**Written Submission on Trafficking in Women & Girls in the context of Global Migration**

This written submission is made on behalf of the Sex Workers Inclusive Feminist Alliance (SWIFA)[[1]](#footnote-2) to the Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW Committee), ahead of the half-day of general discussion on the draft *General Recommendation on trafficking in women and girls in the context of global migration (GR)* and has been prepared in consideration of the concept note shared by the CEDAW Committee in November 2018 setting out the scope of the GR.

1. **Introduction**

Trafficking in women and girls in the context of global migration is a grave human rights concern and we welcome the decision of the CEDAW Committee to provide authoritative guidance to State parties on addressing the gendered dimensions of trafficking. A response to trafficking in women and girls within a human rights framework that is anchored in the CEDAW principles of substantive equality and non-discrimination and moves away from racist and neo-colonial narratives and approaches, will have a truly transformative impact.

States often address human trafficking solely as a matter of criminal justice. In contrast, this GR must stress the importance of a victim-centered, human rights-based approach to combatting trafficking that addresses the root causes of trafficking taking into account its overarching political and economic context. It must further ensure anti-trafficking measures do not negatively impact the human rights of trafficked persons or other marginalized groups including migrants and sex workers.

The GR must set out a framework for State accountability that incorporates restitution, compensation, rehabilitation, satisfaction and guarantees of non-repetition - as set out in the *Basic Principles and Guidelines on the Right to a Remedy and Reparation*.[[2]](#footnote-3) Drawing on the established principle of ‘due diligence’,[[3]](#footnote-4) the GR must ensure that State obligations extend to responsibility for actions of non-State actors, in particular increasing transparency and accountability in the context of global supply chains.

The GR must combat stereotyped assumptions of human trafficking, highlighting the need for anti-trafficking measures to be anchored in rigorous, impartial evidence. Anti-trafficking policies must recognise links between trafficking and systemic factors such as poverty and the segmentation of labour markets, and consider intentional decisions to migrate (including through irregular migration channels) as well as the complexities of exploitation and coercion. Without this, State policies will be unable to adequately address the root causes of trafficking, identify persons who have been trafficked, or develop appropriate intervention or support programs.[[4]](#footnote-5)

In achieving this, the GR must not conflate trafficking with sex work.[[5]](#footnote-6) This is crucial, as the conflation of human trafficking for sexual exploitation and sex work leads to harmful laws and policies that negatively impact trafficked persons, migrants, and sex workers.

1. **Context and background**

We live in an increasingly unequal world. Rising wealth disparity has added to multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination and social inequality.[[6]](#footnote-7) Exploitation is the norm, not the exception, for most workers in the world, and human trafficking is an extreme expression of this common experience. Migration and human trafficking cannot be viewed in isolation from development and economic policies that foster inequality. Without addressing the structural drivers in the global economy that fuel the demand for the cheap goods and services and the lack of accountability for corporate actors, poor pay and exploitative labour conditions will continue.[[7]](#footnote-8)

We are in the midst of a surge in the politics of demonisation, movements and governments that promote anti-human rights and divisive policies, often linked to patriarchy, xenophobia, racial and gender supremacist ideologies and attempts to impose values of some groups on others in ways that impinge on the rights of freedom of religion and expression and non-discrimination. This environment increasingly renders acceptable anti-sex work, anti-migrant and xenophobic discourse and policies. The increasing militarisation of ‘legal migration’ channels that are by definition bureaucratic and exclusionary, are justified on grounds of national security, and often used as a mask for xenophobia.[[8]](#footnote-9)

This phenomenon has a critical gender dimension; women continue to bear the brunt of economic injustice and face disproportionate and increasing vulnerability from climate change.[[9]](#footnote-10) They are disproportionately represented in low wage sectors and are excluded from many education opportunities. Women also carry the greatest burden of unpaid care work.[[10]](#footnote-11) Without equal access to education or employment, women are at greater risk of being trafficked.[[11]](#footnote-12)

Embedded in structural, gendered inequality is the moral panic surrounding sex work that further entrenches patriarchal notions around women’s sexuality, agency and gendered constructions of labour. The persistent conflation of trafficking and sex work in popular discourse, as well as in laws, policies and practices creates a dominant narrative that disregards the realities and diverse ways in which sex work can take place, and the point at which coercion and force enter the equation. A key consequence of this is the immense adverse impact on the human rights of sex workers.[[12]](#footnote-13) Another is the scant attention paid to trafficking in other labour sectors, such as agriculture, construction, domestic work or fisheries, where abuses and rights violations are rampant.[[13]](#footnote-14)

1. **Women’s experiences of migration**

The CEDAW Committee has made great contributions to the understanding of migration as a gendered phenomenon through the 2008 General Recommendation No. 26 on women migrant workers. It outlined the drivers of women’s migration, which remain current, including: globalisation, economic policies, the pursuit of new opportunities, poverty, gendered cultural practices and gender-based violence in countries of origin, natural disasters or wars and internal military conflicts.[[14]](#footnote-15)

Migration is often described through the lens of male experiences, and migration policies frequently ignore women’s migration and rights. Men who migrate are understood to be exercising agency and acting on economic imperatives, which is usually conceived as labour migration. The understanding of women migrants is often limited to a simplistic view of family migration - a largely feminised flow that brings dependents to the private sphere— and assumes a lack of choice, agency or autonomy. When women migrants are conceived of as workers it is typically focused on the care economy. This narrative positions women as inherently vulnerable and as victims in need of protections, resulting in further restrictions of rights and mobility, often under the guise of combatting trafficking.[[15]](#footnote-16) A rights-based gender analysis of migration laws and policies would lead to policies that ensure migrants’ rights and gender equity, and recognise migrants’ autonomy.

Throughout the migration cycle, violations against women’s rights occur. These include: restrictions on the right to work and mobility; the undervaluing of women’s work; lack of social protection for women; violations of women migrants’ sexual and reproductive health rights; trafficking in women and girls; violence against women; and violation of women’s right to access justice in remedy for these types of violations.[[16]](#footnote-17) It is particularly important to consider the impact of protectionist laws and policies based on gender stereotypes that restrict women’s right to mobility and migration. Evidence shows that women do not stop migrating as a result of restrictions. Instead, they rely on unregistered brokers or agents, further exposing them to risks of trafficking and labour exploitation.[[17]](#footnote-18) Moreover, as recognized by the CEDAW Committee, such sex-specific restrictions are discriminatory and violate the provisions of CEDAW.[[18]](#footnote-19)

Commitment to upholding women’s autonomy and agency, including that of sex workers, is key to respecting, protecting and fulling women’s human rights. This is particularly urgent in the context of migration, in which the causes and consequences of risk and vulnerability for women are pronounced. This means augmenting spaces in which women can express their own experiences of rights violations, including discrimination and violence. It also calls for the amplification of women’s strategies of resistance, for the implementation of gender-transformative laws, and for human rights-based anti-trafficking laws and policies that respect women’s right to seek independence and autonomy, including through migration. For instance, in a recent consultation between CREA and the All-India Network of Sex Workers, one participant stressed the importance of fully understanding the push factors of migration, including domestic violence. She noted: “*I have chosen this [sex work] - I am not a victim now, I was a victim back then.”* Another participant noted:

*“Sex work has given us better financial and living conditions. This work has allowed us to build a network - be it within the community, or in the form of our clientele - sometimes a policeman, sometimes a minister. Life has changed for us and for the better. We have confidence, we have free time for ourselves*.”

Discrimination and inequality have been increasingly central concerns as the understanding of challenges in migration and the causes and consequences of trafficking have evolved. While protection from gender-based harms, such as sexual assault and rape, have helped frame our understanding of women’s risks and vulnerability, they have led to an over-reliance on criminal laws and policies, without consideration for the ways that engaging the punitive power of the state re-inscribes existing power structures and systems of marginalization and discrimination. For instance, at the CREA/AINSW consultation, one of the participants emphasised their experience of “*constant cases of police harassment in Hingoli district, Maharashtra. [The police] conduct raids and catch our colleagues and torture them so that they complain about our bosses*.”

Evidence shows that women’s experience of risk and vulnerability to trafficking and to human rights violations in the context of migration are heavily dependent not only on their gender but also class, caste, race, ethnicity, sexuality, gender identity, sex characteristics, religion, health status (including living with HIV or being pregnant), (im)migrant status, and disability. Discrimination, marginalization and the structural layering of privilege (and lack thereof) are often significant obstacles to exercising rights. In this context, laws that criminalize selling sex perpetuate discrimination, stigma and marginalization, and create barriers for sex workers to access sexual and reproductive health services[[19]](#footnote-20). This in turn, may prompt migration.[[20]](#footnote-21)

1. **Limitations of current datasets that form the basis of policymaking on trafficking**

Limitations of available data on persons who have been trafficked

Although there is increasing focus on trafficking data and indicators, including an indicator under the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, there is currently no uniform, methodological basis for constructing a global estimate of trafficking.[[21]](#footnote-22) While some studies address the context and limitations of the data, these are not as widely publicised as the headline numbers. Data only accounts for what is counted within the limitations of legislation, policy or practice. Data can therefore be limited or biased towards forms of trafficking focused on in policy or discourse, resulting in a misleading impression of the degree of or types of trafficking in persons and making comparison impossible. In practice therefore, data on trafficking based on ‘detected cases’ demonstrates the priorities of law enforcement and not the extent of the actual problem.

Both national and regional laws and policies, as well as mainstream media and other depictions of trafficking, focus disproportionately and in some cases exclusively on women and girls, and primarily the sex industry. This feeds into the development of data collection and statistics that reflect popular discourse on trafficking rather than unbiased, thorough data that encompasses the reality and extent of trafficking.[[22]](#footnote-23)

In 2014, the United Nations Office on Drugs & Crime (UNODC) acknowledged these challenges in its Global Report on Trafficking in Persons (GLOTIP Report), stating:

“*At present, there is no sound estimate of the number of victims of trafficking in persons worldwide. Due to methodological difficulties and the challenges associated with estimating sizes of hidden populations such as trafficking victims, this is a task that has so far not been satisfactorily accomplished*.”[[23]](#footnote-24)

The most recent data published by the UNODC in the 2018 GLOTIP report must be assessed through this lens, and juxtaposed with the broad variance in estimates made by other UN agencies, such as the International Labour Organization (ILO), that collect data on forced labour and exploitation.

Additionally, it must be evaluated in light of the continuing challenges in data collection at the national level. These include the assertion by practitioners in several States that there are considerable difficulties in identifying and prosecuting forced labour, as well as in distinguishing bad work conditions from trafficking for forced labour.[[24]](#footnote-25) Further, what is considered exploitative labour rising to the level of trafficking will be different in a less developed country - where exploitative labour may be more common - than in a more developed one.[[25]](#footnote-26) Lastly, in most States there is a disproportionate focus on trafficking for sexual exploitation, even when it is clear that trafficking for other forms of exploitation are also prevalent. While many factors may help explain this situation, participating practitioners pointed to the relatively greater difficulties involved in investigating and prosecuting non-sexual forms of exploitation as the principal reason for the discrepancy.[[26]](#footnote-27)

Lack of credible evidence of a causal relationship between criminalizing sex work and a reduction in trafficking

Some commentators argue that decriminalising sex work leads to increased trafficking into the sex industry. However, available evidence, published by *The Lancet,* credible research institutions, and practitioners indicates this is not the case.[[27]](#footnote-28) The UNAIDS Advisory group on HIV and Sex Work also notes that criminalising clients has not been shown to be effective in reducing trafficking.[[28]](#footnote-29)

There is no conclusive evidence that countries with legalised or decriminalised sex work experience higher rates of human trafficking. The most widely cited study supporting such a claim[[29]](#footnote-30) has been criticised for its flawed methodology by sociologist Prof. Ronald Weitzer[[30]](#footnote-31) and the Dutch National Rapporteur on Trafficking in Human Beings and Sexual Violence against Children.[[31]](#footnote-32) Additionally, a review of 46 studies (including Cho et al.) claiming any relationship between sex work legal models and increased trafficking, conducted by the University for Humanistic Studies, concluded that the methodology of each study was too flawed or limited for a direct correlation to be established on the basis of the available data.[[32]](#footnote-33)

Other research suggests that decriminalisation of adult consensual sex work may help reduce instances of trafficking, and lead to more effective anti-trafficking efforts.[[33]](#footnote-34) For example, New Zealand, which decriminalised sex work in 2003, has not recorded any cases of human trafficking into the sex industry.[[34]](#footnote-35) However, the prohibition of migrants engaging in sex work in New Zealand has resulted in an increased risk of exploitation, and the CEDAW committee has previously recommended that this provision be revised.[[35]](#footnote-36)

Crucially, there is a misguided emphasis on quantitative data collection in conjunction with an over-reliance on criminal justice responses in the arena of anti-trafficking. The success of criminal justice responses to trafficking relies significantly on easily quantifiable indicators such as: number of arrests or prosecutions, number of officials trained, instances of cross-border investigation cooperation, number of special interview suites established, etc.[[36]](#footnote-37) In contrast to these reactive measures, numerous studies have highlighted the importance of preventive measures. The UN Special Rapporteur on Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children has recently stated that preventive anti-trafficking measures should be considered both life-saving interventions, and aimed at preventing violence against women.[[37]](#footnote-38) However, success via prevention is far more difficult to measure and evaluate, making it less attractive to governments and international organisations alike.[[38]](#footnote-39)

1. **Limitations of current anti-trafficking measures, especially so-called “end demand” approaches**

A key factor inhibiting human rights-based anti-trafficking measures is the proliferation of hostile and punitive policies towards sex work that prevent persons who have been trafficked and those they come in contact with from coming forward.

Conflation of trafficking, exploitation and sex work

All too often, sex work, sexual exploitation, trafficking and violence against women are conflated in public discourse and in law and policy. This conflation adversely impacts the rights of marginalized groups including trafficked persons and sex workers.

Amnesty International has described the conflation of sex work and human trafficking in Buenos Aires, Argentina:

*“[T]he 2012 amendment of the Federal Anti-trafficking Law criminalized a broader range of conduct and the law now simply requires proof of ‘exploitation,’ for which there is no clear definition in law. In the context of commercial sex, the authorities are interpreting this to simply require some form of involvement in the organization of sex work. As many government officials deem sex work exploitative, current legislation allows human trafficking and sex work to be treated in practice as one and the same and there is little or no incentive to distinguish between the two.” [[39]](#footnote-40)*

In Europe, regional anti-trafficking policy has increasingly emphasised criminalising clients of sex workers. In 2014, the European Parliament adopted a non-binding resolution that encourages member States to criminalise the purchase of sexual services. That same year, the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe adopted a resolution promoting the ‘Nordic Model’ as an anti-trafficking measure. The International Committee on the Rights of Sex Workers in Europe argues that in practice these resolutions simply enable many governmental efforts to target and prosecute (migrant) sex workers under the guise of preventing human trafficking.[[40]](#footnote-41) The conflation of sex work with gender-based violence, and the conflation of exploitative work conditions in the sex industry with trafficking, are major factors in perpetuating exploitation and precarious working conditions in sex work. This conflation has led to extremely harmful legislation that alienates sex workers from services and prevents them from organising for better work conditions or asserting their human and labour rights.[[41]](#footnote-42) Further, in the context of migration the conflation of human trafficking with migrant sex work compounds the vulnerability of migrant sex workers to harassment, abuse, and violence at the hands of police, third parties, clients, and people posing as clients, as it results in the disproportionate policing of racial and gender minorities.[[42]](#footnote-43) Further, discriminatory laws that prohibit migrant women from engaging in sex work may increase their vulnerability to trafficking.[[43]](#footnote-44)

Negative human rights impact of an ‘end demand’ approach focused on repressing sex work

‘End demand’ laws are being enacted globally, inaccurately framed by feminist and abolitionist groups who seek to eradicate sex work as a strategy to promote gender equality and combat trafficking. In reality, sex workers are made more vulnerable to violence, discrimination and exploitation as a result of such laws. For instance, a study on the impact of the ‘end demand’ law enacted in France in 2016 found that the majority of the 583 sex workers who participated in the study felt that client criminalisation had been detrimental to them. They reported facing increased exposure to violence (42%), loss of income (78%) deterioration in living conditions (63%) and reduced ability to negotiate condom use (38%).[[44]](#footnote-45)

In general, such laws tend to be disproportionately enforced in the spaces occupied by women sex workers— their homes, neighbourhoods, and work places. As a result, women sex workers, not male clients, incur the majority of profiling, surveillance and policing, not only while working but also in their day-to-day lives. Women sex workers are rarely informed of their rights, and police continue to treat women sex workers as criminals even when the law does not criminalise sex workers themselves.[[45]](#footnote-46)

Over-policing of spaces occupied by women sex workers results in frequent police stops, identity checks and questioning, as well as increased arrest, detention, and penalisation for both sex work-related crimes (such as loitering and soliciting) and non-sex work-related crimes, such as possession of drugs/drug paraphernalia and public order offences. Migrant women sex workers, who are often targeted in the policing of ‘end demand’ legislation, also face deportation.[[46]](#footnote-47)

In Norway, Amnesty International has documented the implementation of a ‘crush the market’ approach to sex work by police - justified as necessary to (purportedly) eliminate demand for commercial sex and otherwise reduce trafficking of persons. This had led to the evictions of thousands of sex workers from their homes, and rapid deportation of migrant women - without investigation or evidence of trafficking. Some of the women affected were likely deported to contexts where they would be at risk of being re-trafficked.[[47]](#footnote-48)

Clients of sex workers are often best placed to detect and report trafficked persons. For example, in 2007 a campaign in the Czech Republic run by IOM*, Caritas* and *La Strada* that targeted clients of sex workers, a number of calls from clients led to the identification of cases of women trafficked into sex work.[[48]](#footnote-49) They noted in evaluation:

*“The campaign addressing clients of prostitution as partners in the fight against human trafficking gave rise to a positive reaction from the target group… it can be stated that the informational-preventive purpose of the campaign was successfully fulfilled.”*

More recently, the Dutch branch of Crimestoppers International, *Meld Misdaad Anoniem*, has been running campaigns to encourage clients of sex workers to report suspicions of human trafficking to an anonymous hotline. In 2012-2013 the hotline registered a 76% increase in reported cases of trafficking in the sex industry, which led to 12 convictions of traffickers.[[49]](#footnote-50) A 2014 study by the Amsterdam public health service (GGD) surveying clients of sex workers found that almost 40% of clients were willing to report cases of exploitation and human trafficking and recommended that the city invest further to increase the role of clients in fighting abuse.[[50]](#footnote-51) *La Strada* member organisations report that clients of sex workers are one of the main sources of referral of cases of trafficking to their services, after police and social workers.[[51]](#footnote-52)

Use of disproportionate force and other human rights violations during raids

Amnesty International has received reports and documented instances of anti-trafficking raids carried out by police using unnecessary or excessive levels of force, including firearms.[[52]](#footnote-53) Sex workers in Argentina were found to have been subjected to anti-trafficking raids that were violent, resulted in their personal property being stolen, and/or were subjected to extortion by law enforcement officials who demanded bribes. Similar experiences have been documented among sex workers in India where humiliation, verbal and physical abuse were stated to be “common accompaniments” to police raids.[[53]](#footnote-54)

Emphasis on prosecutions has been identified as contributing to violations of the rights of persons who have been trafficked - for example, through laws and policies that compel persons who have been trafficked to cooperate with criminal justice agencies or make assistance conditional on such cooperation. More generally, concerns have been expressed that the focus on prosecutions has been at the expense of attention to victims’ rights including their right to protection, support and remedies.[[54]](#footnote-55)

1. **Recommendations for gender-transformative, human rights-based responses to trafficking in women in the context of global migration:**

In developing its new General Recommendation on trafficking in women and girls in the context of global migration, we recommend that the CEDAW Committee utilise the following principles, which are too often compromised in the context of anti-trafficking measures:

1. Freedom of Association: worker collectivisation and organizing for better working conditions and prevention of trafficking
2. Equality and Non-discrimination: non-stigmatizing, non-stereotyping responses to trafficking
3. Autonomy: respect for agency of individuals, their freely given consent and their bodily integrity
4. Participation: fully integrated participation of those affected by policies

**Specific recommendations for the General Recommendation:**

1. Ensure that States fully decriminalise sex work and recognise that sex workers have the same rights as other workers in relation to rights at work, social protection and social dialogue as outlined in ILO’s Decent Work Agenda.
2. Ensure the human rights of people who have been trafficked are at the centre of all efforts to prevent and end trafficking and that programmes to protect, assist and provide redress to them are adequately resourced. Elements of such efforts include policies that facilitate and do not criminalise migration.
3. Ensure that States accord trafficked persons all human rights, including those to which they are entitled as victims of crime and of human rights violations. These include the rights to receive protection from further harm including special consideration and care to avoid re-traumatisation in the course of any legal and administrative procedures, to be treated with compassion and respect for their dignity and human rights, to be provided with access to justice and prompt and effective remedies including reparation, regardless of the individual’s immigration status, presence in the country of jurisdiction, criminal case against or identification of the trafficker, or involvement in any investigation/legal process.
4. Ensure that responses to trafficking in women are distinct from responses to trafficking in girls to avoid infantilising women and ensure an effective response to the specific vulnerabilities of women and girls.
5. Ensure decent work conditions for all migrant workers, including migrant sex workers.[[55]](#footnote-56)
6. Ensure that States enact, modify and implement anti-trafficking policies and measures on the basis of rigorous, independent and unbiased research. The funding for such independent research should also be ensured by States. Research must include, both in design and as subjects, those affected by anti-trafficking policies, including persons who have been trafficked and workers vulnerable to trafficking.
7. Ensure that States establish effective monitoring and oversight to ensure anti-trafficking measures do not have a negative impact on the human rights of marginalised groups, including persons who have been trafficked, migrant women, and sex workers.
8. Recognising the structural drivers that increase all women’s vulnerability to trafficking, ensure that States put in place comprehensive social protections systems[[56]](#footnote-57), including a Universal Basic Income.
9. Ensure that States support appropriate, community-led systems to identify victims of trafficking that do not discriminate or unfairly target specific groups of marginalised women. These systems should be established at locations and among groups where there may be trafficked women, including sites where refugees, internally displaced persons and other migrants are registered, or where they are arrested or detained.[[57]](#footnote-58)
10. Ensure that States do not contravene the principle of non-refoulment and cause human rights violations in their efforts to rapidly deport migrants, including migrant sex workers, without screening for indications of trafficking and potential violence and rights violations they may face upon return to their country of origin.
11. Ensure that States inform persons who have been trafficked and people at risk of being trafficked, of their right to seek asylum from persecution, and grant them access to fair and efficient asylum procedures.
12. Ensure that States establish firewalls between labour, social security and immigration agencies so that migrant workers are not put at increased risk of exploitation due to fears of deportation.
13. Ensure that State measures to protect persons that have been trafficked avoid revictimisation and respect agency and autonomy of trafficked persons and that all such measures are voluntary and consensual. Ensure that social inclusion policies enacted by States for trafficking survivors do not require compulsory protective detention or any other manner of arbitrary detention of persons who are trafficked.
14. Ensure that States center eradication of labour exploitation in policies seeking to address trafficking rather than in instrumental notions of supply and demand. States must also strengthen legal protections of labour rights, ensure effective implementation of laws and recognize labour organizing as a means of combating trafficking.
15. Ensure that States apply a due diligence framework to risk assessment of persons who have been trafficked so that they are protected against further rights violations.
16. Ensure that States provide long term psychosocial support to trafficked persons.

1. The Alliance is led by the Global Network of Sex Work Projects and includes Amnesty International - International Secretariat, CREA, FEMNET, Global Alliance Against Traffic in Women (GAATW) International Women’s Health Coalition (IWHC), International Women’s Rights Action Watch Asia Pacific (IWRAW Asia Pacific), Women’s Global Network for Reproductive Rights (WGNRR) and Centre for Women’s Global Leadership (CWGL). [↑](#footnote-ref-2)
2. Basic Principles and Guidelines on the Right to a Remedy and Reparation for Victims of Gross Violations of International Human Rights Law and Serious Violations of International Humanitarian Law, adopted by the General Assembly resolution 60/14, available at: <https://www.ohchr.org/en/professionalinterest/pages/remedyandreparation.aspx> [↑](#footnote-ref-3)
3. For example, the CEDAW Committee has drawn on this principle in the context of State obligations in [General recommendation No. 35 on gender-based violence against women, updating general recommendation No. 19](https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/Treaties/CEDAW/Shared%2520Documents/1_Global/CEDAW_C_GC_35_8267_E.pdf), CEDAW/C/GC/35 [↑](#footnote-ref-4)
4. For example, see Amnesty International, USA: In Hostile Terrain: Human rights violations in immigration enforcement in the US Southwest, 2012, chapter 5. [↑](#footnote-ref-5)
5. Sex workers include “*female, male and transgender adults and young people who receive money or goods in exchange for sexual services, either regularly or occasionally*…” Source: UNAIDS, 2012, “Guidance Note on HIV and Sex Work”, p.4, available at <http://www.unaids.org/en/resources/documents/2012/20120402_UNAIDS-guidance-note-HIV-sex-work> [↑](#footnote-ref-6)
6. <https://www.oxfam.org/en/even-it/5-shocking-facts-about-extreme-global-inequality-and-how-even-it-davos> [↑](#footnote-ref-7)
7. Global Alliance Against Traffic in Women, Position Paper Facilitating Migration and Fulfilling Rights- to Reduce Smuggling of Migrants and Prevent Trafficking in Persons, September 2017. Available at: <https://refugeesmigrants.un.org/sites/default/files/ts5_gaatw.pdf> [↑](#footnote-ref-8)
8. Sajjad, T. (2018). What’s in a name? ‘Refugees’, ‘migrants’ and the politics of labelling. *Race & Class*, *60*(2), 40–62. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0306396818793582> [↑](#footnote-ref-9)
9. Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women General Recommendation No. 37 on Gender-related dimensions of disaster risk reduction in the context of climate change, para 46, CEDAW/C/GC/37. [↑](#footnote-ref-10)
10. Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) Contribution to the 2030 Sustainable Development Goals in response to a call for inputs by the High-Level Political Forum on Sustainable Development (HLPF), p.10 27 April 2018. See also: Report of the Special Rapporteur on contemporary forms of slavery, including its causes and consequences: A/73/139, para. 46. [↑](#footnote-ref-11)
11. United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) (2015) Policy Brief: Female Migrants. Second Mayoral Forum on Mobility, Migration and Development. Quito: United Nations Population Fund, p.2. Available at: <https://unitar.org/dcp/sites/unitar.org.dcp/files/uploads/unfpa_-_policy_brief_on_female_migrants.pdf> [↑](#footnote-ref-12)
12. Global Network of Sex Work Projects, Policy Brief: The Impact of Anti-trafficking Legislation and Initiatives on Sex Workers, p 1. 2018. Available at: <https://www.nswp.org/sites/nswp.org/files/impact_of_anti-trafficking_laws_pb_nswp_-_2018.pdf> [↑](#footnote-ref-13)
13. Supra at 12., para. 48. [↑](#footnote-ref-14)
14. Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, General recommendation No. 26 on women migrant workers, CEDAW/C/2009/WP.1/R [↑](#footnote-ref-15)
15. Supra at 12., para. 10,13. [↑](#footnote-ref-16)
16. Overseas Development Institute, Women on the move: Migration, gender equality and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, Briefing, p.4 2016. Available at: <https://www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/resource-documents/10731.pdf> [↑](#footnote-ref-17)
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18. Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, Concluding observations on the eighth periodic report of Sri Lanka, CEDAW/C/LKA/CO/8, 2017 [↑](#footnote-ref-19)
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21. United Nations Office on Drugs & Crime, Global Report on Trafficking in Persons, 2014, p. 16. [↑](#footnote-ref-22)
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