



Daphne Booklets: Issues and experiences in combating violence
against children, young people and women

Trafficking and labour exploitation



Disclaimer

This booklet was written by Dr June Kane in collaboration with the Daphne Programme management team of the European Commission. Its contents do not necessarily reflect the policies of the European Union or the positions of its Member States.

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Introduction

The creation and growth of a unified Europe has brought many opportunities. The freedom for people to move across the borders of individual Member States, to seek opportunities and to work in bigger markets is now an everyday reality.

However, positive gains have sometimes been accompanied by unwelcome consequences to which we must show zero tolerance. Some people have sought to take advantage of our freedoms and make a profit. People smugglers and human traffickers work differently but both seek to exploit human vulnerability for money. People smugglers provide illicit transport to those trying to cross borders illegally – often because these people are ignorant of, or excluded from legal migration channels. Human traffickers, on the other hand, use coercion, deception and often brute force to transport children, adolescents and adults within countries or across borders in order to exploit them – in agriculture, manufacturing, street trades, begging and prostitution.

Victims are often women and teenage girls whose vulnerability, restricted access to legitimate jobs and often inferior family status, coupled with a thriving commercial sexual market, underpin the lucrative 'business' of trafficking in Europe. Europe has rightly labelled human trafficking as the 'modern slave trade' and, like slavery, it must be abolished. We have a moral duty to tackle human trafficking. As part of our focus on protecting the rights of children, we must prevent traffickers exploiting and abusing them.

We must help the victims of trafficking. A landmark Communication from the Commission in November 1996 put the trafficking of females for sexual exploitation firmly on to the European political agenda. The Communication places human trafficking in the context of gendered violence, organised crime, labour migration and law enforcement. We need to understand the full extent of trafficking as a heinous crime in order to prosecute it effectively. Society must be inclusive of trafficking victims. Only with the possibility of escape and protection will there be co-operation with the police.

Better life prospects need to be offered in order to break the vicious cycle of trafficking. Sending victims back home too often just restarts the cycle. The EU Directive to allow residence permits to trafficking victims offers a chance for victims to escape and prosecutions to happen. We must also educate potential victims and their families so they know that the reality of adverts offering jobs or paradise abroad too often turn into a degrading and miserable reality.

We must turn the will to tackle this crime into real action. The European Commission's Daphne Programme has supported projects focusing on those who have fallen prey to human traffickers and whose vulnerability has been exploited. By placing the victim at the centre of their work, Daphne projects have documented the exploitation of trafficking, explored and proposed help to victims, and worked to raise the understanding of trafficking and labour exploitation and to reduce discrimination against its victims.

In 2007, the Daphne Programme marks a decade of work to prevent violence against children, young people and women in Europe, and to support victims of such violence. For ten years, Daphne has supported non-governmental organisations (NGOs), public authorities and research institutions running transnational 'Daphne projects' in all the Member States of the European Union. These projects have involved more than 1,000 different organisations. Work includes research and surveys, training and educational materials, targeted awareness raising, networking and exchange of experiences, identification and sharing of good practices, and a range of direct actions with immediate impact on victims of violence and those at risk.

The Daphne Programme has become well known across the globe for its focus on learning and sharing lessons to improve support to vulnerable groups and protect them from all sorts of violence.

This series of Daphne Booklets, launched in 2006, aims to bring together some of those lessons. Each paper gives an overview of the issue, the legal and policy framework in Europe and the results of the Daphne experience.

The Daphne Booklets are another example of the European Commission sharing knowledge and experience, and prompting debate and reflection on some of the most important social topics facing Europe today.

Franco Frattini
Vice-President of the European Commission,
in charge of Justice, Freedom and Security

Foreword

Europe was founded in 1957 as an economic union against the background of the horror of the Second World War. Since then, Europe has grown together and is now, 50 years after its creation, a flourishing political union with fundamental social standards. Europe has become for nearly 500 million European citizens the framework in which they plan and live their lives. Obstacles and barriers, also in the minds of people, have been overcome so that nowadays the 27 Member States of the European Union work closely together in good cooperation.

Young people learn languages other than their native tongue not as a 'foreign' exercise but because they live and work in Europe. The music people listen to, the sports they follow, the issues they are concerned with, like where to find a job for example, all cut across national boundaries and extend their daily realities into the European 'space'. Moving across European national borders in relative freedom is an achievement that would have been unimaginable some decades ago.

Unfortunately, the positive side of the free movement of people and open borders in Europe also has a very dark side: the trade in human beings, also called human trafficking. Trafficking in people, especially children and women – the illegal and highly profitable recruitment, transport, or sale of human beings for the purpose of exploiting their labour and body – is a kind of modern slavery that must be eliminated. The trafficking of women and children into labour, forced marriage, forced prostitution, domestic servitude and other kinds of work is a global phenomenon. Every year, between 700,000 and 4 million children and women are trafficked into Western Europe, according to United Nations' statistics.

Already in the eighties, we in the Women's Committee in the European Parliament highlighted the invisible phenomenon and pushed for measures to stop human trafficking. We did this in close co-operation with the former Commissioner Anita Gradin who, in 1997, said that "Increased trafficking of women for prostitution is akin to slavery... women are bought and sold like cattle". The European Parliament has proactively pushed for further actions at EU level, both in the field of prevention and legal action fighting against trafficking in human beings as well as help and protection for victims. This is, for instance, illustrated by several specific reports and resolutions on trafficking in women.

The Daphne Programme to fight violence against children, young people and women had been developed as a very effective tool – practical and political – to find transnational European solutions. As rapporteur for the Daphne II and III programmes, I also fought for a European Year to combat violence against children, young people and women. A campaign like the one organised in 1999 would help to make people throughout Europe aware of the problem, but such a thematic year gives even more power to overcome violence and also to create a legal base against violence.

Although the fight against trafficking in human beings has increasingly become a political priority at the level of the European Union, there is still so much to do. A variety of measures, including explicit legal protection to all individuals, and preventive measures, as well as measures to ensure adequate protection of, support for, and assistance to the victims, are required. Since children and women are in a position of vulnerability to become victims, there is also a clear need to tackle this problem from the angle of promoting gender equality. Initially, most attention was drawn to the fight against trafficking in women and children for the purpose of sexual exploitation. Recent developments have, however, also highlighted the need to address the issue of trafficking in human beings for the purpose of labour exploitation.

This approach recognises the need to look at the factors that underpin vulnerability to trafficking: questions of social development that include poverty and discrimination, particularly based on sex and ethnic origin. It also calls for understanding of the employment-related factors that provide markets for traffickers to trade their human commodities: access to jobs, occupational training opportunities and controlled labour migration. All this is linked to aspects of the North-South and West-East divide.

It also essentially recognises the gender dimension of trafficking and labour exploitation. Well into the 21st century, and in one of the most progressive regions of the world, we have to acknowledge that in some parts of Europe women and girls are still often at a disadvantage in education, skills training and access to work. They are also more affected by poverty than men. This makes them highly vulnerable to exploitation both at home and in other parts of Europe. It also feeds the commercial sex market as women and adolescent girls seeking independence and a means to survive often see no other choice than to enter prostitution. Others become prey to people ready to force them into commercial sex work when they are unable to find other ways to earn a living.

Ensuring that women and girls throughout the Union are able to enjoy all their rights as European citizens and that they are able to benefit from the advantages a strong Europe brings to all its citizens, is our responsibility and challenge.

Lissy Gröner
Member of the European Parliament

The problem

Trafficking is not a recent phenomenon. The word itself was used in Europe as long ago as the 16th century, when it was synonymous with 'trade' and had none of the sinister connotations it has today.

By the early 1900s, the concept of 'trade in human beings' had already been enshrined in international conventions, largely as a result of the abolitionist movements of the 19th century. Horror at the slave trade – which often included both movement of people into slavery and the labour exploitation of indigenous people – led to the eventual abolition of the trade in human beings in the countries of Europe and then, in 1865, in the United States. The *1926 Slavery Convention*, an initiative of the League of Nations, was a turning point in prohibiting slavery worldwide.

But abolition of slavery did not end the movement of people into labour exploitation. As early as 1904, European leaders met in Paris to sign an agreement arising out of concern about the large numbers of British women being 'imported' to continental Europe to work in brothels.¹ The International Labour Organization moved to address the forced labour outcomes of trafficking through instruments to cover the 'non-exploitation of workers', for example the *Hours of Work (Industry) Convention of 1919 (No. 1)*, and movement for work – the *Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97)*. An ILO Convention – the *Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143)* – was in fact one of the earliest instruments to specifically use the word 'trafficking' to refer to the recruitment, movement and exploitation of human beings.

'Trafficking' is, in many ways, just a convenient label put on what is a complex series of events. Understanding these individual events, how they occur, who is involved in them and what needs to be done to address them individually is key to ending trafficking and to putting in place laws and actions to stop the people involved.

Although there have been a number of attempts to define trafficking,² in simple terms it can be summed up as 'movement + exploitation'. The 'movement' part is what differentiates trafficking from straightforward labour exploitation, and it is the 'exploitation' part that turns 'movement' into trafficking. The two elements are inextricably linked and both must be present for trafficking to occur.

It is this combination of movement and exploitation that also helps to differentiate trafficking from people smuggling and migration.

People smuggling usually involves some sort of 'voluntary' agreement to which the smuggled person is a party. It most frequently happens when people who want to move cannot find a legal way to do it, or they do not know about the legal channels open to them. It also happens when there are no channels at all for legal migration, which in some countries is the case, particularly for women. It is important to recognise that the 'voluntary' agreement becomes a ticket to trafficking if the movement ends in unanticipated exploitation, for example if the smuggler confiscates identity papers and uses these to coerce the smuggled person into forced labour.

¹ Regional approach for providing support to trafficked women and girls in the Balkans, *International Catholic Migration Service, Geneva, March 2001, p.1.*
² The 2000 Protocol to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons, especially women and children that supplements the United Nations Convention against transnational organised crime – known as the 'Palermo Protocol' – provides the most recent widely accepted definition. It states that trafficking is: "the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of 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 purposes of exploitation". Where children (people under the age of 18) are concerned, the protocol stipulates: "recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of a child for the purpose of exploitation shall be considered 'trafficking in persons' even if this does not involve any of the means set forth in the definition".

Migration is common all over the world. People move, permanently or temporarily (for example for seasonal work), not only within their own countries but also from one country to another. There are many reasons for this: people choose to move for a new beginning, a better life or just because circumstances dictate. In 2002, it was estimated that some 150 million people worldwide were living outside their homelands.³ Where people move voluntarily into a life and work free from exploitation, they are migrants and not victims of trafficking. Migration, of course, can be both legal and illegal (or 'irregular').

One observer⁴ noted that "the most powerful force driving all forms of irregular migration is the mismatch between legal opportunities for migration and the growing need for workers and specialists in the developed economies". Declining birth rates and longer life expectancy often lead to a shortage of workers in the industrialised world that cannot be met domestically. Ironically, despite this demand for workers in the industrialised parts of Europe, a number of states have imposed strict migration controls, with the result that irregular migration has increased and with it the vulnerability of those who want to work falling prey to traffickers and exploiters.⁵

Trafficking is a serious human rights violation and eats at the heart of every person's right to live and work in freedom. Traffickers and those who make trafficking possible – usually called 'intermediaries' – use the vulnerability of other human beings to make a profit. And trafficking is indeed profitable, even on a small scale. A senior British police officer told a Daphne-sponsored conference in 2000 that, in 13 investigations covered by his unit in the previous two years, the criminal assets made by traffickers amounted to just under £50 million (€83.5 million).⁶

One of the most important things to remember about trafficking is that, unlike the illicit trade in drugs or other contraband, the 'merchandise' can easily be replaced and losses are minimal. Trafficking only becomes expensive when traffickers are caught and brought to justice, and this is too rarely the case. The European Parliament recognised this reality in its October 2006 report on fighting trafficking in human beings⁷ when it stated that "human trafficking should be converted from a 'low risk-high reward enterprise for organised crime' into a high risk-low reward one" and that "law enforcement must use all the resources and capacity available to enforce the prohibition of human trafficking, to deprive it of any economic advantage and, where financial gain has been made, to seize and confiscate any assets".

Research by the Australian Institute of Criminology⁸ has identified three different models of trafficking:

The 'corporate' model is highly structured and most often involves organised crime groups. Here there is a distinct hierarchy and central control. The 'business' is structured like a pyramid, with a single person, family or tight-knit group at the pinnacle. The 'bosses' may also be involved in extortion, narcotics, corruption and illegal gambling. At the bottom of the pyramid, the 'workers' are far removed from this controlling interest and unlikely to know who, in fact, is in charge. In between are ever more powerful levels of 'management', each knowing only the levels directly above and below. The entire structure is held together by fear, threats and violence so that those on each level remain 'faithful' to the people on the rung above. A number of known mafia-like groups may be running schemes like this. One characteristic of this structure is that, when people on the lower levels are caught, they are unlikely to be able to lead investigators right to the top of the pyramid. And when lower-level traffickers are put away, they are simply replaced and the structure rebuilt.

The 'network' model involves criminal groups working together in a loose, decentralised way. In this model, the structures are horizontal, with no 'bosses' at the top but each 'specialist stream' deciding on the contribution that stream will make and communicating this to others working closely in the next stage of the process. So, for example, 'recruiters' will specialise in drawing people into the trafficking trap and will let those who transport people know

3 P. Taran, "Migration and labour solidarity" in Labour Education No. 129, Vol. 4, 2002.

4 P. Schatzer, Trafficking in human beings in an enlarging EU – Towards a coordinated European approach?, Lecture, Rome, 13 November 2003. Available at www.cicerofoundation.org/lectures

5 The European Parliament has referred to this dichotomy in its October 2006 Report on fighting trafficking in human beings (A6-0368/2006): "...access to the labour market of the EU is complicated or even restricted and overregulated, while at the same time there is a clear demand for labour, which factors result in illegal migration, smuggling and trafficking".

6 P. Holmes, Operation Head of the London Vice Court, in an address to the conference: Esclavage moderne et trafic d'êtres humains, quelles approches européennes?, 17 November 2000.

7 Report on fighting trafficking in human beings (A6-0368/2006), p. 18.

8 A. Schloenhardt, Organised crime and the business of migrant trafficking, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra, November 1999, pp.13-14.

that they will be delivering 'cargo' for movement. Specialist 'transporters' will then move the people concerned and hand them over to 'reception specialists' who may take control on a temporary basis (for example providing short-term accommodation) or longer term (for example keeping victims under control outside working hours while a specialist 'exploiter' uses their labour or hires it out). In between these streams may be other short-term specialist functions: intermediaries who provide 'services', for example forged documents, or relay agents or even information specialists who advise on the best times to move people or where job markets are opening up. This model also contains the highly specialised groups of organised criminals who control the many well-known routes along which human beings and, sometimes, other forms of contraband are moved. The 'network' model is characterised by flexibility because each stream can be replaced by another for security or if one is closed down or stops working.

By far the most common model of trafficking, though, is the 'amateur' model. This is made up of individuals who may provide just a single service; for example, someone who has a truck that he makes available to move people. These intermediaries may be a regular part of the trafficking process or provide services only occasionally. In many jurisdictions, when caught they will be brought to justice under legislative provisions not identified as trafficking; for example, forgery, abduction, bribery or corruption. Many of them may not even consider themselves to be 'traffickers', but they certainly facilitate trafficking. The whole structure is loose and may even be, in part, opportunistic; for example, when someone in a poor town recognises that there is money to be made by scooping up the young girls in the neighbourhood who cannot find work, and who will be willing to pay someone who can find them a job. Cases like this are characterised by lies and deceit, unkept promises and dashed expectations.

So what do traffickers do? However they work, whatever the model involved, trafficking generally follows the same pattern. It begins with someone who wants or needs to move, often to find work or sometimes just because there is a perception that life will be better somewhere else. Although some trafficking victims are abducted or kidnapped – and although this is most frequently the way trafficking is portrayed in films and dramas – in reality in Europe most people enter the trafficking trap because they genuinely believe that opportunities are opening up for them and they wish to seize these perceived opportunities. In such cases, the person involved may themselves approach someone who they know 'recruits' people for jobs elsewhere. Sometimes, as a result, such victims are said to be 'willingly' trafficked, although this is misleading. Even if they know that they may be going to work in prostitution (as is the case for some adolescent girls and women, for example), they are rarely aware of the conditions under which they will be exploited.

Some people are clearly vulnerable because they are poor, unemployed, disenchanted or in an age group open to 'adventure', and are approached by those who will recruit them into trafficking. This may be someone they know – often, for example, it is a woman who has herself returned from a trafficking event and has realised that there is money to be made by entrapping others. It may be a spurious 'job agency' that advertises in the newspapers or is heard about through word of mouth. In the case of young women and girls, in particular, it may be a young man who masquerades as a boyfriend and who promises love or marriage. Often families are involved here, putting pressure on a family member to relocate for work either because they want to gain from the money they think will be sent home or, as is often the case, because they genuinely believe the person will be better off. Many families make considerable sacrifices to raise the money to pay for the person's travel and documentation in the belief that they are helping their loved one to embark on a new and better life.

Sometimes people will simply travel by themselves or with friends and, when they end up in exploitation, may be considered in some circumstances to be trafficking victims. Some observers suggest⁹ that the 'agent' in such cases is the misinformation the person receives – through the media or often from friends – about the opportunities that exist 'elsewhere' and that draws the person into a situation where they are exploitable.

⁹P. Boonpala and J. Kane, *Unbearable to the human heart: Child trafficking and action to eliminate it*, ILO-IPEC, Geneva 2002, pp. 11-12.

In all these cases, it is the belief that work and life situations are better 'elsewhere' that motivates the 'victim'. As has been noted in recent research,¹⁰ even where there is doubt that things will be much better, the situation at home might be so dire that the person concerned just wants to get away.

The movement part of the trafficking process may involve crossing a border by plane, boat, road transport or on foot. It may also be 'domestic', involving a move within the same country from countryside to city, city to rural area, to the coast or indeed between two similar sites. Where an international border is crossed, documentation will be required and this is sometimes provided by a trafficking intermediary. For example, in the case of minors who are not supposed to be travelling without their parents or guardians, papers may be provided that give a false date of birth so that authorities think the child is older. Often traffickers will hold the victim's papers and use these as leverage to secure compliance. Alone in a region or country where they have no legal documentation, no resources and where they may not speak the language, trafficking victims have little hope of escape and are reluctant to seek help even when they do.

Many descriptions exist of the diverse stages of the trafficking process and the people involved along the way. At some point, however, trafficking, by definition, results in exploitation. This exploitation may be in the commercial sex trade or in a range of work sectors where there is demand for cheap or exploitable labour. In recent years in Europe, for example, well-organised and highly lucrative trafficking operations have been identified providing cheap, exploitable labour to the UK, the Netherlands, Spain, France and Switzerland.¹¹ These workers have ended up in the textile and garment industries, construction and, most notably, the agriculture sector.

Children are trafficked into manual labour and, in the case of adolescent girls (and less frequently boys), into commercial sex. Increasingly, children are trafficked from Eastern Europe into affluent western capitals to be exploited in begging. Often these children are trafficked with their parents, but they may be separated from them and 'swapped', so that, for example, a woman begging on the streets of Europe may have someone else's baby in her arms and may not know where her own child has gone. In this way, parents are kept under control by threats of never seeing their children again.

Children are also trafficked to be used in petty crime. Traffickers know that if the children are caught by the police, they can rarely be traced and will remain silent, usually ending up back where they came from, often at the risk of being re-trafficked. In a throwback to the days of *Oliver Twist*, children exploited in this way are generally 'handled' by an adult who will take from them whatever money they manage to obtain. The same system of handling applies to children who are exploited in street hawking – selling chewing gum at traffic lights, for example, or souvenirs or flowers in restaurants and in tourist spots.

This brief overview gives an idea, but not a comprehensive account, of the factors involved in trafficking and labour exploitation. Clearly these issues are multi-faceted and complex, and the responses to them must similarly be multi-faceted and take account of their complexity. Invariably, these responses address just one part of the trafficking process – for example they deal with developing an appropriate legal framework, or they attempt to interrupt the recruitment of people into trafficking, or they are targeted at identifying corruption and exploitation in a particular labour sector.

When the European Commission's Daphne Programme first began in 1997, its approach to responding to trafficking was defined by the nature of the programme itself. Daphne's overall objectives were to increase the knowledge base on topics covered, share experiences and good practice in such areas as victim support, and develop awareness-raising, training materials and campaigns. Its focus was firmly victim-centred, reflecting the traditional nature of the work of its primary implementing agents: non-government organisations (NGOs).

Over the first ten years of the Daphne Programme, work in the area of trafficking and labour exploitation has become more sophisticated and has benefited from the lessons of a decade of research and increased understanding of the issues, such as the potential links between trafficking and the movement of unaccompanied minors into Europe.

¹⁰ J. Kane, Understanding 'demand' for children in the sex trade: An outstanding challenge, *Background paper for the Yokohama Review: Combating sexual exploitation of children, Europe and Central Asia, Council of Europe, Ljubljana, Slovenia, July 2005, p.4.*

¹¹ J. Kane, Trafficking in human beings: New approaches to combating the problem, *ILO-DECLARATION, Geneva 2003, pp. 21-27.*

Some facts and figures

As is the case for all illicit activities, statistics relating to trafficking represent only the tip of the iceberg. For every case that comes to court, there are many more cases that are never recorded. For every trafficking victim identified, there are many more who suffer in silence and anonymity. Importantly, few countries systematically collect and analyse data on trafficking into, from and through their territory.

The complexity of the trafficking event – the stages of recruitment, movement and exploitation – means that records relating to investigations, prosecutions and convictions of those involved, and data on recovery, rehabilitation, status and support of victims are dispersed across many different systems and departments. A number of ministries and authorities are involved and different labels are given to the various elements of trafficking and its consequences. In some countries, for example, where there is no specific law covering trafficking, the crime and its victims might be hidden in records relating to illegal migration patterns or abduction and assault.

The data that is available, therefore, is only indicative and serves mostly to show that no country in Europe is free of trafficking and that in most trafficking is a significant problem.¹² Clearly, most of the statistics that are available relate to judicial actions taken against traffickers and intermediaries; very few statistics – or even guesstimates – are available about the actual extent of trafficking and hardly any governments release data on the numbers of people affected by trafficking in their country. The International Organization for Migration (IOM) releases occasional data on the numbers of trafficked people it repatriates, but this is not comprehensive. Moreover, the figures that are put forward vary greatly. A research paper¹³ from the British Home Office in 2000 illustrated this very clearly. Using a complex mathematical model that attempted to take account of the many variables in trafficking statistics, the paper concluded that “the scale of trafficking of women into and within the UK lies within the range of 142 and 1,420 women a year”. A 2006 report quotes the British Government as reporting that, in the UK at any one time in 2003, there were an estimated 4,000 victims of trafficking for sexual exploitation alone.¹⁴ The variation in these figures illustrates the need for circumspection when statistics are quoted.

The 2005 data from **Austria** shows that 168 trafficking cases were filed with the public prosecutor and there were 192 prosecutions using trafficking-related statutes. The IOM estimated that there were 7,000 trafficking victims in Vienna alone. That same year, 700 Roma girls found in Vienna were identified as having been trafficked from Bulgaria for the purposes of petty theft and sexual exploitation.

The latest data available for **Belgium** relates to 2004, when 276 cases of suspected trafficking were investigated and there were 50 convictions.

¹² Most of the data in this section comes from The trafficking in persons report, US Department of State, June 2006.

¹³ L. Kelly and L. Regan, Stopping traffic: Exploring the extent of, and responses to trafficking in women for sexual exploitation in the UK, Police Research Series Paper 125, Home Office, London 2000, pp. 18-22.

¹⁴ Human Trafficking, 26th Report of the House of Lords/House of Commons Joint Committee on Human Rights, Volume 1, 13 October 2006, HL Paper 245-1, HC 1127-1.

Police in **Cyprus** identified 55 victims of trafficking in 2005 and there were seven convictions that year using prostitution and sexual exploitation laws. In the Turkish-administered area of Cyprus that same year the 16 prosecutions brought for trafficking resulted in nine convictions. In the absence of specific anti-trafficking laws, all were tried as 'living off the earnings of prostitution' offences.

Bonded labour is a particular problem in the **Czech Republic**. There have been four separate investigations into this since 2004. In 2005, there were 12 prosecutions resulting in 20 convictions relating to trafficking. Fifty-two traffickers were prosecuted.

Denmark brought 30 cases to court in 2005 – four using anti-trafficking laws and 26 using a law covering procurement. Sixty people were convicted. There was just one reported case of internal trafficking that year.

Estonia convicted 22 traffickers in 2005 using laws relating to prostitution and enslavement. Five child prostitution cases resulted in the conviction of 15 traffickers. In **Finland**, five trafficking investigations in 2005 resulted in four prosecutions.

Despite a general governmental reluctance to quote figures of trafficking victims in the absence of comprehensive data, the **French** Government reported that in 2005 it was likely that there were between 10,000 and 12,000 trafficking victims in France. The government issued 306 temporary residence permits that year in Paris alone. The latest data on trafficking prosecutions in France relates to 2004, when 43 traffickers were prosecuted. In 2005, French authorities reported that they had dismantled 41 international trafficking networks.

The **German** authorities also broke up a number of trafficking rings in 2005. In 2004, they initiated 370 investigations into 777 suspected traffickers, mostly involved in trafficking women and girls into sexual exploitation. That year the government identified 972 trafficking victims in Germany, 127 of who were German nationals.

Greece identified 137 trafficking victims in 2005 and investigated 60 trafficking cases. They arrested 202 people on suspicion of trafficking and achieved nine convictions. The **Hungarian** authorities launched 28 trafficking investigations in 2005 and prosecuted 27 traffickers.

Ireland has only recently stepped up actions to investigate and pursue possible trafficking connections in the country. Raids, in 2005 and early 2006, on exotic dance clubs and rural properties potentially linked with illegal brothels did not lead to arrests. Between 2001 and 2006, on the other hand, the authorities reported there were between 14 and 200 victims of trafficking in Ireland; NGOs estimate 14-35 victims each year.

Since introducing a new anti-trafficking law in 2003, covering both sexual and labour exploitation, **Italy** has vigorously pursued suspected traffickers. In 2004 there were 1,861 investigations and 120 prosecuted cases. This resulted in 77 convictions. NGOs in Italy estimate there were 2,500 new trafficking victims in 2005.

The figures for Latvia and Lithuania are low but may reflect weak sentencing regimes: in 2005, of the 23 trafficking cases investigated in **Latvia**, there was only one conviction for trafficking but 28 for recruitment. Lithuania undertook 32 investigations that same year. There were 18 prosecutions involving 43 defendants, with 20 traffickers being convicted. While there were relatively few judicial proceedings in **Lithuania**, however, the authorities cooperated in 172 international trafficking investigations.

In **Luxembourg**, the problem is confined almost entirely to women being trafficked into sexual exploitation. There were only two investigations into such trafficking in 2005. Although the scale of the problem is relatively small, Luxembourg drafted comprehensive legislation in 2005 to cover all forms of trafficking.

In recent years, **Malta** has recorded a large influx of asylum seekers and migrants in transit. These people are not clearly differentiated from trafficking victims, of which there were officially between 30 and 40 in 2004. In **the Netherlands**, in contrast, the Dutch Foundation against Trafficking in Persons (STV) records the number of official victims of trafficking. In 2005, it registered 424 trafficked people. The previous year, Dutch authorities investigated 220 cases and prosecuted 253 traffickers achieving 136 convictions.

There were 22 new trafficking investigations in **Poland** in 2005 and 22 ongoing actions. Of the 43 individuals prosecuted for trafficking, 37 were convicted. **Portugal** prosecuted 45 people for trafficking in 2004 and achieved 27 convictions. All but two of these received suspended sentences, prompting criticism that judicial authorities were not dealing seriously with the problem. In 2005, the government reported dismantling a number of trafficking networks.

The IOM estimates that between 100 and 200 victims are trafficked from and through **Slovakia** each year. In 2005, the authorities launched 47 investigations and prosecuted 30 suspected traffickers, but there were only four convictions. There were no successful convictions in **Slovenia** that year although seven new investigations resulted in two prosecutions.

Spain has figured prominently in reports of labour exploitation in recent years as a result of a number of important investigations into the trafficking of boys and men into seasonal agriculture.¹⁵ Romanian trafficking networks are said to be active in Spain. In 2005, official co-operation with countries of origin resulted in 151 investigations and 280 arrests. Spanish national police dismantled 205 trafficking networks and arrested 910 traffickers. Ninety-two cases were prosecuted and there were 150 convictions.

In 2005, **Sweden** created a Nordic/Baltic network of NGOs together with social and law enforcement agencies to aid the repatriation and reintegration of trafficking victims. There were 44 investigations that year and 15 convictions under anti-trafficking laws and 25 under statutes related to trafficking.

The **United Kingdom** launched 343 investigations in 2005 resulting in nine prosecutions – eight for sexual exploitation and one for labour exploitation. Twenty-two traffickers were convicted.

This catalogue of statistics should not be taken as an indication of the true scale of trafficking in the European Union, but it does show that trafficking is a problem, to varying degrees, in all the Member States.

¹⁵ Trafficking in human beings: New approaches to combating the problem, *op.cit.*, pp. 21-27.

National and European legislative frameworks

In recent years, the role that human trafficking plays in generating funds for criminal networks and as a threat to national and regional security has led to a flurry of new legislation both at national levels and in the form of binding international treaties.

In addition to early international conventions abolishing slavery and forced labour, there have been some important additions to the international legal framework covering labour exploitation. In particular, the *ILO Worst forms of child labour convention (1999), No. 182* makes clear links between the exploitation of child labour and trafficking, defining any labour resulting from trafficking as a 'worst form' to be eliminated.

Recent European instruments relating to trafficking include the *EU Council Framework Decision on combating trafficking in human beings*,¹⁶ which establishes uniform definitions and common standards of penalties, liability and jurisdiction for all Member States, and the *Directive on the residence permit issued to third-country nationals who are victims of trafficking*¹⁷ which gives trafficking victims the possibility to obtain a residence permit and specific rights for the duration of a criminal proceeding if they testify against the offenders. Also of relevance is the 2003 *Framework Decision on combating the sexual exploitation of children and child pornography*,¹⁸ which defines the crimes concerned and includes provisions on penalties, liability and sanctions, jurisdiction, prosecution and assistance to victims.

Most recently, the European Parliament issued a report in October 2006, including a proposal for a recommendation to Council, that sets out a comprehensive picture of the challenge of trafficking in Europe and that recommends specific actions based on these realities. Some important elements include a strong victim-focused approach and a call for Member States to recognise this at all levels of counter-trafficking work, especially through prompt identification of trafficking victims, comprehensive support services for them and residence permits, with full access to labour markets, if they do not wish to return to their home states. Importantly, the report implicitly recognises the exploitative labour outcomes of trafficking, highlighting the need for good company practice "which includes requiring subcontractors to fulfil their contractual and legal obligations (supply-chain compliance) [which] has an important role in reducing demand".¹⁹

In May 2005, the Council of Europe adopted the *Convention on action against trafficking in human beings*, but, as of April 2007, this had not yet entered into force. As the title of this convention suggests, recent framework initiatives have focused on guidelines for action to prevent trafficking and exploitation, to bring perpetrators to justice, and to ensure that victims of trafficking are given due protection.

Direct prevention, protection and prosecution actions are also at the heart of the 2005 *Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament and the Council: Fighting trafficking in human beings – an integrated approach and proposals for an action plan*,²⁰ which was followed by the adoption by the Council of the *EU action plan against trafficking in human beings*.²¹ The Organisation for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) also issued an action plan in 2005.²²

¹⁶ OJ L 203, 1.8.2002, p. 1.

¹⁷ OJ L 261, 6.8.2004, p. 19.

¹⁸ OJ L 13, 20.01.2004, p. 44.

¹⁹ A6-0368/2006, p. 10.

²⁰ COM(2005) 514 final.

²¹ OJ C 311, 9.12.2005, p. 1.

²² OSCE Decision No. 557/Rev.1: OSCE Action Plan to combat trafficking in human beings.

The Commission's Communication calls on Member States to "provide for necessary organisational structures, specialised personnel and adequate financial resources to law enforcement personnel to effectively combat human trafficking" and a number of countries have moved swiftly to fulfil this obligation.

As has been noted, trafficking and labour exploitation cover a range of criminal activities, from abduction or coercion to forgery, from assault and sexual abuse to enslavement, from violation of migration laws to neglect of labour standards, from forced prostitution to tax evasion. As a result, there is a battery of legal instruments that countries can and indeed do use to prosecute those involved in trafficking and labour exploitation. For this reason, many countries have been slow in introducing new trafficking-specific laws.

However, in 2005-06 a number of steps were taken to reinforce legal instruments relating to trafficking or victim support. For example, in the light of clear evidence that traffickers were using the availability of a specialised 'dancer' visa to bring women into the country and subsequently force them into commercial sex, the Austrian Government in January 2006 abolished this visa category. A number of countries reviewed the use of temporary stay visas for victims of trafficking. This is important because returning victims to their place of origin carries a high risk of their being re-trafficked if they return to conditions they were trying to escape and also potentially puts them at risk of reprisals from the 'origin' end of the trafficking chain.

Many countries link the issue of a temporary stay visa to the imperative to give evidence against the trafficker. This is seen by many human rights activists as inappropriate as they argue that assistance to trafficking victims should be unconditional. Since 2005, the Czech Republic has granted temporary stay visas that allow the holder to work and that include the possibility of permanent residency. In 2005, Hungary passed a new Victims' Compensation Act that, among other elements, includes the referral of victims to NGOs for care.

Poland revised its Law on Aliens in 2005 to provide a 'reflection period' for trafficked persons while they consider whether or not to give testimony against their traffickers, and Slovakia introduced a new law requiring police to inform victims of the support available to them. In November of that year, Slovenia adopted a new witness protection law.

However, a number of clear challenges remain in legislative and law enforcement approaches to combating trafficking. Many EU countries still do not have adequately trained staff who can identify trafficking victims and recognise them as in need of particular support and protection. The IOM reports that many trafficking victims are still being returned alongside illegal migrants without their status being recognised.

Although many countries have put in place better mechanisms for reporting trafficking incidents – for example, 'hotlines' with trained advisors who speak the languages of origin of many of the women trafficked into prostitution – most countries have a shortage of shelters for victims and few staff trained to give them the range of support services they need: psychosocial, legal and medical.

There are also repeated calls for more work to be done to address the 'pull' or 'demand' elements of trafficking. The concept of 'demand' is much discussed but rarely carefully defined: it includes not only those who purchase the services of trafficked people but also those who set themselves up to make money by exploiting trafficked labour (for example, middle-men who provide agricultural labour, or factory owners who illegally employ child labour). Consequently, tackling this must go beyond the 'awareness-raising' campaigns so frequently quoted as 'targeting demand' and include careful analysis of the mechanics of the labour market in destination countries and the points at which 'demand' arises.²³

²³ For a preliminary analysis of the different types of 'demand' and where these occur in the exploitation event, see: Understanding 'demand' for children in the sex trade: An outstanding challenge, *op.cit.*

Experiences from the Daphne Programme

Between 1997 and 2005, Daphne supported some 50 projects in areas related to trafficking or labour exploitation. Some of these focused on specific groups of trafficked people – for example, women and girls trafficked into prostitution – and a number looked at a common form of labour exploitation: domestic service. There were also a number of projects centring on exploitative labour in general, under the heading ‘slavery’ or ‘modern forms of slavery’. Prostitution and domestic service are also included under this heading.²⁴

A series of projects mobilising migrant domestic workers themselves²⁵ achieved important awareness-raising aims and resulted in the development of a Charter of Rights for migrant workers, the creation of the RESPECT network of organisations working with domestic helpers, and changes in the law in some European countries. One important lesson from the projects was that empowering migrant domestic workers themselves is fundamental to ensuring their rights and that this can be done in creative ways. In one project, for example, domestic workers in the UK developed theatre performances in which they acted out the problems they faced. This not only gave them an opportunity to confront these situations and to deal with them as a group, but public performances also alerted others to the issue.

Women exploited in prostitution in Europe were the focus of several projects. Freeing women from pimps was the focus of an Italian project²⁶ that brought together NGOs, public authorities, institutions and the police to develop interventions including confidential reception centres, reporting channels, training and media mobilisation. The project also included an information campaign, including TV ‘spots’: one aimed at the women, giving the helpline number and describing the services offered; one aimed at clients, showing the conditions of enslavement under which women in prostitution live; and the third, broadcast in Albania, aimed at preventing trafficking and bringing about a cultural change in the families who often entrust their daughters to so-called ‘fiancés’ who later force them into prostitution. A series of radio spots reinforced these messages. Public awareness was promoted through a publicity campaign aimed at bringing about greater public understanding of the plight of women in prostitution in light of the anger often caused by their presence in the neighbourhood. A CD-Rom containing all the project material was produced and disseminated throughout Europe and a web page was also developed to allow those with similar experiences to link up.

A number of resources were piloted to help victims of trafficking and exploitation and to encourage reporting these crimes. For example, one project²⁷ piloted a helpline for women in prostitution through which they could receive advice, including legal advice and referral to support agencies. This project undertook grass-roots research on sexual and psychological abuse against people in prostitution, including trafficking victims. Using existing outreach mechanisms, it collected information that was supplemented by information obtained through

²⁴ See the projects listed as ‘Labour exploitation’ in the list in this publication.

²⁵ Projects 97-017-W, 97-133-W, 99-064-W and 00-039-W.

²⁶ Project 99-318-W.

²⁷ Project 01-195-W.

the launching of pilot helplines in Rome, Bologna and Milan. These were staffed by trained operators and were monitored through a feedback questionnaire. The same organisation produced a pocket-sized book with details of Italian law to help women in prostitution to know their rights. The book provides information in English, Italian, Albanian and Russian.

Several other projects also focused on encouraging women to help themselves by improving the information available to them in their own languages, for example, Russian, Bulgarian, Moldavian and Albanian.²⁸ An on-line resource called 'femMigration'²⁹ was created through a Daphne project and subsequently expanded over a number of years to include more languages and more national resources. This on-line resource received almost 12,000 'hits' a month, but the host organisation faced the challenge of having to update continually the resource to keep it relevant and to find ongoing funding to enable this to happen.

Three projects looked specifically at the health needs of trafficked women and adolescents.³⁰ These projects had some very concrete and significant outcomes. Using the Palermo Protocol to define a 'trafficked person', the first project set out to develop an ethical methodology for gathering data from trafficked women and girls over the age of 16 relating to their physical and mental health needs. The World Health Organisation (WHO) subsequently issued the guidelines that were based on this methodology.³¹ The project drafted health standards, documented gaps in services to provide these, and produced a comparative report on different models of service delivery (for example, through hospitals or in shelters). The network set up to implement the projects went on to lobby for improved services.

Vital to improved action on behalf of children and women who have been trafficked or are being exploited is good, up-to-date research and the identification of good practices in this area. A number of projects focused on improving the knowledge base on trafficking and labour exploitation and on defining and identifying valuable experience that could be shared.³² Most of these projects learned that reinforcing networks across Europe, both to exchange information and experience but also to strengthen lobbying power, is vital to improving the results of project activity.

One project focused specifically on child trafficking. It aimed to provide training for professionals working with children who had been trafficked in the Baltic Sea region and to document the phenomenon.³³

Another group of projects focused on the phenomenon of unaccompanied minors travelling into and through Europe. These children, commonly in the 12-17-year-old age bracket, are often known by the acronym 'UMM'; for unaccompanied minor migrants. Often these children are looking for work or the chance of a better life; more often than not, they are simply escaping from conditions that are so bad that they are prepared to take the risk of falling into the hands of exploiters. Although the link between trafficking and UMMs is not clear, there is a much more evident link between this group and labour exploitation, since the children often have no other way to survive than by earning money in the grey economy, or by begging or street hawking. Older children may end up in prostitution and girls in particular are at risk of entering exploitative domestic service or the sex trade.³⁴

The research showed³⁵ that there are generally two specific groups of UMMs in Europe: those who seek asylum and use legal ways of entry in order to consolidate their residency status, and those who cross borders illegally and who, in fear of being deported, soon go 'underground'. While there are quite extensive networks of help for the first group, including family reunification programmes, the second group of children is without protection or support and they are at high risk of exploitation and trafficking. The project developed a broad-ranging list of priority recommendations to help such children and pointed to their right, as children, to the same protection as those children who migrate legally, and to the specific need to get them into school or vocational training. The research also found that, in general, the children have a relatively high need for medical and therapeutic support.

28 See project 00-060-W.

29 Projects 00-014-W, 01-021-W, 02-010-W, 03-025-W.

30 Projects 00-265-WC, 02-082-WY and 04-069-WY. See also *The health risks and consequences of trafficking in women and adolescents: Findings from a European study*, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, London 2003.

31 WHO Ethical and safety recommendations for interviewing trafficked women, WHO, Geneva 2003.

32 Projects 99-082-WC, 98-215-WC, 00-037-W, 01-010-WY, 01-169-W, 01-211-WYC, 02-009-WY and 02-165-WYC.

33 Project 05-1-049-Y.

34 These projects are listed under the heading 'Unaccompanied minor migrants' in the table.

35 See project 99-146-C.

One important conclusion of the projects on UMMs was that ‘there is no emergency at all’ – the number of adolescents migrating to the EU remains relatively low. For this reason, the project partners called on Member States to be ‘more generous in both reception and integration’.

A number of Daphne projects have focused on prevention and some of these have centred on the need to influence public attitudes towards trafficking and its victims and to increase understanding of the human rights issues involved.³⁶

Some significant public awareness campaigns have been run with Daphne support, most of them accompanied by the creation or strengthening of networks across several Member States. Many of the projects also included training elements for those who work with trafficked women and children.

A Czech project³⁷ developed a campaign targeted at young people who had already had some experience in the sex sector and who were consequently considered as being at heightened risk of being trafficked. A campaign run by partners in Greece, Germany and the UK targeted the general public and aimed to increase understanding of the nature of trafficking and to change the attitudes of those who looked upon trafficking victims as law-breakers.³⁸ Secondary school teachers and students were also targeted in a project that developed an educational toolkit based on a human rights approach to trafficking.³⁹ These projects that increase public understanding of trafficking and labour exploitation, and the plight and needs of those who are its victims, are an important element for creating a Europe where exploitation is rejected and those who engage in it are brought to justice.

However, most trafficking and exploitation projects supported by Daphne have focused on providing a range of services to victims, or have worked to examine and improve available services.⁴⁰ One project developed and piloted training materials to improve facilities and develop the skills of staff receiving and supporting prostituted women.⁴¹ For women who returned to their countries of origin, a model of integrated reintegration services was developed by a network of NGOs and institutions aiming to ensure that such services would be comprehensive and coordinated among different agencies.⁴² An important element of this project was the inclusion of agencies focusing on giving the women alternative survival options once they returned.

In the course of their work, many of the projects undertook interviews with trafficked women and adolescents and ‘mapped’ the problem in their country or region. The projects as a whole, therefore, have produced a rich collection of reports and studies that can be consulted through the Daphne Toolkit website (see list of resources).

36 In the table, these projects are in the categories: ‘Prevention programmes’ and also ‘Education and awareness raising’.

37 Project 05-1-232-Y.

38 Project 98-070-W.

39 Project 05-1-286-WY.

40 See under ‘Support to victims’ in the table of Daphne projects.

41 Project 01-169-W.

42 Project 01-010-WY.

Gaps and challenges

Although this report has highlighted the paucity of useable data on trafficking and labour exploitation in Europe, this section will not begin with a call for more data. It is clear that data does exist: in police and court records, in the records of health and social services, as a result of helplines, hotlines, drop-in centres, refuges and shelters, and in other places where victims and perpetrators come into contact with various services. What is needed is a 'clearing house' mechanism or function – at national and regional levels – to bring this data together, analyse and consolidate it, and transform it into useful and useable information.

This must, of course, be done in collaboration with all the agencies involved and ideally it should lead to some agreed parameters for data collection and storage. This is vital because the complex nature of trafficking and exploitation – cutting across law enforcement, labour sector, human rights, health and social boundaries – calls above all for centralised coordination and analysis. The experience of those countries that have put in place national task forces or coordinating bodies for trafficking issues should provide valuable lessons in the next few years.

Programmatically, there is a continued need to avoid focusing too narrowly on 'trafficking' as a phenomenon and thus to forget the importance of dealing with the root causes of trafficking and exploitation both at origin and destination: social factors such as systems that leave people, especially women, with inappropriate or no qualifications; few job opportunities; family poverty and misinformation. In the destination countries, there is also an urgent need to focus more on reducing demand for under-priced and illegal labour. This must involve those bodies that can influence the markets – trade unions, consumer associations, chambers of commerce, and employers' organisations amongst others. Ministries of Labour should be brought more often into discussions and actions relating to trafficking. Where there is no demand, traffickers will not be able to make money and most commentators agree that taking away the profit potential is the best deterrent.

Other ways of making trafficking and exploitation less profitable are also important. The experiences of asset confiscation schemes should be examined, as should successes in dismantling networks and 'interrupting business'.

In relation to the victims of trafficking and labour exploitation, there is a recognised need to improve ways of identifying victims so that they are not further victimised by being treated as illegal migrants and deprived of the support services they clearly need. More comprehensive support services and a review of visa and residency policies to ensure that victims are protected and given a chance to build a safe life are also needed across the board. A number of EU countries have now had experience in these areas and it is important that the exchange of information and experiences continues.

Selected on-line resources

- The Daphne II and III Programme websites can be accessed through the European Commission EUROPA site:
Daphne II: http://ec.europa.eu/justice_home/funding/2004_2007/daphne/funding_daphne_en.htm
Daphne III: http://ec.europa.eu/justice_home/funding/daphne3/funding_daphne3_en.htm
- The Daphne Toolkit, which includes descriptions, lessons and comments on all completed Daphne projects as well as useful links, 'tools and tips' and multimedia materials from the projects, is at www.daphne-toolkit.org (Please note that the Daphne Toolkit will be under reconstruction in 2007, resulting in a new address to which a link will be provided on the Daphne Programme website. The Daphne Toolkit is currently only fully operational in English but will gradually be updated in other languages).
- The REACT tool developed by the Council of Europe's group of specialists and containing summary details of progress reported by countries against a number of international and regional commitments on child trafficking, is at: <http://www.coe.int/childprotection/>
- The European Women's Lobby (EWL) has undertaken a number of Europe-wide actions in support of women and adolescents who have been trafficked, in addition to its ongoing research and lobbying work on this and a range of other issues facing women in Europe: www.womenlobby.org. Other active umbrella groups in Europe include the NGO coalition Euronet: www.europeanchildrensnetwork.org. The Child Rights Information Network, CRIN: www.crin.org, has thematic 'desks' that include trafficking of children.
- A number of United Nations and inter-governmental agencies work in the area of human trafficking, including child trafficking: the International Organisation for Migration (IOM): www.iom.int, the World Health Organisation (WHO): www.who.int, the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR): www.unhcr.org, UNICEF: www.unicef.org and the International Labour Organisation (ILO) through its International Programme for the elimination of child labour (IPEC), the InFocus programme for follow-up of the Declaration on fundamental principles and rights at work (DECLARATION) and the Special Action Programme to combat forced labour (SAP-FL): www.ilo.org.
- The actions of the United Nations special rapporteurs on trafficking and on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography are administered through the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights. The special rapporteurs submit an annual report to the UN General Assembly: www.ohchr.org and www.un.org.

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Daphne-supported projects in the area of trafficking and labour exploitation

Labour exploitation

97-017-W	The role of NGOs and public authorities in supporting the rights of migrant domestic workers
98-133-W	Strategies to combat the abuse of migrant domestic workers and charter of rights
99-064-W	Rights of migrant domestic workers
99-082-WC	Combating modern forms of slavery
98-215-WC	Combating domestic slavery in Europe through research and networking
99-318-W	Acting against forced prostitution
00-037-W	Understanding sexual exploitation of women and good practices in responding to it
00-039-W	Empowering migrant domestic workers to claim their rights
00-060-W	Information resources for women trafficked into prostitution in Europe
01-195-W	Exploring a helpline service for women in prostitution

Unaccompanied minor migrants

99-146-C	Clandestine migration of unaccompanied minors; response structure and protection mechanisms
00-338-C	Protection and response mechanisms for unaccompanied minors; extending research
02-141-YC	Integrated, networked approaches to the needs of unaccompanied minors
03-125-Y	Unaccompanied minors on the streets of Europe
04-2-034-YC	From daily challenges to real policies: Minors, people, migrants (UMMs)
05-1-307-YC	The risk group of unaccompanied migrant minors: Protection measures in an enlarged EU

Prevention programmes

98-057-W	Combating trafficking in the Nordic and Baltic states
98-096-W	Preventing and reducing violence against migrant and trafficked women
99-201-W	Combating trafficking and improving rehabilitation strategies
99-210-W	Preventing trafficking in the Baltic states
04-1-075-WY	Trilateral initiative to prevent and combat trafficking in women within Roma communities in the CEE
05-1-232-Y	Prevention of trafficking in human beings among at-risk groups with a special focus on institutional care facilities in CZ and SK

Education and awareness-raising

98-070-W	Public attitudes towards sexual exploitation and trafficking of women
98-245-W	Awareness campaigns in support of non-EU trafficked women
05-1-286-WY	Human rights and trafficking in women and young people: An educational toolkit for teachers and students

Support to victims

97-043-W	Pilot project for women victims of trafficking – the LENA project
97-118-WC	Access to support institutions for ethnic minority women and girls trafficked into the EU
97-408-W	Social intervention practices for trafficking victims
98-237-WC	Support to women victims of trafficking and exploitation
98-273-WC	Supporting migrant women and young people victims of trafficking
99-093-W	Legal, psycho-social and medical support to women victims of trafficking
99-105-W	Multi-sectoral responses to working with trafficked women
99-319-WC	Models of refuge and response for trafficked women from Kosovo
00-014-W	Online information source for trafficked women
00-017-W	Models of good practice in supporting victims of trafficking
00-265-WC	Identifying and responding to the health needs of women and girls trafficked into Europe
01-010-WY	Models of reintegration of victims of trafficking and bonded labour
01-021-W	Extension of online resource for women in prostitution and trafficked women
01-169-W	Strategies for support to women in sexual exploitation
01-211-WYC	Empowering agencies supporting women victims of trafficking and exploitation
02-009-WY	Empowering migrant women in prostitution and victims of trafficking
02-010-W	Further development of online resources for women in prostitution and trafficked women
02-082-WY	Care provision and practices in health interventions for trafficked women and adolescents
02-165-WYC	Multidisciplinary approaches to protecting victims of trafficking
03-025-W	Further development of an online resource for women in prostitution and trafficked women
04-2-069-WY	Policy, advocacy and good practice recommendations for the health of trafficked women and adolescents
05-1-049-Y	Baltic Sea region comprehensive assistance to children victims of trafficking – BSR CACVT

Note: Full details of these projects and the organisations involved are available in the on-line resource: www.daphne-toolkit.org. Projects supported through the 2005 call for proposals (05-) run through 2006 and will complete reporting in 2007. They are outlined in the Daphne Toolkit project listing.

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