owners had advance notice of the **raid**. One-fourth were hidden in boxes, attics, etc. Brothel owners bribed police during the **raid** 18% of the time. It was especially common in Andhra Pradesh (compared to other states) to evade arrest multiple times.

Shakti Vahini (2004). *Trafficking in India Report 2004*. Faridabad, Haryana: 96 p.

This report examines the implementation of anti-trafficking legislation in 29 states in India. It adopts a similar methodology to the U.S. State Department's *Trafficking in Persons Report* (www.childtrafficking.com). It includes a profile on the situation in Andhra Pradesh.

Sleightholme, C. S., Indrani (1997). *Guilty without trial: women in the sex trade in Calcutta*. New Brunswick, NJ, Rutgers U Press.

Abstract: A case study of the sex trade in Calcutta, India, based largely on stories told by female sex workers who shared their experiences with members of Sanlaap, a small nongovernmental organization for sex workers run by women. The double standard of morality that governs India's profitable sex trade is revealed, maintaining that the activities of the 20,000+ women/mothers who live with their families in Calcutta's red-light district are kept silent so that others may profit. The social and economic factors that encourage the sex trade are explored, along with the financial vulnerability, health hazards, and stigmatization endured by the women and girls who must sell their bodies to live. A gendered perspective on commercial sex is discussed, along with the marginalization of women in India and the nation's legal approach to the sex industry. Other issues explored include the scale of India's sex industry, how trafficking of women/girls is organized, occurrences of physical abuse, long-term prostitute/client relationships, and the experiences of "floating" sex workers who return to their families after work. Suggestions are made for numerous short- and long-term

interventions to address the needs of Calcutta sex workers.

Surana, P. (undated). Effect of Globalisation on Human Trafficking and Forced Prostitution in India. Discusses how globalization adversely affects women and children and leads to trafficking and prostitution (www.childtrafficking.com).

Terre des hommes (Tdh) - Germany (2001). Child Trafficking in India: 69 p.
This report presents an assessment of the situation including who are the traffickers and who are trafficked, the purposes of trafficking and the legislative framework (www.childtrafficking.com). Andhra Pradesh is named as a “recruiting ground.”

The Protection Project (2002a). India - A Human Rights Report on Trafficking of Persons, Especially Women and Children: 5 p.

From document: India is a country of destination, origin and transit for trafficking of women and children. In addition, there are several indications of internal trafficking. Of the 74 million south Asian women reported as missing, 20 million are said to be working in Indian brothels. An estimated 25 percent of women trafficked to India are under 18 years of age.

Women's Feature Service. (2003). "Women, Migration and Development." Development 46(3): 119-123.

The Women's Feature Service based in New Delhi, India covers daily stories of how women are coping with different forms of violence, including the perils of migration and trafficking, as well as the attempts by civil society and others to rectify the situation. Sharmila Joshi, Ruby O. Santos and Patralekha Chatterjee tell the stories of trafficked and migrating children and women in India and the Philippines.

II. Nepal

ABC/Nepal (1996). Red Light Traffic: The Trade in Nepali Girls. Kathmandu.

Aengst, J. (2001). Girls Trafficking in Nepal, Human Rights Advocacy Clinic: 30 p.
This report provides a short overview of Nepal's situation regarding girls trafficking and focuses a bit on the legal options (www.childtrafficking.com).

Asia Foundation (undated). Trafficking Annex, Asia Foundation.
From document: Although slavery was long ago legally abolished from the Himalayan Kingdom of Nepal, it continues to flourish. The victims are women and children, especially young girls from poor rural families, who are sold into prostitution and bonded labor each year.

Asia Foundation/Population Council (2001a). Research Summary. Trafficking and Human Rights in Nepal: Community Perceptions and Policy and Program Responses: 8 p.
From document: This assessment examined the forces that influence strategic approaches, program priorities, intervention design, and funding opportunities for the prevention of trafficking and the care and support of trafficked persons.

Asia Foundation/Population Council (2001b). Community Perceptions of Trafficking and its Determinants in Nepal. P. e. a. Study prepared by Bhattarai. Kathmandu; New Delhi, Kathmandu: Asia Foundation, New Delhi: Population Council, Horizons Project.: 93 p.
From document: [A] field-based study to identify perceptions, knowledge and attitudes of

community members about the roles and opportunities ascribed to women, the need and benefits of migration, the existence of trafficking and determinants of vulnerability to trafficking. At the same time this study also examines attitudes and practices related to reintegration of trafficked persons.

Asia Foundation/Population Council (2001c). Prevention of Trafficking and the Care and Support of Trafficked Persons. In the Context of an Emerging HIV/AIDS Epidemic in Nepal: Policy Analysis, Documentation of Current Intervention Models, Community-based Study of Trafficking, Kathmandu: Asia Foundation, New Delhi: Population Council, Horizons Project: 100 p.

The report was compiled by Costello Daly, C. based on other Asia Foundation/ Population Council documents from 2000 and 20001.

Asia Foundation/Population Council (2000). Trafficking in Nepal: Policy Analysis. An Assessment of Laws and Policies for the Prevention and Control of Trafficking in Nepal, Kathmandu: Asia Foundation, New Delhi: Population Council, Horizons Project: 54 p.

The authors of this report are Sanghera, J. and Kapur, R. The study assesses Nepal's policies and laws that address the trafficking of women and children in terms of effectiveness, human rights, international obligations, and the relation between trafficking and HIV. The report highlights the focus on rescue and rehabilitation in current policies, notwithstanding the criticism of such interventions (www.childtrafficking.com).

Asian Development Bank (ADB) (2002b). Combating Trafficking of Women and Children in South Asia. Country Paper: the Kingdom of Nepal, Asian Development Bank: 97 p.

Analysis of ADB's Regional Technical Assistance (RETA) in Nepal. Demand factors are viewed as important (www.childtrafficking.com).

ASMITA (1998). Efforts to Prevent Trafficking in Women and Girls: A Pre-Study for Media Activism.

Chapters: 1) Efforts to prevent trafficking in women and girls; A Pre-Study for media activism; 2) Review of the studies on trafficking in women and girls; 3) Trafficking in women and girls and the print media; 4) Review of the Electronic Media Production on Trafficking in Nepal; 5) Law, Plan, Policy and Programmes Regarding Trafficking in Women and Girls.

Bauer, T. G. and B. McKercher (2003). The dark side of tourism and sexuality: trafficking of Nepali girls for Indian brothels. in Sex and tourism: journeys of romance, love and lust. Haworth Hospitality Press, Binghamton, USA.

Abstract: This chapter provides an insight into the trafficking of Nepali girls for brothels in neighbouring India. The author observes the link between poverty in remote districts of Nepal and the ease with which people traffickers can lure their victims into following them away from their homes. Their efforts are aided by the prevailing cultural and religious traditions that encourage a low status for women and by the complicity of the family members who agree to send their girls to India to earn money for the family.

Center for Legal Research and Resource Development (CeLRRd) (2002). Analysis of Laws and Policies on Labor Migration and Trafficking: 56 p.

From document: The study has looked into a number of issues within the scope. It is found that the policy of government concerning migrant workers is neither adequate not effective.

In fact, there is hardly any policy which can be analyzed as the 'policy on migrant workers.' The issue of protecting the rights of Nepalese migrant workers in the international labor market is completely overshadowed.

Centre for Economic Development and Administration (CEDA) (2003). Baseline Study on Human Trafficking in the Cross Boarder Area of Rupandehi District. Kathmandu: 74 p.

This both qualitative and quantitative study provides information on the trafficking situation within Nepal and across Nepal's borders (www.childtrafficking.com). It also describes factors behind trafficking, the role of law and interventions, and provides recommendations.

Community Action Centre (CAC) Nepal (2001). Stock Taking of Existing Research and Data on Trafficking of Women and Girls for Sexual Exploitation. Kathmandu, Community Action Centre: 102 p.

The study presents a literature review on trafficking of Nepali women and girls and identifies gaps in research, data and issues (but [there are] errors in the report) (www.childtrafficking.com).

Edmonds, C. N. (2003). Ethical Considerations When Conducting Research on Children in the Worst Forms of Child Labour in Nepal. Geneva, International Labour Organization (ILO), International Program on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC).

From document: The following paper explores in some detail the ethical dilemmas that confront the research when conducting research on and with children. It addresses three categories of issues, namely i) pre-research issues, ii) issues during research, iii) post-research issues. Through the use of illustrative examples from research conducted on the worst forms of child labour by the ILO in Nepal (Kumar et al, 2001 and Sharma et al, 2001), the paper touches upon concrete dilemmas to be considered when planning research as well as on situations to avoid when going into the field and when making research results public" (p. 2). The worst forms of child labour focused on in this investigation were "children in bondage; child domestic workers; child soldiers; child trafficking; drug trafficking; hazardous work in commercial agriculture, fishing, garbage dumps, mining and the urban environment; commercial sexual exploitation; and children working in the streets (p. iii).

Evans, C. and P. Bhattarai (2000). Trafficking in Nepal: Intervention Models. A Comparative Analysis of Anti-Trafficking Intervention Approaches in Nepal, Asia Foundation/Population Council; Kathmandu: Asia Foundation, New Delhi: Population Council, Horizons Project: 56 p.

The study aims to understand perceptions of trafficking and identify the assumptions that explicitly or implicitly inform intervention approaches. (www.childtrafficking.com).

Hennink, M. and P. Simkhada (2004). "Sex Trafficking in Nepal: Context and Process." Asian and Pacific Migration Journal 13(3): 305-338.

Abstract: The aim of this study was to provide a clearer understanding of the process and context of sex trafficking from Nepal using data from trafficked women themselves. It develops a conceptual framework of the trafficking process and uses this to identify detailed strategies for reducing the risk of trafficking. Quantitative data were analyzed from case records of 202 sex-trafficked women at rehabilitation centers in Nepal. In-depth interviews with 42 sex trafficked women, mostly residing at rehabilitation centers in Kathmandu, provide contextual information on the process and circumstances of sex trafficking. The results of this study provide a clearer understanding of the stages of movement through the

sex trafficking process; in particular that sex trafficking does not always begin at the village level, it may also occur after voluntary migration or after trafficking to urban areas for other purposes (i.e., labor exploitation). Interventions therefore need to target each stage of movement through sex trafficking. Respondents were most commonly sex trafficked by familiar persons, including relatives; and force and abduction are less common. Women exited from sex trafficking through rescue, escape, or release. One of the outcomes of sex trafficking is a return to sex work upon return to Nepal.

Human Rights Watch/Asia (1995). Rape for Profit: Trafficking of Nepali Girls and Women to India's Brothels. New York, Human Rights Watch, c1995.

The report is based on interviews in Bombay and Nepal with victims of trafficking (both current and former sex workers), brothel owners, doctors, lawyers, government officials, and police, and grey literature from social workers, activists, AIDS- and trafficking-related NGOs. Subjects covered are political and economic factors, case histories, trafficking tactics and paths to Mumbai, life in the brothels, and the roles of the governments of Nepal and India, and relevant laws and international conventions.

International Labour Organization (1998). National Plan of Action Against Trafficking in Children and their Commercial Sexual Exploitation. National Consultative Workshop, Kathmandu, Ministry of Women and Social Welfare (MOWSW), HMG, Nepal and International Labour Organization (ILO), International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC).

A report on workshop proceedings in Kathmandu, 1998, discussing the context of trafficking; the roles of law and government; health care, education, employment and income generation as interventions; issues of rescue and reintegration; and prevention through improved economics, registration of births and migration, and education.

International Labour Organisation. (2001). Nepal: Trafficking in Girls With Special Reference to Prostitution: A Rapid Assessment. Geneva, International Labour Organisation/International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (ILO/IPEC), Central Department on Population Studies (CDPS): 96 p.

From document: The study findings estimate that 12,000 children are trafficked every year from Nepal. The local history implies that trafficking has long been associated with poverty, social exclusion, and ignorance, as well with the practice of slavery and the bonded labour system. Trafficking crosses many caste/ethnic groups of Nepal, but most at risk are members of the hill ethnic groups and lower castes.

Maatta, P. (2002). Enlargement and Globalisation Issues of the European Union - Trafficking in Girls and Women from Nepal to India: 5 p.

From document: The diminishing possibilities for employment in Nepal and for legal labour migration for women outside Nepal combined with the demand for women's labour in the service sector mean that more and more women are seeking to find employment elsewhere. An overwhelming majority of trafficked girls and women are led away under deception or false promises of jobs.

Oxfam GB Nepal Programme (2004). Gaps Analysis on Intervention Strategies Against Trafficking in Women in Nepal: A background research study to inform Oxfam GB Nepal Programme's Campaign on Ending Violence Against Women: 91 p.

From document: This research aims to identify the gaps in anti-trafficking strategies and contribute to ongoing initiatives by analysis from a survivor's rights perspective. Despite the

fact that all the main anti-trafficking organizations claim to be working from a rights-based approach, the fact that these violations still occur shows there is a problem in moving from theory into practice. All too often only lip service is paid to the principles of empowerment, participation and self-representation, which should be central to any rights-based approach.

Poudel, P. and J. Carryer (2000). "Girl-Trafficking, HIV/AIDS, and the Position of Women in Nepal." Gender and Development 8(2): 74-79.

Abstract: This article focuses on trafficking of young Nepalese girls and women. Trafficking is an integral part of the social and economic fabric of Nepal, as in other parts of the world. The practice causes intolerable degradation and suffering for the girls and young women involved, who are treated as a commodity. It presents a risk to their physical and mental health, and in particular to their sexual health. The article examines the connections between coercive sex work and HIV infection, and community and government responses to HIV infection among trafficked sex workers. In particular, it considers the current AIDS prevention and control program in Nepal, and criticizes it from the feminist perspective of the authors, who are a Nepalese nurse who has undertaken academic work in New Zealand related to women's health, and a New Zealand feminist academic, who is also a nurse.

Pranati, D. (2004). "Population movement from Nepal to West Bengal." Indian Journal of Regional Science. Regional Science Association India, Calcutta, India 36(1): 88-102.

Abstract: Migration from Nepal to India as well as to West Bengal has an authentic record since the East India Companies rose to power. Researchers distinguish migration from other kinds of mobility on the basis of arbitrary standards of duration and distance. Unlike the great influx of people from Bangladesh, the Nepali migration to West Bengal has never assumed a status of a large-scale exodus at any point of time in the past. The full-fledged migration of the Nepalese is believed to have been initiated by recruitment into the British Army. While the flow of migrants increased during 1951-61, it declined later on. There could be a host of reasons for this. The declining job market, particularly in the primary sector of the rural areas and in the secondary and tertiary sectors in the urban areas in which Nepalese were used to be absorbed to a great extent, the cost price squeeze and other unfavourable conditions resulted in the changes of the direction of flows of recent migrants. Disaggregation of total decadal migrants by use of a structural model also indicates a declining trend in the average annual estimates of immigrants. Recent literature shows that, every year, 5000 to 7000 Nepali girls are trafficked illegally to India and forced into prostitution. The important factors that create an environment conducive to trafficking in Nepal are the open border between India and Nepal, inadequate political commitment to address trafficking, and failure of the police and judiciary to enforce existing laws. Enforcement of the Human Trafficking Control Act of 1986 seems very poor. Neither the government in India nor that of Nepal is serious and sincere enough to control human trafficking.

Rao, A. (1996). "Girls Trafficked from Nepal into Indian Brothels." Reclaiming Children and Youth: Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Problems 5(2): 114-117.

Abstract: Large numbers of children from Nepal are being lured into the sex industry in Bombay, India, which continues in spite of laws to the contrary in both countries. Here, the process by which young girls are seduced and coerced into this bondage with active support from political and law enforcement leaders is described. It is contended that combating these abuses requires attacking notions of female sexual exploitation permissible in a patriarchal society.

Rozario, M. R. (1988). Trafficking in women and children in India (Sexual Exploitation and Sale). New Delhi, Uppal Publishing House.

This is a culmination of several studies done by the Joint Women's Programme on trafficking throughout India, based on field interviews with 1100 respondents. Twenty-five percent of the interviews were in Andhra Pradesh (Hyderabad/ Secunderabad, Adoni, Vijayawada, Cuddapah). One chapter discusses prostitution in India history and ancient literature, and argues that it was accepted and not stigmatized. A chapter on the impact of religions on the status of women discusses how Hinduism, Islam, and Christianity all have sacred texts that refer to the good qualities—and even equality—of women, but in other texts and in practice, women are dehumanized and degraded. Types of sexual exploitation respondents were subjects to included dancing/singing girls; religious-based (basavi and devadasi in Andhra Pradesh); and those based in brothels, roadsides, lodges, hotels, highways, streets, homes, and numerous other types. Brothel girls are often abducted or coerced and unwilling to join the profession. They are cut off from friends and family and often don't speak the language in the area; conditions are designed to bring them into submission. Trafficking of Nepali girls started in the late 1970's. Nepali girls are appealing to traffickers because they are uneducated, “unexposed to the world” (p. 48), are easily tricked and forced to submit, and their parents are too poor and uneducated to follow up. Customers like them because they have fairer skin and easily submit to demands. Indian workers sometimes dislike the Nepalis (because they take business from Indians), and shove Nepalis to the worst positions (standing on the street, first to go if cash is tight). Another chapter gave profiles of the sexually exploited. Based on current age, 35% were below 18, and 53% were under 18 at time of recruitment. Religiously, over one-third were Hindu, but nearly half did not know their religion. Almost 40% were from Scheduled Castes and Tribes, but over half did not know their caste. Over half had no education. Two-thirds were unmarried. Patterns of migration (trafficking) were diverse, 30% being interstate, 12% interstate, and the rest moving from rural to urban or urban to urban. There were various modes of entry into prostitution: 11% were nonviolently lured; 20% joined through religious or traditional means; 46.6% were subjected to some combination of kidnap, auction, selling, reselling, rape, fake marriage, and/or desertion. Being lured and/or forced were the most common tactics. Violence and torture were common methods of subjugating women and children to engage in sex work. Prices for one sexual exchange ranged from Rs 2 to 3,500 (in 1981). Cost to buy a person ranged from Rs 400 to 70,000. The rate depends on “complexion, physic, and age of the girl. A virgin may fetch more...” (p. 85). Nepalis and other northern (Kashmir, Jammu) girls get higher prices in Mumbai than girls from South India. The book also shows trafficking routes, patterns, markets, and triangles. In Andhra Pradesh, there is trafficking between Madhya Pradesh and Hyderabad and Secunderabad. Interstate trafficking occurs between AP and Maharashtra, Bihar, Tamil Nadu and Karnataka. Godavari District and Cuddapah feed into the Delhi market. Andhra also feeds the demand center in Mumbai. One table showed the profiles of traffickers: 33% were family members. The book ends with some case histories. A common theme is very young girls being tricked, lured, or forced away from unhappy or broken homes.

Sarup, K. (2004). Horrific abuse of Women - Trafficking and conflict.

Political instability and the Maoist insurgency have hindered Nepal's efforts in fighting women trafficking. Now Nepalese women are leaving their homes in droves due to the bad security situation (www.childtrafficking.com).

Save the Children Norway (2005). A Study on Impacts of Armed Conflict Pushing Girls and Women

into Sexual Abuse and Sex Trade. Nepal, Save the Children Norway: 57 p.

From document: The impacts of armed conflict are profound, either in social, economic or psychological terms. The agonies of the poor and disadvantaged groups are further increased by armed conflict. Amongst these disadvantages are the conflict-affected girls and women who silently suffer their fates.

Save the Children US (2005). *The Movement of Women: Migration, Trafficking, and Prostitution in the Context of Nepal's Armed Conflict.*: 78 p.

From document: This study presents the findings of ethnographic research led by Dr. Sondra Hausner to examine the internal and cross-border movement of women and girls in the context of conflict-affected Nepal, with a special focus on any increase in trafficking risk. The qualitative research was conducted in Kathmandu, at three border crossing points, and in two locations in India.

Main findings: Conflict is increasing internal and external migration. The proportion of females migrating to India is small compared to males. Women do not migrate alone, but with male relatives. Many women migrate to India to join their husbands. Women migrating are not at greater risk than women who stay in rural villages. Conflict has increased the number of sex workers in Kathmandu and Nepali border areas. Women who engage in sex work are from all castes and ethnic groups. Domestic violence drives many girls to Kathmandu. Migrants cite economic reasons more often than conflict. Poorer migrants move into India, while richer ones settle in Nepali cities.

Suwal, B. R. and T. L. Amatya (2002). *Internal Trafficking Among Children and Youth Engaged in Prostitution in Nepal*. Bansbari, Kathmandu, Community Action Centre--Nepal, submitted to International Labour Organization: 79.

Chapters: Background, Socio-Economic-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents; Awareness about Trafficking in Children and Youth; Migration and Trafficking; Involvement in Prostitution and Its Impacts; Major Findings; Annexes: Case Histories; and Questionnaire. In 1999 there were an estimated 2,650 girls and women in prostitution in Kathmandu. This study surveyed 440 people in prostitution (82 children and 358 adults) in 2001.

Terre des hommes (2003a). *Letters from Kathmandu*. Terre des hommes. Kathmandu, Nepal, The Foundation of Terre des hommes. 4p.

This short article criticizes the victim paradigm, and discusses differences between child trafficking and women trafficking, profiles of the traffickers and clients, and the role of law and the justice system. It includes a map showing that there is internal trafficking in India, Nepal, Bangladesh, Myanmar, Pakistan, Afghanistan, and China. Nepalis are trafficked into Hong Kong, Bangkok, and Singapore, and India (Mumbai, Calcutta, New Dehli, Kanpur, and Kolhapur). Bangladesh routes go to the Middle East, India, and Pakistan. India also feeds the Middle East markets.

Terre des hommes (2003b). *Child Trafficking in Nepal: An Assessment of the Present Situation*. Kathmandu, Terre des hommes.

A report on the present situation of trafficking, history, migration patterns, magnitude, victim's justice system, etc. (www.childtrafficking.com).

Terre des hommes (Tdh). Foundation (2005). *Summary of Findings: A Study of Trafficked Nepalese Girls and Women in Mumbai and Kolkata, India*, Terre des hommes: 59 p.

This is a qualitative study of Nepalese girls and women after they have been sold for

prostitution into brothels in Mumbai and Kolkata, India—a study of their first days, their years of confinement and their years in sex work after their release. The study investigates the economic forces that drive trafficking from Nepal: the demand of the client, and more important, the demand of the brothel owner. The study uses two strong, globally important and imprecise terms to designate the two alternative situations in which trafficked Nepalese girls and women spend their first two to ten years in the brothel: slavery and debt bondage (www.childtrafficking.com).

UNICEF and T. N. Era (1998). *A Situation Analysis of Sex Work and Trafficking in Nepal with Reference to Children*. UNICEF. Kathmandu.

A survey by UNICEF of Nepali prostitutes working in India. Report summary: “The main purpose of the research was to investigate the “root causes” of children getting into sex work and how they become the victims of trafficking. The study was planned in three phases: (a) nationwide survey of sex work and trafficking impact; (b) in-depth interviews with child and adult sex workers in Nepal and in India; and (c) investigation of community, family and non-family situations prior to the child becoming sex workers or women or girls falling victims to organised trafficking.

The study premised its approach on the notion that the populations of sex workers or those effected by trafficking were not sufficiently estimated. The nationwide survey would cover the country without preconceptions about the nature and prevalence of sex work and trafficking in Nepal. Consideration would be given to areas where prevalence of sex work was quite apparent. Minimum of 3,000 informants from sex clients and dalals (pimps) will be included in the first phase of the study. Ten ‘populations’ of SWs in Nepal, both urban and rural, would be determined following the results of the nationwide survey for the second phase (in-depth interviews with sex workers) in which 100 sex workers, 10 from each of the ten populations, would be interviewed in-depth. Forty sex workers including eight Nepalese gharhwalis operating in Bombay and Calcutta would be interviewed in detail. One hundred and sixty families from 32 communities at risk of their children entering sex work or being trafficked would be interviewed. In-depth interviews of 30 children living without family who are at risk of entering sex work or being trafficked would be conducted.

Because of high ‘misinformation quotient’ of the kind of information sought, careful cross-checking and validation of data was imperative and would be applied at frequent intervals. The study report is available in *New Era*.”

III. Bangladesh

Asian Development Bank (ADB) (2002c). *Combating Trafficking of Women and Children in South Asia*. Country Paper: Bangladesh., ADB: 83 p.

Analysis of the ADB’s Regional Technical Assistance (RETA) in Bangladesh.

Bangladesh National Women's Association (1997). *Survey in the Area of Child and Woman Trafficking*. Dhaka, Bangladesh National Women's Association.

Blanchet, T. e. a. (2003). *Bangladeshi girls sold as wives in North India*: 59 p.

Study presented to USAID. Research documenting women labour migration and occurrences of trafficking within Bangladesh and from Bangladesh to Kolkata, Mumbai and the Middle East. The study is based on a large amount of interviews with returnees—this includes people having been trafficked or not—, traffickers, family members and more generally people involved in the migration process and in the working environment. It is stressed that trafficking is an aspect of labour migration. Only through unreserved recognition of women

migration as a fact and a right can the trafficking within the migration process be curtailed (www.childtrafficking.com).

Blanchet, T. e. a. (2002). *Beyond Boundaries: A Critical Look at Women Labour Migration and the Trafficking Within*. Dhaka, Drishti Research Centre: 210 p.

From document: The report is based on the study of 112 Bangladeshi girls and women who were purchased to serve as wives to men of Uttar Pradesh or other parts of North India. In most cases, parents had consented to the marriage but were not aware of the sale. The obligation to marry a daughter early and the impossibility for poor parents to meet dowry demands were the main push factors.

Dasgupta, A. (2003). "Bangladesh: Dreams and Hunger, Drive Trafficking into India". Paper in Inter Press Service (IPS).

The trafficking of women into border towns of India forms one part of the larger issue of migration of Bangladeshis into India, something that is not officially acknowledged by the Dhaka government or discussed in polite society at the capital (www.childtrafficking.com).

GSRC (2000). "Bangladesh Trafficking Routes and Sites."

Shows map of where victims come from and map of trafficking routes and sites. Most victims come from around Dhaka, Jessore, Chapai Nawabganj, and Rangpor, but origins are spread throughout the country. Most routes go into India over western the border, but some also go north and east.

International Labour Organisation/International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (ILO/IPEC) (2002a). *Rapid Assessment on Trafficking in Children for Exploitative Employment in Bangladesh*. Dhaka, Bangladesh, ILO/IPEC: 138 p.

This study has been designed to identify and understand how the trafficking process functions and the terrible conditions often endured by the children who are its victims. The research combines qualitative and quantitative data collection methods. It identifies the rarity and universality of occurrence of different socio-economic factors and their impact on child trafficking within Bangladesh and across borders (www.childtrafficking.com).

The Protection Project (2002b). "Bangladesh - A Human Rights Report on Trafficking of Persons, Especially Women and Children."

Bangladesh is a country of origin for trafficking of women and children. Although exact figures on the scope of the problem vary widely, the consensus is that the problem is growing rapidly. Estimates project that a total of 25,000 Bangladeshi women and children are trafficked out of the country annually (www.childtrafficking.com).

Trafficking Thematic Group (2003). *Revisiting the Human Trafficking Paradigm: The Bangladesh Experience*, Trafficking Thematic Group.

From document: For the past ten years, the phrase "human trafficking" has been used to address a wide variety of crimes and human rights abuses associated with the recruitment, movement and sale of people into a range of "exploitative" or "slave-like circumstances." The problem with the present "human trafficking paradigm" is that many of the definitions used to define this social phenomenon are often limited in their scope and do not adequately reflect the totality of the problem. Likewise, few attempts have been made to develop usable conceptual frameworks that allow for the many variables to be encompassed under a single umbrella....The purpose of this analytical document is to provide a brief overview of the

some of the inconsistencies in the existing 'human trafficking' paradigm.

IV. South Asia

Butcher, K. (2003). "Confusion between prostitution and sex trafficking." *Lancet* 361(9373): 1983.

From document: In response to the 2003 US statement that paired "prostitution and sex trafficking," this brief discusses the key differences between work in sex work and women who are trafficked. The main difference is agency; non-trafficked sex workers are more likely to have chosen their work for various reasons, especially financial. Trafficked sex workers were coerced or forced, and did not exercise agency in beginning sex work (though they may exercise it in deciding to stay).

Frederick, J., ed. (2000). *Fallen Angels - The Sex workers of South Asia*. New Delhi, Roli Books.

Book review: This review first appeared in the *Far Eastern Economic Review*, March 21, 2002. *Asia's Sex Trap*. Southeast Asia's booming sex industry has been described by numerous authors and journalists, but the outside world has paid scant attention to the same problem in South Asia, where hundreds of thousands of young women and men are trapped in squalid brothels in India, Nepal, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and Pakistan.

Part of the reason could be that it is mainly an internal problem. Apart from paedophiles in Sri Lanka, few Western tourists are involved in South Asia's sex industry, unlike Thailand and the Philippines where there are many. Also, in countries such as Pakistan, official tolerance of prostitution is zero, which means that prostitutes are usually well-hidden. Only Mumbai's sleazy Falkland Road and Kamathipura and some areas of Calcutta have an open commercial sex scene.

This makes the tragedy even worse, and, as the authors of this remarkable book point out, the South Asian sex industry involves more children than perhaps anywhere else in the world. In Bangladesh, for instance, bonded female children and the daughters of sex workers "often begin work at 11 or 12, and 16 is over the hill." In Pakistan, most prostitutes are under-age boys, many of them refugees from Afghanistan. The girls usually come from Bangladesh. But, as one of the contributors to the book writes, "The provocative word 'paedophile' is applied almost solely to pot-bellied foreigners, a negligible proportion of consumers in the region." Lawmakers and non-governmental organizations might be encouraged by *Fallen Angels*, edited by John Frederick, with pictures compiled by Thomas Kelly, to rethink their efforts to curb South Asia's sex industry.

Fallen Angels may unsettle some readers, with its horrid tales of suffering, together with its compelling and sometimes shocking pictures. The book quickly gets to the heart of the problem: poverty, such as that in the hills of Nepal and in Bangladesh's flood-hit plains. But the 14 authors-most of whom are South Asians-do not moralize. They describe how some sex workers in Calcutta want to be treated with dignity, and protected for their right to work. A doctor working with sex workers in Calcutta states quite bluntly that "providing Aids awareness and condoms isn't going to be successful because sex workers have no power compared to the clients, the pimps or the madams. Without strengthening them, you cannot change this power equation."

Frederick, who lives in Nepal, caused a stir three years ago with a long article in *Himal*, a local news magazine, in which he argued that most young women from the hills of Nepal were not "tricked" into prostitution by crafty outsiders, or drugged and kidnapped by Indian gangsters only to wake up several days later in a Mumbai brothel. He said that many villagers knowingly sold their daughters to sex-industry recruiters because they had no other means of survival. In other words, prostitution in South Asia is not primarily a criminal issue, but a social problem caused by extreme under-development and caste discrimination in a

strictly hierarchical society. *Fallen Angels* describes, in text as well as pictures, that social tragedy brilliantly.

Global Alliance Against Trafficking in Women (2001). *Human Rights and Trafficking in Persons - A handbook*. Bangkok, Global Alliance Against Trafficking in Women: 145.

This is a handbook about trafficking in general. The first chapter defines human rights, specifically discussing the rights of women and children, and government responsibility in ensuring human rights. It also gives a brief historical overview of trafficking (first defined by Western countries when white women migrated to Eastern countries and worked as sex workers). Historically, the definition of trafficking has been limited to prostitution. Trafficking was defined as such only if prostitution was involved, and all sex workers were seen as trafficked, whether they had entered the trade voluntarily or not. Pointing out that there is no internationally agreed-upon definition of trafficking, the handbook gives some modern definitions of trafficking from the UN (multiple offices and multiple definitions) and from the Human Rights Standards for the Treatment of Trafficked Persons (HRS). Basic common elements include movement from community of origin; fraud, force, deception, or coercion; exploitation in slavery, near-slavery, or servitude with or without pay. The modern definitions do not require sexual exploitation to be involved for it to be called trafficking. The handbook emphasizes that sexual exploitation is only one type of trafficking. Factors contributing to trafficking are multifactorial. Reasons listed are economics; migration and feminization of migration; gender-based discrimination; the growing entertainment sex industry (they argue that this has a smaller impact compared to other reasons); laws and policies on migration (e.g. the force migration underground); armed conflict; corrupt authorities; religious and cultural practices (such as devadasi in India and deuki in Nepal [dedication of girls to a temple or shrine]). While traffickers are the culprits in the various crimes of trafficking, they are usually not convicted, or are convicted on lesser charges (Travel Act, Conspiracy Act, Alien Smuggling Act, White Slave Trade Act, Kidnapping Act, etc). Often, it is the victims of trafficking who are directly punished by governments, through arrest, detention, deportation or indirectly punished by governments through “failure to eliminate gender discrimination, failure to punish traffickers and failure to address the needs of rights of trafficked persons who have escaped” (p. 54). Governments may not distinguish between people who migrated voluntarily and those trafficked. People who are repatriated may be ostracized or unwelcome at home, especially if they have been sexually exploited or worked in the sex industry. Trafficked persons may or may not want to return to their community of origin (if there is war, financial hardship, stigma, etc).

Huntington, D. ed. (2002). *Anti-Trafficking Programs in South Asia - Appropriate Activities, Indicators and Evaluation Methodologies, Summary Report of a Technical Consultative Meeting*. New Delhi, Population Council: 45.

A report on anti-trafficking programs in South Asia.

Chapters (subheadings):

Clarifying Concepts and Terminology (Legal and Human Rights Perspectives; Movements and Risks);

Identifying Intervention Models (Prevention, Care and Support, and Reintegration; Law Reform, Advocacy and Prosecution; Illegal Labor and the Commercial Exploitation of Children);

Identifying Program Evaluation Methodologies (Monitoring and Evaluation Methodologies; Evaluation Indicators);

The Way Forward--Recommendations and Next Steps.

Kapur, R. (2005). Conceptual and Legal Approaches to Trafficking in South Asia, with a Focus on India, Bangladesh, and Nepal. First Annual Forum on Child Development, Beijing, China, UNICEF.

Conference Proceedings from a Child Development conference in Beijing, 2005, discussing legal and policy approaches in India, Nepal, and Bangladesh, and suggests an alternative framework, focusing on prevention, protection, and empowerment as ways to improve the situation.

Onyejekwe, C. J. (2004). "Trafficking in Women Migrants: Issues of Concern in South Asia." Pakistan Journal of Women's Studies: Alam-e-Niswan 11(1): 95-105.

Abstract: Women and girls are mostly vulnerable to the various forms of exploitation that accompany both migration and the trade in humans. This paper links the problem of trafficking in women migrant workers with other issues of concern to women such as poverty and HIV/AIDS. Examples are variously given from some South Asian countries such as Bangladesh, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. The efforts so far being made by the international community, especially the United Nations to combat these problems, are discussed and further preventative policies suggested.

United Nations Development Program. (2003). From Challenges to Opportunities - Responses to Trafficking and HIV/AIDS in South Asia, UNDP: 53.

Chapters:

- 1- Safe Mobility Mechanisms: Sustaining Preventive Action
- 2- From the Frontline to the Front Page: Media Advocacy and Sensitization
- 3- Recovery, Repatriation and Reintegration: The Multiple Dynamics
- 4- Self-Regulatory Boards: Kolkata's Sex Workers Show the Way
- 5- Care, Support and Reintegration: Surviving Trafficking and HIV/AIDS
- 6- Influencing Policy: A Perspective from the Grassroots.

V. Asia and Southeast Asia

Beyrer, C. and J. Stachowiak (2003). "Health Consequences of Trafficking of Women and Girls in Southeast Asia." The Brown Journal of World Affairs 10(1): 105-117.

This article relates to health consequences of trafficking of women and girls in Southeast Asia, namely direct health consequences of commercial sex, threats to mental health, and difficulties gaining access to health care.

Brown, L. (2000). Sex Slaves - The Trafficking of Women in Asia. London, Virago Press.

From back cover: The Asian sex trade is often assumed to cater predominantly to foreigners. *Sex Slaves* turns that belief on its head to show that while western sex tourists have played a vital part in the growth of the industry, the primary customers of Asia's indentured sex workers and of its child prostitutes are overwhelmingly Asian men. Here are the voices of some of the world's most silent and abused women—women who have been forced into prostitution by the men they trust. This is their story: about the journey from home to captivity; the horrors of “seasoning” for prostitution; and the hidden life within the brothel.

Notes: This book provides an generalized overview of the sex markets in all of Asia (very little on India) and operates from “victim paradigm.” Methodology is unclear, though some personal (journalistic? anthropologic?) observation is involved. Most data is secondary, extrapolative, and anecdotal.

Busza, j. (2004). Participatory Research and Action: Sharing Challenges from Cambodia: 10 p.

From document: This paper presents the use of integrated research methods in a participatory community mobilization project among debt-bonded, young migrant sex workers in Phnom Penh, Cambodia. The study, conducted by the Population Council/Horizons Project, aimed to empower the local sex worker community to enhance solidarity, identify shared concerns and plan appropriate responses to improve their living and working conditions (www.childtrafficking.com).

International Labour Organization (2002a). Trafficking of Children in Asia: Overview of the Response, International Labour Organization, International Program on the Elimination of Child Labour: 22.

Statement on ILO's response to child trafficking (all forms) in East Asia, Philippines, and South Asia. Worldwide, 1.2 million children are trafficked. Of these, 250,000 are in Asia (for all forms of labor and exploitation). The report states details components of an integrated approach to combat trafficking. The ILO "supports the efforts of governments, workers' and employers' organizations and NGO's" in prevention; rescue, repatriation, and restoration of rights of victims; "strengthening the judiciary and police in prosecuting offenders and dismantling of trafficking networks" (p. 6) and mobilizing public opinion. There is a regional plan of action in South Asia (Bangladesh, Nepal, and Sri Lanka, with efforts to involve India and Pakistan). There are four components: program research, documentation and monitoring; institutional development and capacity building; demonstration programs on direct action and social services; advocacy for sub-regional cooperation and action. It provides some insights for the Philippine experience (intra-national movement, interrupting the chain of trafficking, and strong networking).

Richard, A. O. N. (2000). International Trafficking of Women to the United States: A contemporary Manifestation of Slavery and Organized Crime, Center for the Study of Intelligence.

This is a discussion of components of trafficking into the US. There is no mention of trafficking of Indian women into the US. Asia and Southeast Asia are mentioned, but never South Asia specifically. It seems that most Asian women trafficked into the US are Thai, Korean, Filipino, and Chinese.

Skrobanek, S. (1997). Traffic in Women: Human Realities of the International Sex Trade. London, Zed Books.

This book is an overview of trafficking in Thailand. It discusses reasons for migration; migration's connection to trafficking; the history of trafficking in Thailand; the routes and networks; working conditions in Thailand and for Thais overseas; the role of family and community in trafficking; and turning research into action.

VI. Worldwide; Multi-regional

Busza, J., S. Castle, et al. (2004). "Trafficking and health." 3 p.

From document: This paper argues that anti-trafficking interventions actually increase the health risks and vulnerability of those who migrate voluntarily, by reducing their access to appropriate services and social care. The paper cites evidence from research conducted among child migrants in Mali who had been returned from the Ivory Coast, and Vietnamese sex workers in Cambodia.

Center for Multicultural Human Services (CMHS) (undated). "Understanding and Responding to the Psychological Needs of Trafficked Children." 2 p.

Briefly defines the extent of the problem and the consequences of the trafficking experiences on children (www.childtrafficking.com).

Centre for Feminist Legal Research (2004b). A Hand Book on Human Rights and Legislative Practices to Combat Trafficking in Persons, Centre for Feminist Legal Research: 91.

CSEC World Congress Yokohama Conference (2001). International Federation of Journalists' Draft Guidelines and Principles for Reporting on Issues Involving Children: 2 p.

Deals with the duty of media professionals to maintain highest ethical and professional standards and should promote within the industry the widest possible dissemination of information about the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and its implications for the exercise of independent journalism (www.childtrafficking.com).

Doezema, J. (2001). "Ouch! Western Feminists' 'Wounded Attachment' to the 'Third World Prostitute.'" *Feminist Review* 67(spring): 16-38.

Abstract: Trafficking in women has, in recent years, been the subject of intense feminist debate. This article analyzes the position of the Coalition Against Trafficking in Women (CATW) and the writings of its founder, Kathleen Barry. It suggests that CATW's construction of "Third World prostitutes" is part of a wider Western feminist impulse to construct a damaged "Other" as justification for its own interventionist impulses. The central argument of this article is that the "injured body" of the "Third World trafficking victim" in international feminist debates serves as a powerful metaphor for advancing certain feminist interests, which cannot be assumed to be those of Third World sex workers themselves. This argument is advanced through a comparison of Victorian feminist campaigns against prostitution in India with contemporary feminist campaigns against trafficking.

Global Alliance Against Traffic in Women (2005). Human Rights Standards for the Treatment of Trafficked Persons, Global Alliance Against Traffic in Women Online. <http://gaatw.net/>

The Human Rights Standards for the Treatment of Trafficked Persons (HRS) aims to promote respect for the human rights of individuals who have been victims of trafficking, including those who have been subjected to involuntary labor and/or slavery-like practices. The HRS can be used as a guide in providing assistance to women and taking legal action against traffickers. The following is from the Summary:

-Trafficking: All acts and attempted acts involved in the recruitment, transportation within or across borders, purchase, sale, transfer, receipt or harboring of a person involving the use of deception, coercion (including the use or threat of force or the abuse of authority) or debt bondage for the purpose of placing or holding such person, whether for pay or not, in involuntary servitude (domestic, sexual or reproductive), in forced or bonded labour, or in slavery-like conditions, in a community other than the one in which such person lived at the time of the original deception, coercion or debt bondage.

-Principle of non-discrimination: States shall not discriminate against trafficked persons in substantive or procedural law, policy or practice.

-Safety and Fair Treatment: States shall recognize that trafficked persons are victims of serious human rights abuses, protect their rights notwithstanding any irregular immigration status, and protect them from reprisal and harm.

-Access to justice: The police, prosecutors and court shall ensure that their efforts to punish traffickers are implemented within a system that respects and safeguards the rights of the victims to privacy, dignity and safety. An adequate prosecution of traffickers included prosecution, where applicable, for rape, sexual and other forms of assault (including, without

limitation, murder, forced pregnancies and abortions), kidnapping, torture, inhuman or degrading treatment, slavery or slavery-like practices, forced or compulsory labour, debt bondage, or forced marriage.

-Access to private actions and reparations: States must ensure that trafficked persons have a legal right to seek reparations from traffickers as well as assistance in bringing such actions, if necessary.

-Resident status: States shall provide trafficked persons with temporary residence visas (including the right to work) during the pendency of any criminal, civil or other legal actions and shall provide trafficked persons with the right to seek asylum and have the risk of retaliation considered in any deportation proceedings.

-Health and other services: States shall provide trafficked persons with adequate health and other social services during the period of temporary residence.

-Repatriation and reintegration: States shall ensure that trafficked persons are able to return home safely, if they so wish, and when they are able to do so. Recovery includes medical and psychological care as well as legal and social services to ensure the well being of trafficked persons.

-State cooperation: States must work cooperatively in order to ensure full implementation of these Standards.”

HRP and World Health Organisation (WHO) (no date). *Asking Young People About Sexual and Reproductive Behaviours: Illustrative Core Instruments*, WHO.

In 1998-99, the UNDP/UNFPA/WHO/World Bank Special Programme of Research, Development and Research Training in Human Reproduction (HRP) launched a social science research initiative on adolescent sexual and reproductive health in developing countries. The aim of this initiative was to support research that addresses factors contributing to positive sexual and reproductive health outcomes, especially those that can be influenced by appropriate interventions in developing countries. The illustrative questionnaire for interview-surveys sets a standard for interviewing young people (www.childtrafficking.com).

International Labour Organisation/International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (ILO/IPEC) and Mekong Sub-Regional Project to Combat Trafficking in Children and Women (2002b). *Participatory and Action Oriented Research on Worst Forms of Child Labour Including Trafficking. Technical Intervention Area Summary Notes: TIA-C. Bangkok, ILO/IPEC/UNIAP: 10 p.*

This is a technical report concerning guidelines to research on the worst forms of child labour including trafficking. Triangulation of research, i.e. using three types of research, and ethical issues are addressed (www.childtrafficking.com).

International Labour Organization (1999). *Worst Forms of Child Labor Convention (No. 182)*. General Conference of the International Labour Organization, session 87, ILO.

A convention, ratified by 158 countries as of March 1, 2006, calling for prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labor. Child is defined as “all persons under the age of 18” (article 2). The forms of child labour mentioned are slavery, sale and trafficking, debt bondage, forced labour, use for armed conflict; use, procuring, or offering a child for prostitution or production of pornography); use of child in illicit activities (drug trafficking); work that might harm health, safety or morals of children (article 3). The convention recognizes education of children as prevention, and calls on states to prevent child labour, provide assistance for removal and rehabilitation and social integration, including education

or vocational training; identify children at special risk; and pay attention to the particular situation of girls (article 7).

International Labour Organization (2002b). Migrant Workers, Protection of Human Rights in the Context of HIV/AIDS, and Indigenous Issues. United Nations Commission on Human Rights.

Abstract: At the beginning of the 21st Century, the total number of persons living outside of their countries of origin worldwide was estimated at over 150 million, of which the ILO counts some 100 million as migrant workers and their families. Some 30 million migrant workers are found in irregular (unauthorized) situations that make them particularly vulnerable to exploitation and abuse. Women as well as men work on commercial agricultural plantations, in sweatshops and in construction; they work long hours, under hazardous working conditions, often with poor remuneration and without access to social security benefits. Female migrants face additional risks of exploitation, working as domestics, in the informal sector, or as 'sex workers'; many are victims of trafficking for the purpose of exploitation. Sadly, increasing reports of abuse, exploitation, trafficking and violence committed against both male and especially female migrant workers in every region give reason to increasing concern for treatment of non-nationals. In the last couple of years, protection of the rights and dignity of migrants has finally been given its due as a central concern in world affairs. The extensive attention to combating xenophobia against migrants at the recent World Conference in Durban, the imminent entry into force of the 1990 UN Convention on protection of rights of migrant workers, growing migrant and civil society activity, and the high profile given to the mandate of the UN Special Rapporteur on Human Rights of Migrants are among the most visible manifestations of this shift. More broadly, a global trend has moved discussion on international migration out of back rooms, into the headlines, and onto the agendas of conferences around the world. Indeed, few events happen today that do not have a migratory implication or consequence. An increasing number of States are recognizing that, in the era of globalization, labour migration is assuming ever-greater importance in development processes and particularly in advancing regional economic and social integration.

International Labour Organization (ILO) (2004). Trafficking in children for labour and sexual exploitation in the Balkans and Ukraine: Manual for rapid assessment: 42 p.

This document gives an outline for a Rapid Evaluation of trafficking in children for labour and sexual exploitation from Ukraine, Moldova, Albania and Romania. The survey focuses on boys and girls under 18, being trafficked or exposed to trafficking both abroad and within their country of origin (www.childtrafficking.com).

Network of Sex Work Projects (2002). The anti-sex work anti-trafficking agenda: a threat to sex workers' health and human rights. XIV International Conference on AIDS, Barcelona.

From document: While a number of anti-trafficking organizations recognize sex work as a legitimate profession, those organizations that seek to repress sex work and sex workers are gaining the upper hand. Those anti-trafficking campaigns which implicitly or explicitly support repressive measures threaten sex workers' health and human rights in the following ways: HIV prevention projects are threatened; they operate on the victim paradigm, which works against empowerment; they lead to repressive measures against sex workers and migrant sex workers; they divert attention from the issues that are of concern to the majority of the worlds' sex workers. The Network of Sex Work Projects (NSWP) demands continued support of organizations working to promote the health and human rights of all sex workers.

Saunders, P. (2000). Migration, Sex Work and Trafficking in Persons.

This is a discussion of the inadequacies of anti-trafficking rhetoric and frameworks, and how they generally seek to restrict or abolish migration and prostitution instead of ensuring human rights for women in sex work and preventing abuses.

Save the Children Alliance (2004). So you want to involve children in research?: a toolkit supporting children's meaningful and ethical participation in research relating to violence against children, Save the Children: 80 p.

This research kit gives guidance on ways to encourage meaningful and ethical participation by children in research related to violence against children. It promotes research that sees children as active agents in their own lives, not passive victims or research 'subjects.' Specifically, it presents techniques and pointers for the involvement of children in secondary and primary research (www.childtrafficking.com).

Thorbek, S. e. P., Bandana ed. (2002). Transnational Prostitution - Changing Global Patterns. London, Zed Books.

The "habitual naming of sex-workers of foreign origin as sexual-slaves, debt-slaves or trafficked women is inaccurate" (p. 1). The definition of trafficking is here used only when a "person is lured, cheated or forced into traveling to another country and to work there....Trafficking does exist but there is less of it than the police, politicians, some feminist organizations and the media assume" (p. 4). This article emphasizes that to consider all women who engage in sex work abroad as trafficked is mistaken, and it is difficult to determine whether a person has been trafficked or not. A woman may migrate voluntarily, knowing she'll engage in sex work, but then find the conditions and pay unacceptable. Another woman may be coerced into migrating, but then decide to stay with the work and is able to save money. Some people may see their traffickers as very expensive travel agents. To immediately deport a trafficked woman may cause her to lose all her savings, possibly leave a better economic situation, and leave her in debt to her traffickers, making her all the more desperate to accept being trafficked again. If governments are truly concerned with the human rights of trafficked persons, they should allow them to be witnesses in trials against traffickers, keep them in country at least until after the trial, and support them legally and medically during that time. In the policy arena, focus should be on stopping traffickers and making sex work conditions better (leniency, NGO help for unregistered sex workers).

UNICEF (2006). Trafficking and Sexual Exploitation, UNICEF. 2006.

A few paragraphs on child trafficking and sexual exploitation as one of many issues concerning children worldwide.

United Nations (2000a). Protocol to Prevent, Suppress, and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, Supplementing the United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime: 11.

A United Nations protocol regarding trafficking in women and children. Included definitions, protection of victims, including rescue/rehab, prevention, cooperation and other intervention measures (such as border patrol, documents, information exchange).

United Nations (2000b). United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime, United Nations: 34.

A Convention addressing the following: measures to combat money-laundering and

corruption, liability of legal persons, prosecution and sanctions, confiscation, extradition, cooperation between states, protection of witnesses and victims, law enforcement cooperation, training and technical assistance, prevention; criminalization of participation in organized crime, laundering of the proceeds of crime, and corruption.

USAID (2004). Trafficking in Persons - USAID's Response. Washington, DC, USAID: 16.

This is a summary of USAID's activities across the world, by continent. Chapters: Introduction; USAID's 2003 Anti-Trafficking Activities (Africa; Asia; Central and Southeastern Europe and Eurasia; Latin America and the Caribbean); Conclusion.

Wilson, O. (2000). Globalized Female Slavery.

This is a brief article that makes the connections between globalization and the exploitation of women in prostitution. It is an outraged, scathing attack of prostitution, especially of trafficked women. The author disagrees with the view that sex work is work and should be decriminalized, and argues that sex work is degrading and morally destructive to all women in sex work. Wilson blames the male-oriented world, and the imbalance of power between men and women.

World Health Organization (2003). WHO Ethical and Safety Recommendations for Interviewing Trafficked Women. p. b. C. Zimmerman, WHO: 36.

This provides guidelines and recommendations for interviewing trafficked women. Trafficked women are in complex circumstances. Not only can interviews with women who are currently in trafficked situations be risky for various reasons, but also interviews with women outside of the trafficked situation can be risky physically and psychologically. Not all women who have been trafficked consider themselves victims, are traumatized, or wish to escape or go home. Many have contradictory and ambivalent feelings toward their situations and their traffickers/employers.

1) Do no harm. "Treat each woman and the situation as if the potential for harm is extreme until there is evidence to the contrary. Do not undertake any interview that will make a woman's situation worse in the short term or longer term." This includes personal psychological harm, as well as situational harm (exposing her situation to immigration, alerting her traffickers, making her susceptible to violence or fees, etc).

2) Know your subject and assess the risks. "Learn the risks associated with trafficking and each woman's case before undertaking an interview." Possible risks: reprisal against respondent by employers, traffickers, etc. Recommendations: interview women who are safely removed from the trafficking situation. If this is not possible, be very aware of the woman's situation before undertaking the interview. In some places, the interview will pose no problem, such as where sex work is tolerated or ignored.

3) Prepare referral information. Do not make promises that you cannot fulfill.

4) Adequately select and prepare interpreters and co-workers.

5) Ensure anonymity and confidentiality.

6) Get informed consent.

7) Listen to and respect each woman's assessment of her situation and risks to her safety. "Recognize that each woman will have different concerns, and that the way she views her concerns may be different from how others might assess them....A woman's choices regarding whether to respond to a health concern, talk about her feelings, escape her situation, or other personal matters must be respected—no matter how dangerous or abusive the situation may seem to the interviewer. Unsolicited rescues, contact with authorities,

contact with family, passing of information to counselors, etc. are not necessarily appreciated—or in the best interest of the woman.”

8) Do not retraumatise a woman.

9) Be prepared for emergency intervention. If the woman requests immediate assistance, “[o]ffering help can be life-saving and is an ethical and moral duty. But offering assistance in the wrong way or at the wrong time can backfire.” Issues related to contacting authorities: detention or deportation; hostile or unhelpful police; pressure to testify (with accompanying risks); police, immigration, embassy officials may be a part of the trafficking rings.

10) Put information collected to good use. “Use information in a way that benefits an individual woman or that advances the development of good policies and interventions for trafficked women generally.”

Zimmerman, C. and C. Watts (2004). "Risks and responsibilities: guidelines for interviewing trafficked women." *Lancet* 363(9408): 565.

This short article gives a summary of the WHO “10 guiding principles for the ethical and safe conduct of interviews” with trafficked women. Differences are listed below.

1) Do no harm. Author notes that even approaching a woman can cause trouble, raise suspicions (hers, her community, family, or people that trafficked her, control her).

7) Listen to and respect each woman's assessment of her situation and risks to her safety. Author notes that well-meaning actions based in sympathy or researcher's emotions can create even worse situations. Contacting police may only lead to deportation, re-trafficking, etc.

8) Do no retraumatise a woman. Author notes that reliving memories or trauma

10) Put information collected to good use. Author notes data must include safeguards to ensure women's safety.

VII. Websites

Action Against Trafficking and Sexual Exploitation of Children (ATSEC) Bangladesh Chapter.

<http://atsec.tripod.com/>

Asia Pacific Network of Sex Workers. <http://apnsw.org/>

The Center for Development and Population Activities (CEDPA). www.cedpa.org/

Center for Feminist Legal Research. www.cflr.org/

Child Trafficking Digital Library. www.childtrafficking.com

Coalition Against Trafficking in Women. www.catwinternational.org/index.php

Global Alliance Against Trafficking in Women. www.gaatw.net/

Global Survival Network-Washington, DC. www.globalsurvival.net

Human Rights Watch. www.hrw.org

Human Trafficking. www.humantrafficking.org/

International Labour Organization. www.ilo.org/public/english/

International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour—Nepal. www.iloipecnepal.org

IPEC Information Resource Centre. www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipecc/publ/

Maiti Nepal. www.maitinepal.org/

PACT. www.pactworld.org

Prostitution Research and Education. www.prostitutionresearch.com/

Sex Workers' Project. www.sexworkersproject.org

Stop Child Trafficking. www.stopchildtrafficking.org

Terre des hommes. <http://tdh.ch/cms/Home.391.0.html?andL=1>

The South and Southeast Asian Resource Centre on Sexuality www.asiasrc.org/librarylist.php

UNICEF. www.unicef.org/protection/index_exploitation.html

World Congress against Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children. www.daphne-toolkit.org/documents/websites/csecworldcongress/csecworl/en/index.htm