

Sex Trafficking of Women and Children in Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States: The Global Politics of Exploitation

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Abstract

This project examined the phenomenon of human trafficking in the context of sexual exploitation. It focused on women and children, as the victims, because these groups are the most vulnerable. Furthermore, it presented methods of recruitment, reasons for targeting particular types of people and the consequences the victims suffer from sex trafficking. The international routes of human trade within Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States were also outlined. This included forms of transport and passage, destination countries and origin points. Human trafficking was defined and its occurrence and existence historically was critically evaluated. Furthermore, development of international legislations and awareness raised within the countries where the problem exists was presented. Moreover, this project illustrated different perceptions of trafficking which are linked to creation of diverse laws and approaches by various states to tackle this crime.

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Introduction

Defining human trafficking

Over the centuries slavery and trading in people have existed in different forms. In the current era, enslavement and trafficking in human beings is forbidden by international law, yet it still exists as illegal activities (Lee, 2007; Goodey, 2003). One of the problems in tackling those offences was lack of accepted definition of human trafficking at international level. Although each country had some form of understanding of human trafficking, the cooperation between the nations was hard to establish because of the differences in classification of crimes connected with human trafficking, slavery and exploitation. An agreed definition of human trafficking was bestowed by United Nations Convention in 2000, which has come into force December 2003. According to the Palermo Protocol “trafficking in persons” means:

(...) the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs (UN, 2000b: article 3).

This definition laid the foundations to tackle trafficking and is binding for all countries which signed the convention. The conference distinguished the difference between trafficking in persons and smuggling of migrants. The latter is defined as: “(...) the procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit, of the illegal entry of a person into a State Party of which the person is not a national or a permanent resident” (UN, 2000c: article 3).

The foremost alteration is that the purpose of trafficking in human beings is exploitation while smuggling of migrants aims for unlawful border crossing to another country in order to obtain material benefits (Council of Europe, 2005). However, smuggling can become trafficking when smuggled person experiences exploitation at any point from recruitment through to arrival at the destination (Goodey, 2008 p.422). Additionally, human trafficking can occur within state boundary and does not need to involve international travel (Council of Europe, 2005).

Methodology

The methodology for this project was literature review. It comprised gathering and critically evaluating relevant publications on the subject of human trafficking. Main sources were books and journal articles. However, the relevant information was also extracted from international conference documents and applicable internet sources. These were found mostly by searching library database and Internet websites. The method of snowballing was also used to gather relevant material.

The limitation on this type of research is the comprehensive reliance on previously published materials. The data available might not be fully updated. Furthermore, this does not provide

new information as with different type of research studies like ethnography. However, ethnographic research on human trafficking might be difficult to conduct as reaching the participants might be the problem. Even if access to women was available they might not agree to talk. There are also ethical issues of operating such research (Ryman, 2008).

One of the sources used for this project are reports from the US Department of State (2007, 2010 & 2012). These documents provide the most recent figures of global trafficking patterns. This data is very valuable. However, it may be politically biased as extracted information from state and non-governmental organisations were not always confirmed with countries' national databases.

Chapters' outline

The first chapter will evaluate development of international legislation concerning slavery and human trafficking. This will present the growing concerns from countries about rising problem of human trafficking and methods to stop it. Changes in the legislations towards trafficking in persons exhibit shift to better tackling this crime. The second part of this section will describe various perspectives and approaches towards issue of human trafficking. It will present the correlation between these views or lack thereof.

Second chapter will look at different patterns of trafficking routes in Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States. The regions will be divided into sub-regions to present better picture of trafficking activities. It will show whether the number of victims trafficked in those areas decreases or increases. All data would relate to women and children submitted to sexual exploitation.

The last chapter will present the victimization of trafficked women and children. Each stage of trafficking process will be described. This section will also explain the manipulation and control methods used by traffickers to keep victims into obedience. Additionally, the harm experienced by trafficking victims will be illustrated in this part. Moreover, the process of trafficking will be evaluated in context of implementation human rights approach by law enforcement or lack thereof.

Chapter 1

Theories of human trafficking

1.1 Historical development of the international legislation of human trafficking

Human trafficking has its roots in slavery. However, trafficking for sexual purposes was firstly recorded at the end of nineteenth century when Caucasian ethnicity females were kidnapped and forced into prostitution: it was called the white trade slave (Lee, 2007). In 1904 International Agreement for the Suppression of White Slave Traffic was signed by 13

European countries. This resolution attempted to deal with problems of women forced into prostitution in foreign countries. It also tried to establish cooperation between nations to better tackle the problem and provide guidance on the provisions regarding support for the victims. In 1910 the International Convention for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic was enacted. This convention extended the range of provisions dealing with trafficking to include act of force and deception. The countries were advised to tackle the problem at the international and the national level. This convention stated that offenders of trafficking should be prosecuted and punished. The agreement also defined the difference between young and adult victims. For adolescents the methods of their enslavement were immaterial, however, in the case of adults some evidence of coercion was required (Gallagher, 2010).

In 1921 thirty three countries signed the International Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Women and Children. In this resolution the term “white slavery” stopped being used to recognise that victims can be from different races not only white. This Convention distinguished that girls and boys below twenty one years old could become a victim of sex trafficking. This notion also applied to women above twenty one if it involved intimidation (Gallagher, 2010).

The next conference was conducted in 1933 and resulted in signing the International Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Women. This agreement included all sexual services, not only prostitution, as a form of trafficking. The concept of consent was eradicated which meant that children and women of any age became a victim of trafficking if they were attained, lured or guided into “immoral practices”. There was no need to provide evidence on coercion or force when victims were trafficked across borders. The 1933 Convention required the exchange of information between the states and protection of the victims (Gallagher, 2010).

In 1949, the United Nation General Assembly replaced all the previous resolutions about sex trafficking and approved a new Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and of the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others. This treaty has comprised prostitution and all other forms of sexual exploitation despite the gender. It urged the State Parties to criminalise the process of trafficking as well as the end result – sexual servitude. The states were to prohibit the prostitution and prosecute those involved in managing sex businesses. Furthermore, participating countries were advised to provide support and maintain welfare for trafficked victims before taking other actions such as deportation. The convention attempted to take measures in preventing trafficking; however, there was no set mechanism to overview those provisions at international level (Gallagher, 2010).

The next signed agreement by the United Nations was the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). This resolution compelled the states to introduce legislation tackling every form of trafficking and sexual exploitation of women; however, the treaty did not define trafficking. This agreement was followed by the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) in 1989. It was related to exploitation and trafficking of children. This convention urged countries to establish appropriate laws protecting the children from enslavement and sexual servitude (Gallagher, 2010).

All of the above conventions dealt with human trade and exploitation but none of them provided the specific definition for trafficking. This changed in 2000 when UN adopted Convention against Transnational Organised Crime and its Protocols (sometimes called

Palermo Protocols) – the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children and the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Air and Sea. The first Protocol concentrates on trade in human beings and their exploitation, the second focuses on illegal migration and services provided by organised groups (UN, 2000b, c). The Trafficking Protocol endowed definition of trafficking and exploitation which was accepted by most countries. This provision included all form of exploitation such as forced labour and enslavement; not only sexual services. The notion of consent is irrelevant where trafficking victims are concerned (UN, 2000b). The British statute defines consent as a choice of actions made freely and with capacity to make that choice (Great Britain, *Sexual Offences Act 2003*). States who signed the convention must implement national law which corresponds with treaty provisions. Those requirements are:

- To prevent and combat trafficking in persons by introducing necessary legislation in domestic law and prosecute and punish offenders of the crime;
- To provide welfare and protection for trafficking victims with full respect of their human rights;
- To promote cooperation among States Parties in order to fulfil objectives set by convention (UN, 2000b).

Additionally, the Council of Europe approved the Convention on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings in 2005. This agreement encourages tackling all forms of exploitation and trafficking processes. This provision adopted the definition of trafficking from Palermo Protocols. It inspires the states to develop any means by which they can identify the causes of human trade and target them. It also advises to form educational programs to raise awareness about the problem. Although convention is not legally binding, the members who signed the treaty are expected to introduce appropriate legislation into domestic law. This resolution concentrates mainly on human rights of the victims and less on criminal justice approach (Council of Europe, 2005).

The development of the international legislation in tackling trafficking in persons shows that countries have concerns about exploitation of human beings. States which follow the conventions and introduce suitable statutes do try to protect the trafficked victims and prevent the process from happening. However, countries need to intensify the cooperation between each other on administrative and non-governmental levels. This will strengthened their chance to achieve the goal of eradicating human trafficking.

1.2 Contrasting perspective on human trafficking

Social scientists examine trafficking in persons from different perspectives in order to establish development of this phenomenon and the reasons as to why it happens. The key approaches are: modern day slavery, prostitution, migration problem, organised crime, and human rights (Lee, 2011; Di Nicola, 2005; Andreas and Nadelmann, 2006). This section will look at these concepts in more detail.

Slavery

One of the concepts of the human trafficking is modern form of slavery (Bales, 2005; Lee, 2011). Enslavement can be traced back to ancient era where slaves were sold and bought within the boundaries of law (Lee, 2007). Although slave trade has been abolished since early nineteenth century, it still exists in different forms all over the globe (Lee, 2011). This violates Article 4 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) which states: “No one shall be held in slavery or servitude. Slavery and the slave trade shall be prohibited in all their forms”. Enslavement is essentially linked with infringement of basic human rights (Lee, 2011). Kevin Bales defined new slavery as: “complete control of a person for economic exploitation by violence or threat of the violence” (2000, p. 462). Bales (2005) stated that modern slavery is evident in debt bondage, forced labour and high profits obtained by people who treat trafficked victims as tools to get their business running.

The old form of slavery trade was legal and widespread thorough the world. The African slaves were treated as possessions of the buyers. Most common form of acquiring slaves was abduction and selling auctions. The seventeenth to nineteenth century’s enslavement contributed high profits for the trading companies and states involved in human trade. This was justified by beliefs of racial and ethnic supremacy like white race dominance over others (Andreas and Nadelmann, 2006).

Although nowadays, traffickers’ methods are largely deception or false promises of benefits to coerce victims into servitude, the potential of high profits are driving forces behind human trafficking. The victims are subjected to violence and sexual exploitation, especially women and children. They might also be submitted into buying and selling processes within hidden market. Additionally, there are concealed forms of selling human beings because of technological development like Internet advertisement or newspapers. Those victims are disguised as models, escorts, masseurs or even brides. Therefore, victims of human trafficking can be perceived as modern day slaves (Aronowitz, 2009). On the other hand, Finckenauer and Chin (2010) suggest that not all women working in sex services are slaves. They argued that even if women were trafficked they often do not see themselves as victims but as migrant sex workers. This may happen if women knew the nature of the job before entering destination country and were only deceived to the amount of profits they would earn.

Prostitution

Human trafficking is often considered equivalent to prostitution, especially by public or media; this perspective emerged from the era of the white slave trade. This viewpoint also reflects international approaches over the years where all conferences about human trade were exclusively dealing with trafficking for sexual exploitation, until the UN Trafficking Protocol. Governments use this to their advantage whenever the issue of human trade is discussed openly. Media often display disturbing pictures of abused women and children to influence the public in understanding the trafficking problem (Lee 2011). The feminist abolitionists also confirmed this perception and stated that prostitution is the worst form of domination over the women and the most powerful type of abuse. There is no such thing as consent to sexual services, thus all women, especially migrant, must be forced to such activities (Barry, 1995). However, other women’ rights activists confronted the abolitionists criminalising and moralising inclinations. They argued that the sex trade, violence and working conditions of women should be targeted not the paid sex services itself. The debate continues as even the Palermo Protocol did not resolve this issue. However, the abolitionists’

perspective seems to influence the government legislative movement as prostitution is illegal in most countries (Lee, 2011).

Migration

Another perspective of human trafficking is migration. Migration occurs for many reasons such as: political conflicts, civil wars, economic inequality or religious or racial discrimination (Di Nicola, 2005). It can happen internally when people move from rural areas to big cities or internationally when inhabitants try to escape poorly developed countries into more industrial nations. Both, legal and illegal, immigrants are at risk of becoming victims of trafficking. However, authorised migrants might be subject to human and labour rights violation, when unlawful immigrants are at high risk of forced labour and all forms of exploitation (Aronowitz, 2009).

The notion of trafficking as a smuggling problem concentrates primarily on breaching the immigration laws of the states. In this concept, trafficked people are treated as violators of state regulations not as victims (Goodey, 2008). The UK Plan on Tackling Human Trafficking sets the principal rule stating that persons smuggled across international borders should be treated first and foremost as criminals infringing the immigration laws, regardless of them being potential trafficking victims (Home Office and Scottish Executive, 2007). Although governments acknowledge that human trafficking exists, they prefer to apply illegal migration as leading understanding of human trafficking (Goodey, 2008).

Immigrants travelling to Western Europe face very strict conditions to enter those countries and high security controls. Immigrants, for whom the legal access is denied, turn to smugglers to pursue their desired country. They perceived this as the only way to escape their disadvantage situations. Consequently, this puts them at risk to fall in different forms of trafficking. Generally, smugglers treat their transactions with migrants as business; they get paid for transfer and their role finishes at the final destination. However, in some situations it can become the case of trafficking, when migrants become forced to labour or debt bondage at the end of their journey. In case of women and children this can turn into sexual exploitation (Aronowitz, 2009; Di Nicola, 2005).

Organised Crime

Human trafficking is often associated with activities of organised crime groups, especially in Europe. Recently, Southeast and East Europe experienced transition from state-based to market-based economies. They would often become involved in regional or ethnic conflicts which induced growth of organised crime. Studies indicate that criminal organisations seem to expand quicker in countries within the transformation process than those with legal market. Illegitimate groups gain the money through black market operations such as sales of cigarettes and alcohol. This gives them the power to control development of state economy and in the process to interfere with market transition (Gaon and Forbord, 2005). Additionally, it allows them to acquire political, economic and law enforcement connections in countries of their interest (Di Nicola, 2005).

The organised criminal group is defined as:

(...) a structured group of three or more persons, existing for a period of time and acting in concert with the aim of committing one or more serious crimes or offences

established in accordance with this Convention, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit (UN 2000a, article 2).

Serious crimes are offences punishable by imprisonment of at least four years. The organised illegal groups are flexible, easy adapting to changes, use the new technologies to their advantage and usually operate internationally (Wright, 2011). Human trafficking is not the only activity in which criminal organisations participate; however, it is the third largest in Europe after smuggling in drugs and weapons (Gaon and Forbord, 2005). It is believed that lawbreakers use the same routes and same people for human trafficking and drug smuggling. This makes it easier to enslave women and children into sex exploitation (Wright, 2011).

The organised crime groups have the knowledge about legal system in the countries they operate. They use this to find out which countries have lenient visa requirements, where the law enforcements might be susceptible to corruption or which nations have relatively small punishments for offences related to sexual exploitation. This awareness makes it possible for criminal groups to function without being caught easily (Di Nicola, 2005). Therefore, the law enforcements have experienced difficulties in identifying and tracking unlawful organisations. Consequently, tackling human trafficking can be problematic and in order to effectively fight with this crime, transnational cooperation between states agencies need to be intensified (Gaon and Forbord, 2005).

Human Rights

Trafficking in persons can be viewed from the perspective of violating human rights. The UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948 set up fundamental provisions encompassing everyone. The conditions in which the trafficked victims are exploited breach many civil and human rights. The sufferers are denied the right to liberty, health care and the right to be free from slavery. Women and children are the most disadvantaged because in many countries their status is unequal to men. Gender discrimination is one of violations of human rights and is highly used by traffickers to target their victims (Goodey, 2003).

Human rights approach is strongly linked with slavery and prostitution. However, the later is often perceived as criminal activity rather than form of victimisation. Hence, dealing with the victims of sex trafficking from the perspective of violation of human rights may be problematic for some states. This requires from countries to provide legal, social and medical help to the victims. It is easier for the authorities to transfer the responsibility of care to the state the victim originated from. However, this way of dealing with the trafficked persons counts as further infringement of their rights. The outcome for the deportee might be falling into exploitation cycle again. Therefore, the policies need to be re-evaluated in order to sufficiently protect the victims rather than avoiding the issue altogether (Goodey, 2003; 2008).

Summary

This chapter presented various perspectives of human trafficking and development of international legislation regarding trafficking in human beings. An approach taking into account human rights (UN, 1948) is the most beneficial to the victims of human trafficking. Although countries ratify the international conventions and create appropriate national laws, implementing them is still problematic and focused on punishment rather than protection of the victims (Goodey, 2003; 2008).

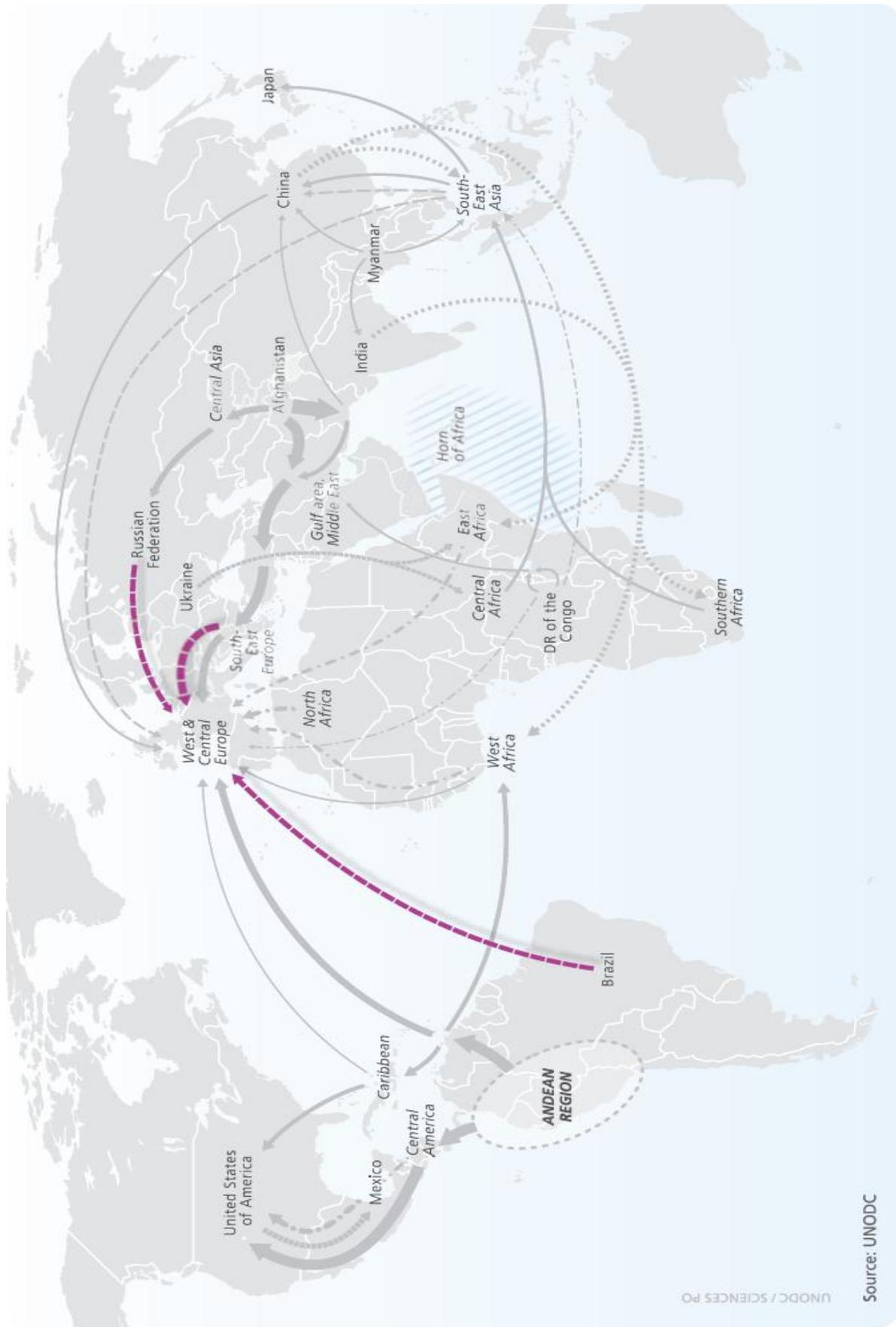
Chapter 2

Patterns of human trafficking within Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States

Human traffickers over the years developed diverse patterns of movement and exploitation. The globalisation and access to new technologies enabled them to enhance their illegal activities. Victims have been moved all over the globe for the purpose of sexual exploitation (US Department of State, 2007). United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC, 2006a) reported that trafficking has been registered in 127 countries and exploitation in 137 countries. The *Trafficking in Persons Report* portrays the occurrence of trafficking from, to, or through 170 countries (US Department of State, 2007). The map of global trafficking routes is shown in figure 1.

In order to examine trafficking patterns one needs understanding of terminology associated with it. The main terms to be identified for relevance of this chapter are origin, transit and destination countries and internal trafficking. The origin country is a state where recruitment or abduction of victims for human trade occurs. It may include people who migrated to this country or reside within. Very often the traffickers originate from the same state as victims. The transit countries are states through which traffickers transport their victims before reaching the end point. The destination country is a state where trafficked person is brought with the intention of exploitation. However, the abuse of victims can take place in all stages of trafficking process – at origin, transit and destination countries. Additionally, the journey may not end at the destination state and persons may be transferred to another country or sold to a different trafficker. Furthermore, there is the issue of internal trafficking which means exploitation of people within the country's borders. The victims of such abuse might be nationals of the country or anyone who live within its state lines. When nations experience internal trafficking, the country becomes perceived as origin and destination territory (UNICEF, 2007).

Figure 1: Global trafficking routes.

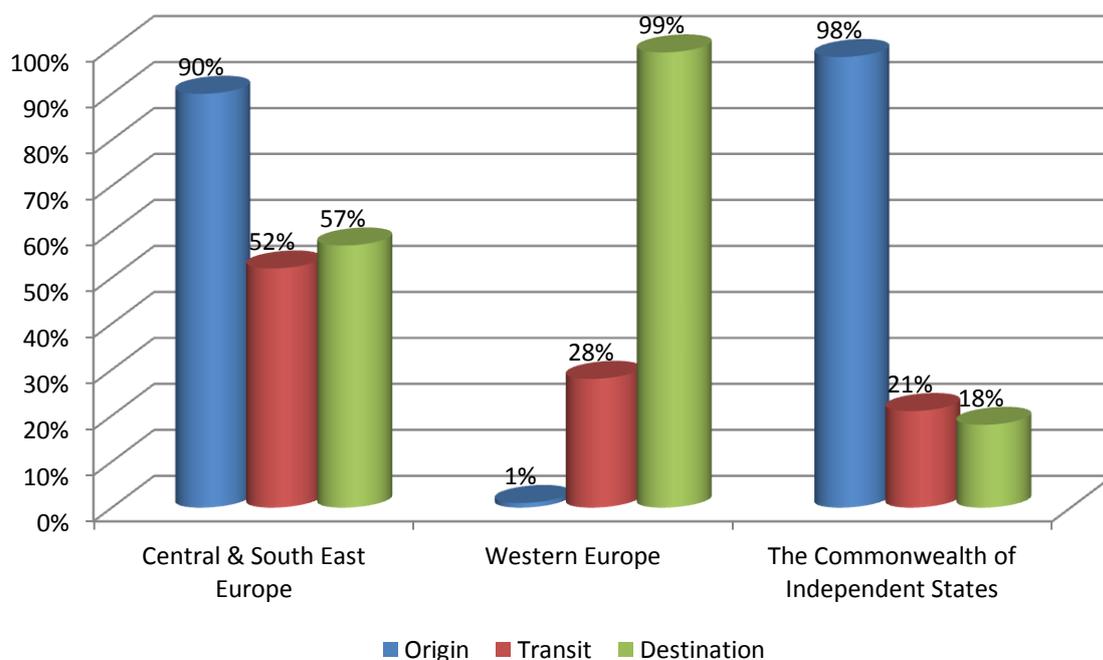


Source: UNODC, (2010).

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This chapter will identify the patterns and routes of trafficking in Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS). These two territories will be divided into sub-regions to highlight the countries prone to trafficking. The CIS are areas which function primarily as a source of finding the victims of trafficking. On a much lower level it serves as a transit and the destination zone. In contrast, Western Europe is mainly the territory where exploitation occurs. It may also be a transit area. However, the region of Central and South East Europe seems to be the most active territory for the whole process of trafficking – recruitment, transportation and exploitation of the victims. Although it seems that the primary function of this region is the origin place, the transit and exploitation phase occurs at a high level. The differences between the purposes served within those specific regions are shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2: The differences in served objectives within Europe and CIS.



Source: adapted from UNODC (2006a).

The next section will outline the trafficking patterns in each country within Europe and the CIS. These states will be segregated into specific regions consisting of the CIS and Europe (Northern, South-eastern, Central, Southern and Western). The data provided will be laid out in the tables. The information within those tables will include trafficking from, to, and within those countries. The data endows only victims ensnared for the purpose of sexual exploitation, such as: forced prostitution, servile marriages, child sex tourism or pornography. These settings will apply to each table within this section.

Commonwealth of Independent States

The CIS was shaped in 1991 when the Soviet Union dissolved. The CIS consist of countries: Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Russian Federation, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Ukraine and Uzbekistan (UNODC, 2006a, b). This region is primarily source of trafficking victims (Figure 2). The most exposed are women and

children from Moldova, Russia, Belarus and Ukraine. They are trafficked out of region mainly to Western Europe and North America, as well as within the area. However, Russia also serves as a destination country for victims originating from poor neighbouring states, where they are forced into prostitution. Furthermore, internal trafficking of women and children occurs in some countries within the region. In addition, the CIS region is the transit path for trafficking in persons to European Union (US Department of State, 2012; Figure 1). The table below provides detailed information about source and destination countries in this region.

Table 1: Trafficking patterns in CIS

Country	Internal Trafficking	Source (Trafficking to)	Destination (Trafficking from)
Armenia	Women and girls	and Women and girls to United Arab Emirates (UAE) and Turkey.	
Azerbaijan	Women and children	and Women and children to the UAE, Turkey, Russia and Iran.	
Belarus	Women and children	and Women and children to Russia, Germany, Poland, Cyprus, Italy, Egypt, the Czech Republic, Lithuania, Spain, Greece, Belgium, Turkey, Israel, Lebanon, the UAE.	
Georgia	Women and girls	and Women and girls to Turkey, the UAE and Egypt.	Women from Uzbekistan
Kazakhstan	Men, women and children	Women and children to the UAE, Lebanon, and to a lesser extent, to Russia, China, Turkey and Azerbaijan.	Women and girls from Uzbekistan, Russia, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Moldova, and Ukraine.
Kyrgyzstan	Boys and girls	Women to Turkey, the UAE, Kazakhstan, China, South Korea, Greece, Cyprus, Thailand, Germany, and Syria.	
Moldova	Girls, young women and children	Women to Turkey, Russia, Cyprus, the UAE, Bulgaria, Kosovo, Israel, Indonesia, Malaysia, Lebanon, Italy, Ukraine, Greece, Albania, Romania, Poland, Slovenia, Spain, Tajikistan, the Czech Republic, and other Western European countries.	

Russian Federation	Men, women and children	Women to Northeast Asia, Europe, Central Asia, and the Middle East. Men and women to China, Japan, the Middle East, and the Republic of Korea.	Women from Europe and Africa. Children from Ukraine and Moldova. Men and women from Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, Ukraine, Moldova, and Belarus.
Tajikistan	Women	Women to the UAE, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Afghanistan and Kazakhstan.	
Turkmenistan	Women from rural provinces	Women to Turkey, Russia, the United Kingdom (UK), Cyprus and Kazakhstan.	Victims from Uzbekistan, Ukraine and Azerbaijan.
Ukraine	Women and minors	Men, women and children to Russia, Poland, Iraq, Portugal, the UAE, the Czech Republic, Turkey, Germany, Azerbaijan, Israel, Lithuania, Lebanon, Cyprus, Greece, Italy, Macedonia, Spain, Syria, the United States (US), Albania, Bahrain, Bosnia & Herzegovina, China, Egypt, Hungary, India, Kazakhstan, Kosovo, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, Slovenia, South Africa, Syria, Turkmenistan, and the Netherlands.	Men, women, and children from Uzbekistan, Pakistan, Cameroon, Moldova, Germany, Albania, and the Czech Republic.
Uzbekistan	Women and children	Women and girls to the UAE, India, Kazakhstan, Russia, Turkey, Thailand, Malaysia, Republic of Korea, Japan, China, Indonesia.	Few victims from Tajikistan and Kyrgyzstan.

Source: adapted from US Department of State (2012).

Europe

European continent is a territory where trafficking in persons operates in high volume. Different regions within correspond with particular phase of the trafficking process. Europol suggests that number of victims trafficked into European Union has increased over the last few years. Primary sources are Russia, Ukraine and Central and Southern Europe, while the major destination points are countries within Western Europe (Europol, 2011; Figures 1&2).

The British Serious Organised Crime Agency (SOCA, 2006) has identified different trafficking routes into Europe. Although tracks change, the organisation has detected the connection points. There are six main transfer routes used for trafficking and the smuggling:

- 1) From Russia (nexus point: Moscow) through the Baltic States to the Czech Republic and Poland;
- 2) From Ukraine (nexus point: Kiev) to Poland, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Slovakia, and Slovenia;
- 3) From Turkey (nexus point: Istanbul) to the Balkans (Belgrade and Sarajevo are nexus points) and on to either Greece or Italy (nexus point: Rome);
- 4) From Turkey to northern Cyprus, then on to the European Union via Romania and Bulgaria;
- 5) From Libya (nexus point: Tripoli) to Greece or Italy; or from Somalia via the Suez Canal to Greece or Italy;
- 6) From West Africa to Spain (SOCA, 2006 cited in Aronowitz, 2009).

The next section will look at trafficking patterns in different regions of Europe.

Northern Europe

The region of Northern Europe is formed from the Nordic countries (Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden) and the Baltic States (Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania). The trafficking patterns appear to occur between those two sub-regions. The Baltic countries are the source whereas the Nordic territory is the destination of trafficking (Aronowitz, 2009). However, Lithuania might be also an exploitation zone for victims from Belarus and Russia. Furthermore, abuse of minors and internal trafficking are substantial within Baltic countries. In Lithuania children as young as age 11 are known to work as prostitutes and orphaned children have been used to make pornographic movies (US Department of State, 2012). Table 2 presents the roots of victims trafficked from and to this region.

Table 2: Trafficking patterns in Northern Europe

Country	Internal Trafficking	Source (Trafficking to)	Destination (Trafficking from)
Denmark			Women and children from Africa, Southeast Asia, Eastern Europe, and Latin America.
Estonia	Women	Women and girls to Finland, the Netherlands, the UK, Germany, Spain, France, Cyprus, Portugal, Ireland, and Italy.	
Finland			Women from Russia, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Bulgaria, the Caucasus, and Asia, and the Caribbean.

Latvia	Women and girls	and Women to Italy, Spain, Ireland, Cyprus, Greece, the Netherlands, the UK and Germany.
Lithuania	Women and girls	and Women to the UK, Germany, Spain, the Netherlands, Greece, Italy, France, Denmark, Sweden, Finland, Norway, and the Czech Republic.
Norway		Women and children from Nigeria, Lithuania, Romania, Hungary, Bulgaria, Algeria, Ghana, Eritrea, Cameroon, Kenya, Somalia, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Brazil, China and the Philippines.
Sweden	Girls	Women and children from Romania, Russia, Bulgaria, Hungary, the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Belarus, Albania, Estonia, Lithuania, Armenia, Nigeria, Tanzania, Kenya, Ghana, Uganda, Sierra Leone, Gambia, Thailand, China, Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, and Mongolia.

Source: adapted from US Department of State (2012).

South-Eastern Europe

This territory contains countries of Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Kosovo, Macedonia, Montenegro, Romania and Serbia. These nations serve as a territory of internal trafficking, source and destination zones (Figure 2). Women from the region are trafficked mostly to Western Europe; whereas victims from Moldova, Russia and Ukraine are exploited within the region (Lehti and Aromaa, 2007). South-Eastern Europe is believed to be the centre of human trafficking. However, research conducted by three different organisations indicates decline in the number of victims (Limanowska, 2005). On the other hand, another study suggests the amount of victims increased in the region but they are less visible, hence, not identified. Traffickers seem to adapt their routes to changes generated by law enforcement. When one passage is destroyed, a new appears in its place (Aronowitz, 2009). Table 3 bestows the origin of victims trafficked from, to and within the region.

Table 3: Trafficking patterns in South-Eastern Europe

Country	Internal Trafficking	Source (Trafficking to)	Destination (Trafficking from)
Albania	Women and children	and Women and children to Greece, Italy, Macedonia, Kosovo, Serbia and throughout Western Europe.	Victims from Greece and Ukraine.
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Women, girls and children	and Roma Women and children to Azerbaijan, Slovenia, Croatia, Spain and other countries in Europe.	Victims from Ukraine, Albania, Serbia, Kosovo, and Germany.
Bulgaria	Bulgarian victims	Women and children to Netherlands, Belgium, France, Austria, Italy, Germany, the US, the Czech Republic, Finland, Greece, Spain, Norway, Poland, Switzerland, Turkey, Cyprus, Macedonia, and South Africa.	
Croatia	Girls and women	Women and girls to Europe.	Women and girls from the US, Serbia, Bosnia and Herzegovina and other parts of Europe.
Kosovo	Females	Women and children to European countries.	Women from Moldova, Albania, Poland, Serbia and other European countries.
Macedonia	Women and children	and Men, women and children to European countries.	Victims from Albania, Bulgaria, Serbia, Ukraine, and Kosovo.
Montenegro		Women and girls to Balkan countries, including Serbia. Roma girls to Switzerland and Germany.	Women and girls from Eastern Europe and Balkan countries.
Romania	Men, women, and children.	Men, women, and children to European countries, including Germany, France, Cyprus, Spain, Hungary, Malta, Switzerland, Sweden, Greece, Finland, and Belgium.	Victims from Moldova.

Children likely represent at least one third of Romanian trafficking victims.

Serbia	Women, minors and Roma children	Victims from Montenegro, Bosnia, Ukraine, Moldova, Albania, Turkey, Slovenia, Russia, Austria and European countries.
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Source: adapted from US Department of State (2012).

Central Europe

This region consists of the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia (Aronowitz, 2009). The territory is mainly transit zone for trafficking from East to Western Europe. It is also a destination area for women trafficked for sexual exploitation, mainly from Russia, Ukraine, Romania and Moldova. Victims from Central Europe are forced into prostitution primarily in Austria, Germany and the Netherlands. The number of victims trafficked out of this region has been decreasing; while the figures on trafficking into Central Europe show the opposite pattern (US Department of State, 2012; Figures 1&2). Table 4 provides detailed patterns of trafficked victims within the area.

Table 4 Trafficking patterns in Central Europe

Country	Internal Trafficking	Source (Trafficking to)	Destination (Trafficking from)
Czech Republic	Roma and Czech women	Roma women to Western countries including Sweden, Switzerland, Slovenia, and the UK.	Women from Slovakia, Ukraine, Russia, Nigeria, Brazil and other countries.
Hungary	Roma women and Hungarian girls	Women to the Netherlands, Switzerland, the UK, Denmark, Germany, Austria, Italy, Norway, Spain, Ireland, Belgium, Greece, and the US.	Women and children from Slovakia, Romania, Moldova, Poland, Ukraine, and China.
Poland	Women and children	Women and children to Germany, Austria, the Netherlands, Italy, and Finland.	Women and children from Ukraine, Bulgaria, Belarus, Romania, and Africa.
Slovak Republic	Roma women and girls	Women to the Netherlands, Slovenia, Denmark, Germany and other European states.	Women and girls from Ukraine, Romania, Bulgaria and the former Soviet Union.

Slovenia	Women and children	and Women to Western Europe.	in countries in Women and children from Moldova, Serbia, Croatia, Ukraine, Romania, Slovakia and the Czech Republic.
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Source: adapted from US Department of State (2012).

Southern Europe

The region of Southern Europe includes countries: Greece, Italy, Malta, Portugal and Spain. This territory serves primarily as destination for victims trafficked from the CIS and Eastern Europe. Women and children are forced into sexual services. Italy is a leading country of exploitation of trafficked victims as well as transit zone. There is an increase in number of Romanian adolescents forced into prostitution. Moreover, Portugal serves as source country for trafficking to other parts of Europe (US Department of State, 2012). Table 5 presents the origin of victims exploited in this region.

Table 5 Trafficking patterns in Southern Europe

Country	Internal Trafficking	Source (Trafficking to)	Destination (Trafficking from)
Greece			Females from Albania, Belarus, Bulgaria, Latvia, Lithuania, Moldova, Russia, Romania, Ukraine, the Balkans, Asia and Africa.
Italy			Victims from Romania, Nigeria, Morocco, Albania, Moldova, Russia, Ukraine, Bulgaria, China, Belarus, Brazil, Peru, Colombia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Ecuador.
Malta	Children		Women and children from Romania and Russia.
Portugal	Teenage girls	Men and women to European countries.	Women and children from Brazil, Eastern Europe, and Africa.
Spain			Female and male victims from Eastern Europe, Latin America, East Asia, and sub-Saharan Africa.

Source: adapted from US Department of State (2012).

Western Europe

This territory comprises of: Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Iceland, Ireland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Switzerland and the UK. This region serves as destination and transit zone for victims trafficked from all over the globe (Figures 1&2). The victims originate mainly from the CIS, Central and South-Eastern Europe and the Baltic countries (Lehti and Aromaa, 2007). The Western states have taken considerable actions to tackle human trafficking. They implement appropriate laws and measures to help victims trafficked to those states. However, the number of victims identified in the region has not been decreasing. This suggests the need for further changes in approaching human trafficking problem (US Department of State, 2012). Table 6 bestows origin countries of victims trafficked into this territory.

Table 6 Trafficking patterns in Western Europe

Country	Internal Trafficking	Source (Trafficking to)	Destination (Trafficking from)
Austria			Men, women and children from Eastern Europe, Africa, and Asia.
Belgium	Underage girls		Men, women and children from Eastern Europe, Africa, East Asia, Brazil and India. Prominent source countries are Bulgaria, Romania, Albania, Nigeria, China, and Turkey.
France			Men, women and children from Eastern Europe, West Africa, Asia, Caribbean and Brazil.
Germany	Women, children and men		Women, children, and men from Europe (mostly Romania, Bulgaria and Poland), Nigeria and Asia.
Iceland			Female victims from Eastern Europe, Russia, Africa, and Brazil.
Ireland	Children		Women, children and men from Eastern Europe, Africa, South America, and Asia.
Luxembourg			Men, women, and children from Africa (mostly Nigeria), Estonia, Kazakhstan, Bulgaria, Russia, Ukraine, Brazil, France and Belgium.
The Netherlands	Men, women and children		Women and children primarily from Nigeria, Hungary, Bulgaria, Poland, Guinea, Romania, and China; also

from Macedonia and Uganda.

Men and boys from Poland, Hungary, Nigeria, Angola, Sierra Leone, Guinea, Ghana, China, Romania, Portugal and Suriname.

Switzerland

Women and children from Central and Eastern Europe (Hungary, Poland, Romania, Bulgaria and Ukraine), Latin America, Thailand and Africa (Nigeria, Guinea, and Cameroon).

The United Kingdom

Men, women, and children from Africa, Asia, and Eastern Europe (victims were identified from over 36 countries).

Source: adapted from US Department of State (2012).

Summary

The patterns of human trafficking described in this chapter present general picture of this phenomenon in Europe and the CIS. Although the points of entry and exit seem to be established, the routes and passageways appear to fluctuate continuously (SOCA, 2006). Furthermore, the victims' ethnic background recorded at the destination states seem to shift as well over the time. This suggests that traffickers can moderately easily adapt to changes and use various methods and ideas to obtain their acquired goal.

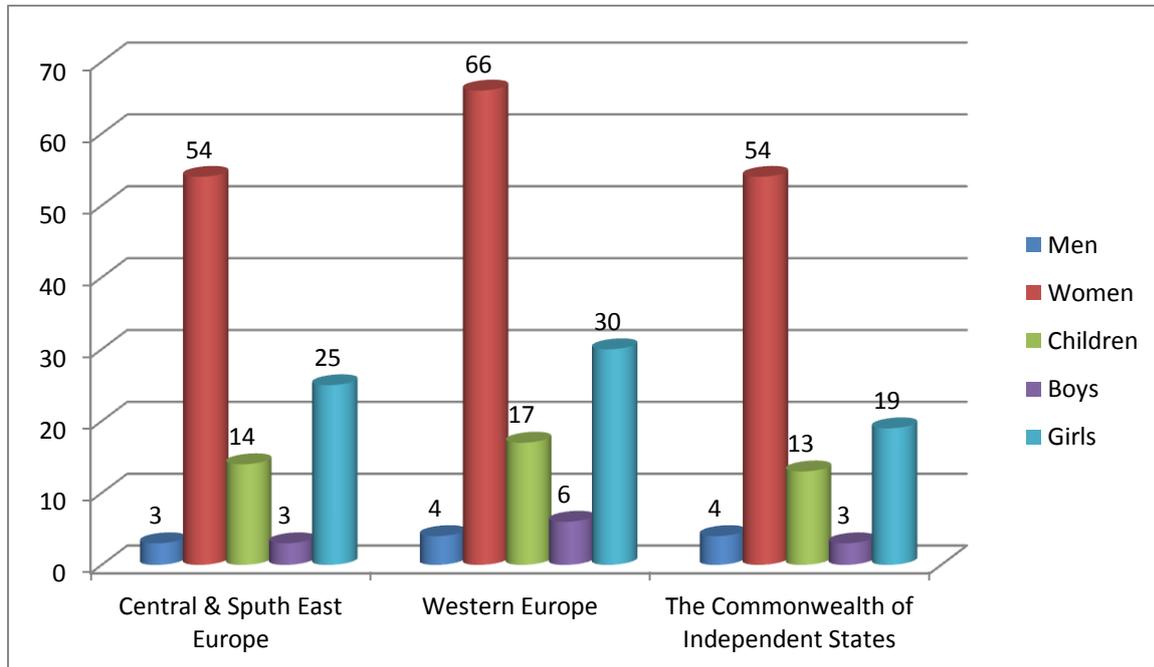
Chapter 3

Victims of human trafficking

The data collected by United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) suggest that two third of victims identified by the state system were women and 79% of the victims were exploited in sex industry. However, these records do not provide full account of victims of human trafficking. The reason behind it might be that each country has different laws around trafficking in human beings and its victims. Some state laws do not recognise men as victims of trafficking, while others concentrate only on sexual exploitation aspect of human trade. If the legislations recognise all forms of trafficking, sexual exploitation of women and children might be a primary aspect for the law enforcement. Thus, the victims of other forms of exploitation may not be detected. Additionally, there is vast number of sufferers who are not discovered by governmental and non-governmental organisations as traffickers operate under the radar of policing (UNODC, 2010).

For the purpose of this project, the profile of victims will be generated from within the available information on Europe and the CIS. Although the number of available sources may vary between the regions, the findings suggest similar patterns in those areas. The highest percentage of persons reported as victims are adult women. The second documented group are minors, which include boys, girls and children (those accounts of human trafficking when gender of child is not provided). Adult males are registered in relatively small number of sources (UNODC, 2006a). The chart in figure 3 presents comparison of those findings in specific regions.

Figure 3: Victims' profile.



Source: adapted from UNODC (2006a).

The next section will look at the reason why women and children are targeted for human trafficking. It will also describe the process of human trafficking which will be divided into particular segments: recruitment, transportation and exploitation. Each stage will explain modus operandi created by traffickers. This will be followed by methods of control applied by traffickers in order to keep victims into submission. The last part of this chapter will focus on harm the victims experience through their enslavement and how they cope with this trauma after being rescued.

3.1 The reasons for targeting women and children into human trade

Women and children seem to be most susceptible to become victims of human trafficking (Figure 3). There are many reasons behind targeting females into submission and sexual exploitation. Children and women are perceived as innocent and unable to protect themselves. This makes it easier to maintain control over them. Traffickers use this to their advantage (Aronowitz, 2009).

One of the factors contributing to women vulnerability to being victimised is poverty and lack of employment within their home country. In many societies women are treated as

unequal to men which might result in lesser possibilities of education and acquiring good job skills (Aronowitz, 2009). During the economic instability or civil conflict when the unemployment and poverty increases, women are first to feel that shift. The lack of an adequate education limits their possibilities in job market. Thus, they are willing to travel abroad to make their life, and often also their families, better. Unfortunately, traffickers learned to target women's needs and use this to trap them into sexual exploitation networks (Goodey, 2003).

Furthermore, there is the issue of demand and supply. In Western Europe prostitution can be legal, semi-legal or tolerated. The women working as free agents seem to have higher rates for their services than trafficked victims. The enslaved and exploited women do not have control of that as their oppressors are in charge of the fees. They are also forced to provide wider range of sexual services including sex without protection. This attracts men to use provisions of trafficked prostitutes. The people benefiting from this are the traffickers (Goodey, 2003; Aronowitz, 2009; Shelley, 2007).

3.2 The process of human trafficking

Human trafficking can be separated into three stages: recruitment, transportation and exploitation. This section will look at each phase in more detail to present better understanding of the process.

Recruitment

The countries of origin are the places where the process of finding the victims occurs. Very often traffickers target people who have already decided about leaving their home country in search for employment. These individuals have habitually experienced poverty or financial problems, thus, they believe in chance for a better life abroad (Gaon and Forbord, 2005). There are five primary methods which criminals might use to contact their victim:

- 1) Placement of a work advertisement in local newspapers or internet is one of the most common schemes to ensnare women into human trade. Different types of agencies offer a well paid job abroad as au pairs, models, dancers, housemaids or waitresses (Di Nicola, 2005). However, the posts are made by traffickers who deceive potential victims into exploitation (Gaon and Forbord, 2005).
- 2) Someone known to the victim offers a lucrative job in Western Europe. Instead of helping with immigration procedures and employment, the contact person assists traffickers to enslave the women. Sometimes they are aware about being smuggled to the destination country but they are made to believe they would work as waitresses or housemaids (Shelley, 2007).
- 3) Another way is direct contact with a member of criminal organisation. Traffickers approach women already working in sex industry and offer them better money for the same type of job abroad. Although females are not deceived to the nature of job, they are not aware of the exploitation they will face at the end (Gaon & Forbord, 2005). Katia described in case C (Appendix) has been recruited this way.

- 4) False promises of marriage can also be form of deception of women. Criminals fake sentimental attachment and engagement to the girls so they cooperate when leaving the country (Di Nicola, 2005). The women believe they will live a better life with the loved one in a foreign country, in reality they are forced to work as prostitutes (Shelley, 2007). Furthermore, in some countries parents or family members of young girls arrange the marriage with someone living abroad. It is impossible to establish whether relatives are aware of the fate awaiting the females or whether they too, are deceived. In extreme cases the close family would sell the women to traffickers with full knowledge of the outcome (Makisaka, 2009). In Eastern Europe and former Soviet Union orphan children are sold to organised crime groups under cover of fake adoption (Shelley, 2007). An example of such radical circumstances is described in case studies B and D (Appendix).
- 5) Kidnapping women or children have been another method of acquiring victims for human trade. This approach is not very common within sex industry but in some countries, like Albania, appears quite regularly (Aronowitz, 2009). Case studies A and E (Appendix) are the examples of using this technique.

The above methods of acquiring victims into human trafficking are the most common and documented; however, traffickers are not limited by them and can find other means to enslave women or children (Makisaka, 2009). Information gathered by law enforcement agencies and non-governmental organisations suggest sex traffickers target victims of their own background or nationality (Aronowitz, 2009). The oppressors have often been known to the victims (Makisaka, 2009). This implies that lawbreakers do not ensnare the victims as a result of opportunity but they target specific type of people and then approach them in prearranged mode (UNODC, 2006a).

Transportation

The methods of conveyance vary in each case. The victims can travel by cars, buses, trains or in long distances by plane (Di Nicola, 2005). The traffickers frequently corrupt border officials in order to have the crossing easier (Aronowitz, 2009). Moreover, the victims may be smuggled through the borders walking, under cover of the night. In those cases the victims are already deprived from documents or were aware that their desired place would be reached by illegal means (Gaon and Forbord, 2005). This form of transportation was illustrated in case studies D and E (Appendix).

Other way of entering a foreign country involves presentation of stolen or counterfeit documents which provide the right of passing (Chalke, 2009). The victims might have agreed to that option initially if they have believed that it was their only possibility to obtain the job and better life abroad (Gaon and Forbord, 2005). The last option used by traffickers to enter their destination is presentation of authentic documents with false visa entitlements or fully legitimate (Chalke, 2009). In this scenario most of trafficked persons are completely unaware what is awaiting them at their destination. Often they are treated very well during the travel and having original documents make them believe in job offer being legitimate (Aronowitz, 2009). However, some women travel voluntarily with full knowledge of the nature of the job, but not realising the exploitation aspect at the end (Di Nicola, 2005). In some cases the females have paid their own travel expenses (Gaon and Forbord, 2005). The case C (Appendix) described this method of travel.

Most women within Europe and Balkans are trafficked by bus or car, due to the short distances between particular countries. Victims from former Russia and CIS are mostly trafficked using fake passports and fake visas. Additionally, false marriages are used as a method to enter the western countries (UNODC, 2006a).

Exploitation

The UN Convention does not provide adequate definition of exploitation; however, this word is used to refer to situations involving an abuse of human rights (UN, 2000b). The European Commission (n. d.) defined sexual exploitation: “as the use of another person in non-consensual sex for profit”. In majority of situations, sex trafficking takes place in hidden settings such as private houses or brothels. However, in some circumstances victims of human trade might participate in street-level prostitution. Moreover, prostitution and trafficking occurs behind closed doors of public and legal places like strip clubs, massage parlours and saunas (UNODC, 2006a). The most common places victims are forced to work:

- Closed brothels are typically based in restaurants or hotels where women live. They have to use their bedrooms to provide services to clients (Gaon and Forbord, 2005). According to victims’ statements closed brothels are dirty and do not have enough bathroom facilities (Human Rights Watch, 2002). There are strict rules imposed in that type of accommodation. Females have very limited freedom of movement and no adequate health care. They are also forced to have unprotected sex which makes them susceptible to venereal diseases or unwanted pregnancy (Gaon and Forbord, 2005).
- Open brothels are set up in apartment or house where group of women work together. The girls have some form of independence which allows them to go shopping without supervision. Women have to pay the expenses for living in the house, as well as to the pimp for “protection”. However, they might be able to save small amount of money for themselves (Gaon and Forbord, 2005).
- Escort agencies present most erudite form of prostitution. Women attend only to one client per day or night. They are expected to socialise and speak the language of the country they are in. These forms of services seem to be more sophisticated and women are not expected only to provide sex services but good company and soft talk. Hence, those provisions might be quite expensive. It may also seem that not all women working in escort agencies might be the victims of trafficking, as there are better means to escape the trap (Dickson, 2004).
- Massage parlours operate legally but behind closed doors this places provide illegal sex services. Women in those setting are forced to work as a masseuses and prostitutes. They are enslaved in the workplace which serves as living accommodation as well. They are forbidden to leave or speak with anybody outside the parlours. Victims within those establishments are exposed to violence especially if they decline to have unprotected sex (Gaon and Forbord, 2005; Dickson, 2004).
- Go-go bars have basic settings with a table or lap dancing. Women working in these types of places are usually from the local area. They have to dance nearly naked and are supposed to engage men in heavy drinking and sex. Sexual services are provided in the rooms around the bar or other locations. Women are obliged to have sex with anyone and if they refuse they are beaten by the security guards (Gaon and Forbord, 2005).

- Children are often forced into marriage or sexual exploitation. Girls, as young as 13, mainly from Eastern Europe, are trafficked as “mail-order brides”, and they are forced into pornography industry or prostitution (UNICEF, n. d.). Access to the technological tools by traffickers, like Internet, would prove hard to estimate the number of children sold and exploited through pornographic websites or movies (Aronowitz, 2009).

These examples of working places for sex trafficking victims do not provide full extend of possible settings as well as forms of exploitation. However, they endow overall picture of mistreating women and children within the sex industry. Although those forms of trafficking were extracted from research in Southern Europe, similar patterns can be found in other regions (see Dickson, 2004). It might be true that some women chose to work in sex services but many of them are victims and do not have control of where they are placed. Their exploitation does not involve only delivering sexual provisions but also the forms and quantity of those services. In addition, many men might be aware of the women’s slavery situation but they do not act on these suspicions (US Department of State, 2012).

3.3 Control over victims

Violence or threats of violence are the most common forms of controlling the victims by traffickers. It can take many different shapes. The criminals use physical and sexual abuse to intimidate women and make them submit to trafficker’s orders. Additionally, offenders might threaten to harm victim’s family if they do not cooperate (Aronowitz, 2009). In the United Kingdom, a young Czech woman was coerced into prostitution because trafficker threatened to use her children in pornographic videos (Russel, 2008). Thus, violence is exercised regularly to make sure victims comply with the requirements and to prevent future disobedience (Aronowitz, 2009). Case studies A, D and E (Appendix) provide an example of this method.

Furthermore, physical force can be used as a punishment for breaking the rules established by pimps. Women may be harshly beaten if they are discovered during escape, communication with clients or collaboration with police (Aronowitz, 2009). Another use of violence occurs when traffickers want to send a warning message to other victims of human trade. Punishment may be severe and it may take place in front of women in the establishment. For instance, in Serbia, a woman was beheaded in public because she refused to work as a prostitute (Spector, 1998). In addition, case E (Appendix) presents evidence of this practice.

Additional method of controlling the victims is restriction of movement. The exploiters confiscate passports or any identification documents from the women which makes them vulnerable (US Department of State, 2012). The lack of valid official documents stops them from trying to contact the law enforcement. The sufferers are told they have no legal right to work or live in the country. Traffickers manipulate women by informing them that they will be arrested if the police are informed. The fear of imprisonment makes the victims more cooperative to the demands of their oppressors (Gaon and Forbord, 2005).

Moreover, the victims are under constant surveillance to prevent their escape. Often the only locations they see are their work place and the living accommodation (US Department of State, 2012). The sufferers often do not speak the local language, do not know the

environment around them and do not trust anyone including law enforcement authorities. This combination of factors forces the victims to obey the traffickers (Regan, 2000). Case studies C and E (Appendix) portray this technique of control.

The other known method of keeping the victims under control is debt bondage. Traffickers tell the women that they have to work in prostitution until their travel expenses are repaid. However, the demanded fees are much higher than the real costs of such journeys. Additionally, women are expected to pay for the living arrangements and “protection” provided by pimps. To maintain power over the women or children the oppressors resell them to another person which increase the level of debt (Regan, 2000). Trafficking patterns in Italy suggest that women, who repaid their debts after years of exploitation, were able to leave. However, those women would often become themselves involved in recruiting the victims and forcing them into prostitution. Conversely, some women are never unbound from the debt and they are exploited all their life unless they are freed by the law enforcement (Aronowitz, 2009).

To maintain further domination over the sufferers, pimps and brothel owners trade women and children regularly, after they spent certain period of time in one place. This ensures that owners of the sex establishments have new girls every few months to entertain regular and attract new clients. In addition, it helps the criminals to protect their business because rotation of victims prevents them from feeling secure enough to attempt escaping (Aronowitz, 2009; Europol, 2011). From the victims’ perspective, it is harder to seek help in a new place when nothing is recognisable. In short period of time, it is also harder to develop bond with other girls or customers. This makes them even more vulnerable and acceptant of their fate (Gaon and Forbord, 2005).

Although violence and restriction of movement are used regularly to manipulate the victims, there are other methods more psychological and less detectable. The prostitution ring in Netherlands ran by two Turkish-German brothers (Hasan and Saban B.) was playing on women’s emotions to have more power over them. They created false relationships and then made the women jealous. The conception of emotional reliance allowed them to exploit their victims for a long time and women might have not been aware they were abused (Aronowitz, 2009).

All of the above methods have the same purpose – control and manipulation of the victims trapped in sex trafficking. The oppressors treat women as their own properties and investments to gain high profits. They may use any means to ensure cooperation and obedience. Therefore, it makes it hard for victims to break free from their undesired situation.

3.4 Harm to the victim and victim support

Victims of human trafficking may experience trauma on different levels, depending on factors such as: the age of the person, the nature and length of exploitation or the magnitude of violence and control they were subjected to. Many of them suffer from depression, psychiatric and psychotic disorders. The victims’ mental states can take different forms like withdrawal, feeling of helplessness, self-blame, incapability of communication or even suicidal thoughts (Aronowitz, 2009).

These persons need help to return to society. Unfortunately, very often women do not receive adequate support when they are rescued by law enforcement and may suffer further victimisation by being treated as criminals not the sufferers. They frequently remain in prisons or are deported to their home countries due to lack of legal documents. Additionally, victims of forced prostitution are often shunned within their communities and families. They do not receive the family support to heal from the trauma. This makes them susceptible to further abuse and exploitation (Goodey, 2003; Gaon and Forbord, 2005). An example of not adequate protection by law enforcement is provided in case E (Appendix).

During the sexual exploitation period the young women and children do not receive an adequate medical care (US State Department, 2012). The victims are also forced to have unprotected sex with many males, which make the women susceptible to sexually transmitted diseases or unwanted pregnancy. The risks include infection with HIV/AIDS or reproductive illnesses which could affect females' future ability to have children (Zimmerman, 2003). Moreover, bad living conditions with restriction on food and drink, long working hours can harm victims' health further (US State Department, 2012).

The trauma might have different shapes and forms but its consequences have one thing in common: the suffering of human being. The problem is that psychological injuries are not only imposed by traffickers but also by law enforcement authorities and communities surrounding the victims. Thus, in order to change the situation societies have to notice the victims, not the trade (Goodey, 2003).

Summary

This chapter established various stages of trafficking in human beings. Each phase presents traumatic events experienced by women and children who happened to fall into the trap of enslavement. Criminals use many methods to capture or recruit and exploit them for profit. Some victims are aware about the human trafficking while others become involved involuntary. The end of trafficking process is always the same – exploitation.

Conclusion

Trafficking in human beings is a worldwide precedent which may affect men, women and children. It has evolved from the slave trade and adapted to the modern life. It has different forms and shapes but the common parameter is exploitation. The victims are treated as commodities to obtain profits. This project has outlined trafficking within Europe and the CIS, where the most common form of human trade is sexual exploitation. The primary victims of the abuse in those regions are women and children.

The trafficking patterns constantly fluctuate, even though the main entry and exit points are recognised. Traffickers establish new routes and transit methods accordingly to their needs. It also appears that number of victims of different nationalities change from time to time. International trafficking networks are highly adaptable which makes it difficult for countries to fight with this type of crime. Governments and the law enforcement agencies have to cooperate in order to expose each stage of trafficking process. The aims of the international

forces are to dissolve and eventually destroy the criminal networks. Prevention from re-occurrence of sex exploitation is the ultimate goal of such organisations.

The states play a major role in undertaking actions on stopping human trafficking. However, in order to be effective, the authorities have to address the origins of human exploitation. In particular women and children are prone to abuse. Due to their vulnerability, their status is often unequal to men. Therefore, it should be the obligation for the governing bodies to provide education and job opportunities with the aim of eliminating poverty and corruption. More so, the lack of the former and presence of the latter is to advantage of the traffickers and should be avoided.

However, the varied or even conflicting approaches to trafficking in the different states within Europe and the CIS do convey challenges in efficient tackling the crime. Ratifying the international conventions and implementation of laws in domestic legislation is the first step towards it. Nonetheless, these measures must combine effective law enforcement with the human rights concept. It is important to eradicate trafficking networks but the focus must be protection of the victims. They require the legal, medical and psychological support to heal and rebuild their lives. Unfortunately, more often than none, the support they receive is not sufficient even in countries successfully implementing the criminal justice. Moreover, the discrepancy between the number of victims and the traffickers brought to justice is still appallingly high.

After all, there is an endless source of the possible victims trying to improve their lives. Exploitation affects victims in various levels. Victims' internal strength and the forms of protection and support they were given, after being rescued, will determine if they manage to survive their situation psychologically and emotionally. Finally, the way of dealing with their trauma will depend whether or not they recognise themselves as the victims of human trafficking.

Appendix

Case studies

Case A: Trafficking from Albania to Western Europe

Anna have been abducted from Albania and taken to Western European country. She was forced to provide sexual services for five months. She was beaten, sliced with knives and raped repeatedly by her pimp in order to keep her under control. After few months he took Anna to another European country. She tried to get help while crossing the border by informing officer that she had fake passport. She was sent to a refugee camp, but then two Albanian social workers released her back to her oppressor. During next four years Anna was constantly exploited in sex industry and was forced to undertake four abortions. Five years after her initial capture, her pimp was arrested and deported to Albania. Anna informed the police about the trafficking and consequently she was also deported. Her trafficker found her and resumed the abuse. Anna tried to find justice for herself and made the case against her trafficker in Albania, sadly he remains free. She has been refused residency and support from the countries in which she was abused. Anna has found place of safety in the United States where she is healing her trauma and has taken up studying at a university (adapted from US Department of State, 2010).

Case B: Internal trafficking in Kazakhstan

Darya came from village in rural Kazakhstan. She travelled to capital city Astana to look for work after she divorced her husband. When she arrived, she went to her brother-in-law for help. However, he seized her documents and sold her to a pimp. Darya managed to escape after two years of forced work as prostitute. She was found by police during an anti-trafficking action and was sent to a shelter for victims of human trade. She was 20 weeks pregnant at that time. Darya will remain in a shelter until she finishes a manicurist course and finds job and place to live (adapted from US Department of State, 2010).

Case C: Trafficking from Bulgaria to France

Katia, a Bulgarian woman in her late twenties, was recruited by a trafficker to travel voluntarily to France, where she was told she could make a lot of money as a prostitute. Upon her arrival in France, she was met at the airport by the trafficker, who then took away her passport and locked her in a hotel room in a suburb of Paris. She was told that she would have to pay off a travel debt of over 10,000 euro by having sex with a minimum of 200 people without being paid. She was kept as a virtual prisoner in the hotel sharing this miserable fate with several other women from Bulgaria, who all worked day and night with limited food and water. Finally, Katia and her colleagues were liberated in police raids. The police arrested the owner of the hotel, but the kingpin was in Germany and escaped justice (Gaon and Forbord, 2005, pp. 146).

Case D: A Girl Sold by Her Sister

Maria grew up in the countryside of an Eastern European country. She was from an abusive family with an alcoholic father who constantly beat the children. Poorly educated, Maria was sold to an unknown man by her sister when she was only 13 years old. She was taken by boat

to Italy and then sold again to another man who raped and beat her. The police rescued Maria and she returned to her family. Four days later she was sold again, this time by her father. One more she was taken to Italy, imprisoned for seven months and forced to drink vinegar. After being smuggled into the United Kingdom, she was forced to work for five years as a prostitute, seeing 65 to 70 customers a day. Maria, now 24, has been raped, beaten, sold and cut with knives. The traffickers threatened to kill her or to kidnap her sister for the same fate. She was finally able to escape and went to the police who brought her to a shelter. She still lives with the trauma (adapted from UKHTC, 2008).

Case E: Katya's story: trafficked to the UK, sent home to torture

Katya is a 24 year old woman from Moldova. She and her friend were kidnapped by traffickers from a birthday picnic when they were 14. Both girls were driven to Romania, blindfolded, taken across a river to somewhere in Hungary, then made to walk through the forest across the border at night, passing through Slovenia and arriving eventually in Italy. They were sold on to two separate men. Katya worked first in a flat in Rimini and then on the streets of Milan. After some months, she managed to escape and was sheltered for a while in the Moldovan embassy, when she discovered she was pregnant.

She returned to her family in Moldova where her traffickers found her. They beat and raped her brother and killed the family dog as a punishment for speaking to the Italian police about her bad experiences. She discovered that the friend she had been kidnapped with had been murdered by traffickers in Israel. These experiences terrified her so much that for years she avoided doing anything that might upset her traffickers in case they acted on their threats to hurt her family.

After she gave birth, and sent her daughter to live with an aunt, Katya was sent to Turkey to work in a nightclub. She was later smuggled in a lorry to work in a London brothel. During her time working as a prostitute, she was given no money for her work and was not allowed to go anywhere unaccompanied in case she tried to escape. She did not seek help from clients or speak to other girls working in the same place because she was afraid of her traffickers to find out.

The brothel, in Harrow, north-west London, was raided a few weeks after she arrived. She was arrested, but she did not reveal the full details of her enslavement to the police because of the threats to her family made by the man who had bought her. The officials did not realise Katya had been intimidated by her trafficker and they allowed him to visit her while she was in detention. He used those visits to intimidate her further. Although Katya was recognised as trafficking victim, immigration officials decided to remove her to Moldova, judging that there was no real risk to her safety.

A few days after she returned home from the UK, her traffickers tracked her down to the Moldovan village where she had grown up. She was gang-raped, strung up by a rope from a tree, and forced to dig her own grave. One of her front teeth was pulled out with a pair of pliers. Shortly afterwards she was re-trafficked, first to Israel and later back to the UK. In 2007 she was detained for a second time by immigration officials, who considered returning her to Moldova, before finally granting her refugee status.

Katya's traffickers have not been arrested and she is concerned they could now target her younger sister in Moldova. She plans to stay in the UK, has signed up for computer courses

and English language classes. She brought her daughter to live with her. However, Katya is concerned she could run into the people who forced her into prostitution in London.

Her lawyers prepared the case to sue immigration services for their decision to return her to Moldova, the first time she was detained. They argued that this was a violation of her rights under article 3 (the right to freedom from torture and inhumane and degrading treatment) and article 4 (the right to freedom from slavery and servitude) of the European convention on human rights. Home Office lawyers agreed to pay substantial, undisclosed damages the day before the scheduled start of the case (adapted from COMBAT, n. d.).

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