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for Victims of Trafficking





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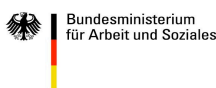
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Integration of Women Involved in Prostitution Including Victims of Human Trafficking into the Legal Labour Market (Project code: EE-6)

Lead partner: National Institute for Health Development – NIHD

Partners: Estonian Women's Studies and Resource Centre, Estonian Institute for Open Society Research, Lifeline and Sigmund



Reintegration of Victims of Trafficking – Strengthening of National Supporters (Project code: DE-XB4-76051-20-20/301)

Lead partner: IOM Germany (Nuremberg)

Partners: AWO LV LSA e.V./ Beratungsstelle Vera (Magdeburg), BAN YING Koordinationsstelle (Berlin), Caritas/Nachtfalter (Essen), Diakonisches Werk/ISKRA (Hagen), Diakonisches Werk/Mitternachtsmission (Heilbronn), IN VIA (Berlin), KARO (Plauen)



Observatory and National Resource Centre on Trafficking in Human Beings (Project code: IT-S2-MDL-258)

Lead partner: Associazione On the Road

Partners: Azienda ULSS 16 di Padova, Censis – Fondazione Centro Studi Investimenti Sociali, C.N.C.A. – Coordinamento Nazionale Comunità di Accoglienza, Comune di Venezia, Dipartimento di Scienze Sociali – Università di Torino, Irecoop

Veneto – Istituto Regionale per l'educazione e gli studi cooperativi, IRS – Istituto per la Ricerca Sociale Società Cooperativa, Onlus Nova – Consorzio Nazionale per l'Innovazione Sociale, Provincia di Pisa, Save the Children Italia Onlus



Integration and Reintegration of Victims of Human Trafficking into Working Society (Project code: LT-19)

Lead partner: Missing Persons' Families Support Center

Partners: Vilnius Caritas, Lithuanian AIDS Center, Gaumina



IRIS – Social and Vocational Reintegration of Women Victims of Trafficking (Project code: PL-1)

Lead partner: La Strada Foundation against Trafficking in Women

Partners: Center for Advancement of Women Foundation, Employment Office – Warsaw, Social Welfare Center – Warsaw, Ministry of Social Policy – Department of Social Assistance and Social Integration, Ministry of the Economy and Labour – Department of Labour Market



PROJECTO PILOTO NA ÁREA DA PROSTITUIÇÃO E TRÁFICO DE MULHERES EM PORTUGAL



Co-operation – Action – Investigation – World Vision (Project code: PT-2004-047)

Lead partner: Commission for Equality and Women's Rights

Partners: Ministry of Justice, Ministry of the Interior, High Commissariat for Immigrants and Ethnic Minorities (ACIME), IOM – Portugal, Associação Para o Planeamento da Família, Espaço Pessoa

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www.osservatoriotrattra.it/download/headway/HW_publication.pdf

Chapter 1

Trafficking in human beings: An analysis of the literature and an overview on the phenomenon in six European countries

by Isabella Orfano

Introduction: some methodological remarks

This Chapter presents the main results of the research carried out within Activity 1 “Overview on the phenomenon of human traffic at national level” of the *Headway* project. Specifically, it presents the key features of the selected literature on trafficking in human beings and the major research findings achieved by the national research teams¹ of the six country partners: Estonia, Germany, Italy, Lithuania, Poland, and Portugal. The final goal of the study was:

- to provide an overview of the types of studies on trafficking carried out and of the different forms and trends of trafficking as they occur in the partner countries and, consequently,
- to perform a cross-country analysis, which may offer significant findings also in consideration of the different roles played by the countries involved as places of origin, transit and destination for trafficked persons.

In order to achieve these goals, the research moved through the following phases:

Phase I: Joint definition of the scope of the research and development of the methodological tools and procedures:

- preparation of a chart;
- validation of the chart/template;
- definition of the selection criteria:
 - o reliability of data;
 - o relevance and representativeness of the sample examined;
 - o recognised expertise of the author(s);
 - o selection of a varied range of sources (universities, research institutes, public and private institutions, NGOs, IOs, etc.);
 - o analysis of different forms of trafficking aimed at the exploitation of persons in the sex sector, in the labour market, through begging, bride mail order, illegal activities (e.g. theft and other petty crimes, drug dealing, selling of counterfeiting products), removal of organs for transplant, illegal international adoptions;
 - o years of publication: 2000-2005;
 - o involvement of the partners of the national DP as know-how holders.

¹ The national country reports within Activity 1 were developed by Cristiana Silva, Elisabete Santos, Isabel Varandas, Nuno Gradim (Lithuanian, Estonian, and Portuguese country reports), Deliana Popova (German country report), Isabella Orfano (Italian and Polish country reports). The country reports were based on data and information collected through ad hoc charts filled by Riina Enke, Iris Pettai, Eve Mai Rao (Estonia); Deliana Popova (Germany); Isabella Orfano, Valeria Ferraris, Enrico Ragaglia, Salvatore Fachile (Italy); Justina Zeltinyte (Lithuania); Stana Buckowska (Poland); Cristiana Silva, Elisabete Santos, Isabel Varandas, Nuno Gradim (Portugal).

Phase II: Collection and selection of the bibliography (up to 20 publications) on trafficking pertaining to their country by each national research team.

Phase III: Reading of the selected works and completing the charts.

Phase IV: Analysis of the data and information gathered and writing of the national reports according to the following content structure:

- selection criteria;
- years of publication;
- language(s);
- main actors, who implemented or where involved in the studies analysed;
- main methodologies applied in the studies;
- overview and knowledge on the trafficking phenomenon;
- overview of the implemented practices resulting from the analysed literature;
- conclusions.

Phase V: Cross-analysis of the national reports and writing of the transnational report.

Main features of the reviewed literature

Selection criteria

All national research teams selected the literature on human trafficking according to most of the criteria that were jointly identified, even though the procedures to reach the final selection of the publications varied from country to country. For instance, in some countries the bibliographies have been compiled and chosen through the active involvement of the partners of the national DPs, in others the transnational coordinators of the national DPs performed the task or an external expert was appointed to carry out the activity.

The overall number of the selected and analysed works is 71. As Table 1 shows, the total amount of publications reviewed per country differs, namely, Germany and Italy examined 20 texts; Portugal 11, Poland 11, Estonia 6, and Lithuania 3. This is the result of several national factors such as:

- the degree of awareness and commitment on anti-trafficking issues of the local, regional or national institutions and governments;
- the level of interest on the issues related to trafficking on the part of the researchers;
- the level of public awareness and the type of dominant public discourse on the subject;
- the implementation or lack of a comprehensive anti-trafficking legislation;
- the functioning or lack of wide-spread support schemes for trafficked persons;
- the amount of financial resources allocated to the research in this field by national and private institutions;
- the lack of proper qualitative and quantitative methodological tools to investigate the different forms of trafficking;
- the limited budget and available human resources to carry out this activity by some transnational partners.

Types of publications reviewed

The most represented form of reviewed literature is the research report coming to 25 out of 71 works followed by books (9), articles of journals (7), and essays (7) excerpted from books. Then, a significant wide range of other types of sources has been examined, even though, they cannot be maintained as numerically representative: dissertations (4), project reports (3), handbooks (3), institutional documents (2), brochures (2), working papers (2), surveys (2), conference proceedings (1), bulletin (1), speech (1), shadow report (1), cd-rom (1).

Language

The language used in the publications is generally the national one (in 48 out of 71), with significant variations among the countries. Estonia and Italy are the countries with the highest number of selected sources published in English: 5 out of 6 works in the case of the first are written in Estonian and English; while in the case of the latter, 7 out of 20 are written in English and Italian and 2 in English. This is the result of at least the following main factors: the studies were funded by international donors whose “vehicular language” is English; the studies were the final products of EU-funded projects carried out in collaboration with European partners whose working language was English; Estonian and Italian are not main languages spoken by the international community, therefore, English was used as a means to better reach a wider audience.

The German and Portuguese publications seem to be less translated into English or into other foreign languages. In the case of Germany, many publications are written by law studies scholars and, therefore, they are likely to be quite specialised and less relevant for foreign researchers, unless they are used in a comparative perspective. In the case of Portugal, most of the studies concern nationals of Portuguese-speaking countries of Africa and Brazil and, therefore, through Portuguese, a significant number of potential readers of those countries can be easily reached.

As far as Poland is concerned, 3 out of 11 works reviewed are written in Polish and English (2) and in several other languages such as Czech, Slovak, and Russian (1). In the last case, the publication is a collection of information material on trafficking developed by an international NGOs network located in the countries where such languages are spoken. Finally, Lithuania is the only country with no literature in a foreign language, but this may be the result of the limited number of available and selected publications (3).

The availability of a translation into one or more foreign languages of the national publications also depends on the economic resources allocated for the studies. Inadequate funding for research also takes its toll on translations, which are generally rather expensive. Therefore, full assessments frequently are not translated, if at all in form of abstracts, executive summaries or shortened versions. Furthermore, in some cases, the little budget allocated for translations is not sufficient to hire professional translators and, thus, the resulting quality of translation is poor to the extent that it can negatively affect the correct understanding of the research findings.

Time of publication

The years between 2000 and 2005 were the time period considered for the selection of the literature to review. The data collected clearly underline a generally increasing interest in the topic of trafficking in all partner countries. Due to their significant relevance in terms of qualitative and quantitative

analyses, the Italian research team chose to also include one work published in 1999 and another issued in 2006. Also the Estonian researchers selected a study published in 2006.

By breaking down the overall number of publications per year the identified positive trend results as follows: 1 work was published in 1999; 3 in 2000; 5 in 2001; 9 in 2002; 13 in 2003; 14 in 2004; 24 in 2005; and 2 in 2006. Thus, the overall amount of publications issued in 2005 was more than seven times as high as that published in 2000. Only in Estonia and Lithuania this trend is not confirmed but the limited numbers of works selected does not allow for a definitive conclusion. According to the national research teams, the significantly increased interest in trafficking-related themes can be a combination of several factors – partly already listed in the previous section – such as the growing visibility of some phenomena linked to human traffic (e.g. prostitution, begging, etc.); escalating media coverage on the topic; country specific scandals (e.g. M. Friedman case, 2003; J. Fischer, 2005 in Germany²); the enactment of new legislations on trafficking in persons and on prostitution; increased expertise developed by service providers assisting trafficked persons and their collaboration with researchers; the amount of financial resources allocated to the research in this field by national and international private and public institutions; the deadlines set by the EU programmes that funded several studies that are also reviewed in the following analysis.

Fields of exploitations explored by the reviewed literature

Trafficking for the purpose of exploitation in the sex sector is the main topic investigated by the considered literature. As a matter of fact, 62 out of 71 are the works that focus on this phenomenon, in most cases (38) as the only issue explored and in some others (24) as one of the forms of exploitation examined. In all countries the majority of the publications concern human traffic for sexual exploitation, with the exception of Germany and Lithuania. All works, in fact, deal with this specific theme. Very few other texts focus on a single field of exploitation: 5 on the labour market; 2 on mail-order brides; 1 on the sale of organs; and 1 on illegal activities. Actually, several publications tackle a mix of different forms of exploitation related to trafficking, including begging, illegal international adoption and the abovementioned ones. Finally, 5 works refer to all fields of exploitation. In the latter case, though, the texts do not contain in-depth analysis, but informative material concerning the legislation, available services to trafficked persons, training modules for professionals, etc.

Such data well represent the current state-of-play of the research field and the general political, institutional and private commitments towards trafficking and trafficked persons. The sex industry in its various legal or illegal “departments” (street prostitution, behind-closed-door prostitution in apartments, night clubs, hotels, saunas, massage parlours, etc.) is the most visible and identifiable sector and, therefore, the least “problematic” to investigate. The significant proliferation of the number of service providers (that specifically support trafficked persons exploited in prostitution) witnessed in the last few years has also contributed to a better study and understanding of the phenomenon. Nevertheless, there are still a considerable number of shortcomings to be overcome until reliable empirical and theoretical tools to soundly study this form of trafficking are developed.

Very few studies specifically investigated trafficking for forced labour: 5 out of 71. While other 15 works dealt with this specific topic along with other issues. Globalisation, the increasing

² From the German national report: “Michael Friedman – a prominent politician and TV-star moderator - has been accused to have connections to crime organisations that apparently make billions of Euros in trafficking in women. The second case goes back to a decision of - former foreign minister – to ease conditions for citizens of the former Soviet Block to acquire a German visa. This has led – so the logic of the argumentation – to the inflow of thousand Eastern European criminals making immense profit from the new slave trade with Eastern European women”.

deregularisation of the labour market, the so-called flexibility of the workforce greatly affect the national and foreign workers, whose vulnerability significantly increased. In this scenario, trafficking thrives to meet also the needs of the national economies. As a matter of fact, the wealthy countries, on the one hand, profit from the work performed by legal and illegal migrants and, on the other hand, implement restrictive migration policies to respond to conservative and sometimes xenophobic attitudes within public opinion. A double standard is clearly employed both at individual and institutional level. This does not favour any constructive debate that could promote the development of transparent, regulated migration policies – based on the respect of human rights – and contribute to the fight against trafficking. As a result, also the theoretical framework to analyse this field is still not fully developed. Scholars still discuss on key-concepts such as, for instance, labour exploitation, forced labour, formal and informal markets, managed migration. As highlighted by the findings of our exploratory work quite some research has been invested this specific area.

Although trafficking by means of “mail-order bride” practices is still a phenomenon little known and examined, 5 investigations on this topic were found: 3 in Germany and 2 in Portugal. While the Portuguese studies specifically focused on this theme, the German ones took it into consideration along with other topics related to trafficking. Only 1 book dealing with trafficking for the sale of organs for transplant was selected. This is probably the field of research related to human trafficking that is least explored due to the difficulties in collecting reliable data and getting into contact with key-informants. Also only 1 study exclusively analysed trafficking for the purpose of exploitation in illegal activities; such area, though, has been also taken into consideration in other publications. Finally, several works examined different forms of trafficking. Such an approach underlines the existing correlations among different forms of human trafficking and, most of all, the diversified but interlinked interests managed by criminal groups involved in this hideous business.

Table 1 –An overview of the main features of the selected literature

Country	Estonia	Germany	Italy	Lithuania	Poland	Portugal	Total
No. of publications selected	6	20	20	3	11	11	71
Types of publications	Research reports: 5 Survey: 1	Research reports: 6 Books: 5 Proj. report: 1 Shadow report: 1 Articles: 3 Dissertations: 3 Speech: 1	Research reports: 9 Books: 2 Handbooks: 2 Institutional reports: 2 Essays: 5	Book: 1 Proj. report: 1 Survey: 1	Research reports: 2 Conf. proc.: 1 Handbook: 1 Dissertation: 1 Articles: 2 Bulletin: 1 Brochures: 2 Cd-rom: 1	Books: 1 Research reports: 3 Project report: 1 Articles: 2 Working papers: 2 Essays: 2	Research reports: 25 Books: 9 Articles: 7 Essays: 7 Dissertations: 4 Project reports: 3 Handbooks: 3 Institutional reports: 2 Brochures: 2 Papers: 2 Survey: 2 Conference proceedings: 1 Bulletin: 1 Speech: 1 Shadow report: 1 Cd-rom: 1
Fields of exploitation explored	Sex sector: 5 Labour market: 1	Sex sector: 14 Sex sect. & lab. mkt: 3 Sex sect. & mail-order: brides: 1 Sex sect., lab. mkt & mail-order brides: 2	Sex sector: 9 Labour market: 1 Sex sect. & lab. mkt: 5 Sex sect., lab. mkt & ill. activities: 1 Sex sect., begging & ill. activities: 1 Sex sect. & ill. activities: 1 Organs: 1 All fields: 1	Sex sector: 2 Sex sect. & lab. mkt: 1	Sex sector: 5 Labour market: 1 Sex sect., begging, ill. activities, ill. int'l adopt.: 1 All fields: 4	Sex sector: 3 Labour market: 2 Sex sect. & lab. mkt: 1 Mail-order brides: 2 Ill. activities: 1 Sex sect., lab. mkt & ill. activities: 2	Sex sector: 38 Labour market: 5 Mail-order brides: 2 Organs: 1 Illegal activities: 1 Sex sect. & lab. mkt: 10 Sex sect., lab. mkt, m.o. bride: 2 Sex sect. & m.o. bride: 1 Sex sect., lab. mkt, ill. activities: 3 Sex sect., ill. activities: 1 Sex sect., ill. activities, begging: 1 Sex sect., begging, ill. activities, int'l adoptions: 1 All fields: 5
Languages	Estonian: 1 Estonian & English: 5	German: 16 English: 2 German & English: 2	Italian: 11 English: 2 Italian & English: 7	Lithuanian: 3	Polish: 8 Polish & English: 2 Polish, English, Czech, Slovak, Russian: 1	Portuguese: 9 English: 2	
Years of publications	2002: 2 2003: 2 2004: 1 2006: 1	2000: 2 2001: 3 2002: 2 2003: 4 2004: 4 2005: 5	1999: 1 2000: 1 2001: 2 2002: 3 2003: 3 2004: 3 2005: 6 2006: 1	2004: 2 2005: 1	2002: 1 2003: 2 2004: 3 2005: 5	2002: 1 2003: 2 2004: 1 2005: 7	1999: 1 2000: 3 2001: 5 2002: 9 2003: 13 2004: 14 2005: 24 2006: 1

Main actors, who implemented and/or sponsored all selected studies

As shown in Table 2, the typologies of organisations that implemented and/or sponsored the analysed publications differ in all partner countries, even though some similarities can be found. Most of the studies were carried out by professional researchers who regularly work/ed for the organisations involved or had been hired to specifically do the research. In some instances, social workers were also involved in the studies as “temporary researchers”. In fact, thanks to their long-standing experience in the anti-trafficking field and their direct contact with trafficked persons, experienced social workers are considered to be crucial key-informants or/and interviewers in gathering information and in-depth analyses, which otherwise would be rather difficult to achieve.

In view of the typologies of organisations that implemented and/or sponsored the studies, it can be noted that Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) are indisputably the most represented actors (28 out of 100). Such data highlights the leading role that NGOs have taken on in the anti-trafficking sector since the early 90s. As a result, NGOs are the most significant bearers of know-how on the phenomenon of trafficking (mainly) for sexual exploitation, on anti-trafficking policies and practices, and most of all, on providing assistance to and support for trafficked persons. In several cases, the publications issued by NGOs are the outcomes of action-research aimed at exploring specific aspects of an ever-changing phenomenon and/or of its players in order to improve the services provided to the target groups. In other cases, the publications contain relevant reference materials (legislations, national action plans, recommendations on policies and practices, training modules, etc.) in order to raise awareness or train the general public or some specialised key-players (e.g. law enforcement officers, prosecutors, social workers, etc.).

However, taking into account the country specificities, NGOs do not hold the leading position in the production of studies on trafficking in all the partner countries involved in the Headway project. Italy (17), Estonia (5), Poland (4), and Germany (2) are the countries where NGOs play an important role as research promoters and (co-)implementers. The NGOs involved in the analysed studies are generally the ones with an extensive practical and theoretical experience in the field and with active networking strategies. It must also be noted that these NGOs are located in states that first experienced trafficking – mainly for sexual exploitation – as countries of origin (Poland), transit and destination (Italy, Germany, Poland). Estonia only quite recently has become a country of origin and destination for trafficked persons and, thus, has started to investigate the phenomenon. As a matter of fact, most of the Estonian NGOs involved in the studies are NGOs specialised in research.

In almost all cases, NGOs conducted the studies in collaboration and with the financial support of central public institutions (governmental bodies and ministries, local authorities) and, in some cases, with the contribution of international organisations. Central public institutions and local authorities are actually the third main player that implemented and

sponsored the studies analysed. In Italy, for instance, the local authorities (mainly Municipalities and Regions – as administrative bodies) and some Ministries (generally those of Labour and Social Affairs) have taken a prominent position in implementing and funding, often innovative, research in collaboration with other key-actors, such as NGOs, Universities, research institutes, training agencies, foundations, and so on. This has been possible (and still is) often thanks to the resources provided by European programmes that co-finance anti-trafficking initiatives, such as Stop II, Agis, Daphne, Interreg-Caduses. It is likely that the experience gained by certain organisations in accessing EU or national funds has contributed (and still contributes) to the volume of research carried out in this field.

Universities are the second most represented implementers of the studies selected and analysed. In all partner countries, universities are amongst the main actors that carried out research even if with some notable distinctions. In Portugal, for instance, universities seem to be at the forefront of this specialised research field (4 out of 8 implementers). Also in Italy (5 out of 43) and in Germany (4 out of 19), universities are well-represented but, in the first case, universities are generally partners of multidisciplinary and multi-actorial research teams, while in the latter, universities carried out studies by themselves or in collaboration with other universities. This can be the result, *inter alia*, of two elements that also reflect the development stage of anti-trafficking discourse in different countries:

- the available financial resources for research provided by institutional bodies, and
- the level of co-operation established among different stakeholders.

In Estonia, Lithuania, and Poland, universities are also present but to a lesser extent.

Independent scholars hold the fourth position of this special chart, even though they are represented only in 3 countries out of 6, namely Germany, Italy, and Portugal. Again, it is plausible that independent scholars of the above-mentioned countries (with the exception of Portugal) are more engaged in this field of investigation because the phenomenon of trafficking started earlier to be more visible than in Lithuania, Estonia, and Poland; or because specific related provisions (e.g. legislation regarding prostitution, immigration, trafficking) have raised the professional interests of some scholars. The latter seems to be especially the case of Germany, where many law professors and researchers focus/ed their attention on trafficking issues once the prostitution law (2002) and the new anti-trafficking legislation (2005) entered into force.

Moreover, international organisations and international networks of organisations are significant implementers and sponsors of the reviewed research. The International Organisation for Migration (IOM), the International Labour Organisation (ILO), the United Nations Children's Fund (Unicef), the United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (Unicri), Terre des hommes, End Child Prostitution, Child Pornography and Trafficking of Children for Sexual Purposes (Ecpat) are in fact responsible for some of the studies selected by 4 of the 6 project partners. Finally, other typologies of implementers and sponsors of the literature analysed were research institutes (5), foundations (3), federations (1), and training agencies (1). In all cases, these organisations worked in collaboration with other partners.

Table 2 – Typologies of actors that implemented and/or sponsored the publications per country

Country	Estonia	Germany	Italy	Lithuania	Poland	Portugal
Typologies of implementing and/or sponsoring actors	1 IO + 1 RI: 1 2 IOs + 1 NGO: 1 2 NGOs: 1 1 NGO + 1 CPI: 1 1 NGO + 2 CPIs: 1 1 CPI + 1 UNI: 1 <i>Total:</i> NGOs: 5 IOs: 3 CPI: 2 RI: 1 UNI: 1	1 IO: 1 1 NGO: 5 1 CPI: 1 1 CPI + 2 RIs: 1 1 UNIs: 4 ISs: 9 <i>Total:</i> ISs: 9 UNIs: 4 IOs: 2 NGOs: 2 CPIs: 2	1 IO: 1 1 NGO: 2 1 NGO + 4 UNIs + 1 LA: 1 1 NGO + 1 F + 1 CPI + 1 FE: 2* 2 NGOs + 1 IO: 1 3 NGOs + 1 TA + 1 CPI: 1 4 NGOs + 1 CPI: 1 6 NGOs: 6 1 LA: 1 6 LAs + 3 NGOs + 1 CPI: 2** 1 RI + 1 CPI: 1 1 CPI: 2 1 UNI: 1 ISs: 3 <i>Total:</i> NGOs: 17 LAs: 7 CPIs: 6 UNIs: 5 ISs: 3 IOs: 2 F: 1 FE: 1 RI: 1 TA: 1	1 IO + 1 RI: 1 1 UNI + 1 CPI: 1 1 RI: 1 <i>Total:</i> RIs: 2 UNI: 1 IO: 1 CPI: 1	1 NGO: 4 3 NGOs: 1 1 NGO + 1 RI + 1 CPI: 1 1 F: 2 1 UNI: 1 1 CPI: 2 <i>Total:</i> NGOs: 4 CPI: 3 F: 1 RIs: 1 UNI: 1	1 UNI: 6 1 CPI: 3 ISs: 2 <i>Total:</i> UNIs: 4 CPIs: 2 ISs: 2

* These data refer to two essays contained in the same book. ** These data refer two distinct research reports sponsored by the same partnership.

Legenda

CPI: Central Public Institution (Governmental body/organisation, Parliamentary body, etc.)

F: Foundation

FE: Federation

IO: International Organisation

IS: Independent Scholar

LA: Local Authority (Municipality, Province, Region, etc.)

NGO: Non-Governmental Organisation

RI: Research Institute

TA: Training Agency UNI: University

Main methodologies used in the studies

All national research teams emphasized the serious methodological challenges posed by this specific field of study. Basically, in all six participating countries no comprehensive databases exist on the different forms of trafficking. In at least two countries (Germany and Italy), some national databases are in place but they contain only few data concerning trafficked persons, mainly based on judicial sources and/or reports issued by private or public agencies that assist victims. The collection of hard data and their reliability then seem to be a common problem encountered by all researchers.

Other obstacles reported are: the hidden and illicit nature of the phenomenon; the difficulties in getting in contact with trafficked persons; when reached, their reluctance to tell their stories due, *inter alia*, to the stigma attached to their “condition”; the massive and swift deportations of trafficked persons generally regarded as illegal migrants; the language barriers; the lack of intercultural skills or competent mediators; the unwillingness of State or NGOs actors to cooperate and provide data and information. The degree of the listed obstacles varies according to country specificities. For instance, in those countries with long standing experience of collaboration between public and private agencies in (jointly) providing assistance and support to trafficked persons through several structured services (outreach units, drop-in centres, shelters, vocational and training schemes, etc.), researchers interviewed trafficked persons more easily, generally with the assistance of a social worker, or partly accessed the organisations’ databases.

Table 3 – Methodologies employed in the studies per country

Country	Estonia	Germany	Italy	Lithuania	Poland	Portugal
Methodologies	Mainly qualitative methods. - semi-structured interviews; - focus groups.	Mainly qualitative methods. - interviews; - case file analysis.	Mainly qualitative, but also some quantitative methods. - desk review; - structured and semi-structured interviews; - focus groups; - case file analysis; - case studies; - participant observation; - questionnaires.	Only qualitative methods. - desk review; - interviews; - questionnaires.	Mainly qualitative methods. - desk review; - interviews; - case file analysis; - case studies; - questionnaires.	Only qualitative methods. - desk review - semi-structured interviews; - focus groups; - participant observation.

Given this scenario, the authors of the publications analysed mainly employed qualitative methods to carry out their research (Table 3). In particular, they used a wide range (often a combination) of qualitative tools such as:

- interviews (both structured and semi-structured);

- focus groups;
- desk review;
- case file analysis;
- participant observation.

However, most of the studies were based on desk reviews and structured or semi-structured interviews with personnel of public and private service providers (social workers, psychologists, intercultural mediators, tutors, legal consultants, etc.), public prosecutors, judges, law enforcement officers, lawyers, trade unionists, employers, teachers, journalists, civil servants, prostitutes, trafficked persons and, in some instances, their family members and friends, as well as clients (of prostitutes). All these players are recognised as key-informants in all partner countries. Some national differences though were identified about the accessibility of some interviewees or the selection of the target group to be interviewed. For instance, as already underlined, trafficked persons were easily at reach in countries like Italy and Poland because of the long-standing experience of NGOs in the anti-trafficking field and their availability to collaborate with researchers, whereas in Germany the contacts between researchers and victims were more difficult due to the reluctance of NGOs and state actors to provide information and to allow any contact with assisted trafficked persons. However, an increasing accessibility to trafficking cases at court has been noted, much to the benefit of scholars.

Language was also identified as a serious obstacle for sound communication between researchers and trafficked persons, who are willing to be interviewed. Often, poor language skills and the impossibility to use a vehicular language between the interviewer and the interviewee, along with an insufficient knowledge of the cultural and social codes of the victim's country of origin impeded the accomplishment of a significant in-depth interview. In a few cases, an intercultural mediator of the same nationality of the interviewed person was present. As a result, such impair situations could have/can lead to possible misrepresentations of the information collected.

Finally, even if to a lesser extent, also quantitative methodologies – i.e. questionnaires – have been used but generally in combination with qualitative methods. It must be noted that Lithuania, Estonia, and Poland are the only partner countries where surveys are reported to be used to collect information on the attitudes of the general public or of specific target groups (young persons, high school students, employers, journalists) on issues regarding trafficking, prostitution, working abroad, role of the media as a prevention means.

Contents of the reviewed literature

The reviewed publications focused on the description and/or the analysis of one or more of the following topics:

- the anti-trafficking legislation and related legal provisions;
- the phenomenon of trafficking, its distinct forms, and the profiles of the main players involved: victims, recruiters, traffickers, exploiters;
- the main agencies and/or services that support trafficked persons, such as NGOs, IOs, central and local authorities, health services, etc.;
- the main agencies that fight the criminal groups involved in trafficking and exploitation of its victims, such as law enforcement agencies and the judiciary;
- the practices implemented by and/or suggested to the above-mentioned agencies and services to support victims and to fight organised crime;
- the recommendations addressed to international, national, and local governments or parliaments; law enforcement agencies; personnel of NGOs, IOs, public service providers; teachers; journalists; etc.;
- the attitudes of the general public or of some selected target groups towards trafficking and correlated phenomena, such as prostitution, working abroad, future expectations, etc.

In most cases, the selected works were highly descriptive and rarely investigative. The studies hardly looked at the different aspects of trafficking from a “deconstructive” standpoint in order to assess prevailing ideological, cultural, and political anti-trafficking approaches or to recommend specific working tools, *inter alia*, to support victims, to raise public awareness, to train certain target groups, to identify trafficked persons.

The 71 selected and analysed publications generally focused on the phenomenon of trafficking, mainly for sexual exploitation. Many works, in fact, describe the systems of recruitment, transportation, and exploitation of trafficked persons from their place of origin to the final destination, providing also some details about their personal and social profiles before and after the trafficking experience. The main areas of origin of trafficking and the corresponding national groups of trafficked persons under scrutiny were selected according to the national specificities of the partner countries.

It is worthwhile to note that a significant number of research specifically aimed at raising the awareness of the wider public or, more commonly, of some selected target groups. Several publications – generally brochures or handbooks – have the goal to inform and train selected professional groups (e.g. social workers, law enforcers, prosecutors, etc.) that may get in contact with trafficked persons. Such training tools generally contain information on the phenomenon, the legislation in force, good practices on identification and support of victims.

The following pages provide an overview on the key-features of the different forms of trafficking contained in the literature reviewed by the six national research teams.

Overview on different forms of trafficking as expressed in the reviewed literature

Estonia	<p>Estonia is a country of origin, transit and destination of trafficking for sexual exploitation.</p> <p>Trafficked persons are generally adult and minor females (starting from 13-14 years of age). No information on adult and minor males was collected.</p> <p>The patterns of recruitment and exploitation are identical for young and adult victims.</p> <p>The research pointed out that, regardless of their different social and economic backgrounds, all girls and women may be potential victims of trafficking.</p> <p>According to a national survey, most of young persons, who wish to work abroad do not perceive themselves at risk of becoming potential trafficked persons. Almost all respondents knew something about trafficking and considered it to be a serious problem. However, less than half of them believed that trafficking is a phenomenon that actually exists in Estonia. The main identified push factors to go abroad were: earn more money, learn a foreign language, and get to know a different culture. When in a foreign country and facing problems, they generally did not turn to the competent authorities.</p> <p>No other forms of trafficking were discussed in the selected literature.</p>
Germany	<p>Germany is a country of destination and transit for trafficking.</p> <p>According to the official reports on trafficking as well as to the statistics of the Federal Criminal Police (<i>Bundeskriminalamt</i>), the majority of victims of trafficking (around 85 %) come from Eastern European countries – most often Lithuania followed by Ukraine, Romania, Russia, Belarus, Poland, Czech Republic, Bulgaria and Latvia. Also women from non-European countries, such as Thailand, Brazil, Columbia and Nigeria, have been registered as victims of trafficking, however, their number remained relatively small in the last 5 years.</p> <p>The reviewed literature gives different information on recruitment and transport practices of trafficking for sexual exploitation. Some authors refer to well organised recruitment networks in countries of origin, which work in collaboration with transport and reception groups (the latter are persons, who meet the victims in countries of destination and usually take away their documents immediately upon arrival). Other authors describe victims of trafficking as actors in the migration process, who deliberately make the decision to move and work in prostitution as well as directly approach persons or agencies in order to organise their transport. The common characteristic for all victims of trafficking seems to be the fact that all of them have been deceived about the conditions of work. Many of them also have experienced different forms of violence.</p> <p>According to the reviewed publications, the prevailing majority of victims trafficked into Germany are women working in prostitution. Respectively, sexual exploitation of migrant women continues to be considered the main form of human trafficking in Germany. Many German authors, however, interpret trafficking into prostitution as a form of labour exploitation since prostitution in Germany is recognised as legitimate work.</p> <p>There is very little information on trafficking for labour exploitation, e.g. in agriculture, construction, garment, food industry, catering, etc. Despite increasing media interest on the topic, begging as a form of human trafficking remains not researched enough. The same could be said about other forms of trafficking.</p> <p>Finally, it must be noted that the biggest part of scientific research on trafficking in Germany is focused on prosecution and improving protection mechanisms for victims of trafficking willing to give evidence in the prosecution process.</p>
Italy	<p>Italy is a country of transit and destination of trafficking for several forms of exploitation.</p>

	<p>According to current knowledge, trafficking for prostitution maintains to be the main form of sexual exploitation, which trafficked persons (mainly women) are inserted once in Italy. But, as the studies pointed out, this is also the only sector so far thoroughly investigated.</p> <p>The prostitution scenario radically changed in the early 90s, when migrant women, some of who were trafficked, started to appear on Italian streets and, consequently making local prostitutes disappear, since they generally moved to indoor premises or just quitted work. Since then, the prostitution market has gone through several structural and logistical changes, hence becoming a rather articulated and operative machinery. The latter currently involves different types of players in countries of origin, transit and destination.</p> <p>The main countries of origin are Nigeria, Romania, Albania, Moldova, Russia, Ukraine, Bulgaria and, to a lesser extent, other African, Eastern European, and Latin American countries, such as Morocco, Belarus, Brazil. Trafficked persons are recently coming from farer countries than before, such as Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Uzbekistan, China, Tunisia, etc. Currently, Romanians are reported to be the most represented national group in many areas of the country. Also the number of South Americans has increased; in most cases, they are transsexuals subjected to new of forms of exploitation.</p> <p>The channels and methods of recruitment differ according to a series of variables: countries and places of origin, level of awareness about the final aim of the journey, type of criminal organisation involved, rivalry between criminal groups, relationships between the exploited person and the trafficker(s) and/or exploiter (s), and so on. Nowadays, women are generally recruited by a person they trust, such as an acquaintance, a friend, or a relative. Sometimes they directly approach the recruiter, which can also be a travel or employment agency. Generally women are promised a good job in Italy, such as waitress, factory worker, bar tender, nurse, baby-sitter and dancer. But more often than in the past, they are also clearly offered an occupation as prostitutes, strip teasers, call girls, and entreneuse, even though they are not correctly informed about the abusive working and living conditions they will suffer.</p> <p>Trafficked persons sexually exploited are mainly forced to prostitute themselves on the streets, but also increasingly in behind-close-door premises, such as apartments, night clubs, hotels, saunas, massage parlours. The number of victims are contemporaneously exploited in outdoor and indoor premises and moved around the country or within the same regional area has risen.</p> <p>In the last few years, traffickers have started to establish "negotiated" forms of exploitation in order to better gain the victims' trust and "fidelity". Also the time span of exploitation is sometimes "negotiated" and linked to the duration of the tourist visas.</p> <p>Trafficking in human beings for the purpose of forced labour prevails as one of the main forms of exploitation of migrants, even if little data have been collected and almost no research carried out in this field. The main sectors of the Italian job market involved are: agriculture, construction, garment, catering, trucking, entertainment, retail commerce, services, domestic work. Like other countries, Italy is experiencing a sort of "ethnic specialisation" of certain segments of the labour market. Some scholars observed that it is likely that this ethnic division of labour can also be found among trafficked persons exploited in the labour market. Currently, the few studies on trafficking for forced labour focus on the debate about the conceptual approaches distinguishing the main key-concepts such as labour exploitation, forced labour, slavery-like conditions, and slavery. According to the reviewed sources, the deprivation of freedom should serve as the dividing line between labour exploitation and forced labour and slavery-like conditions.</p>
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	<p>Namely, when workers are not in a position to discuss their working conditions and tasks, entry and exit terms.</p> <p>Trafficking in persons for begging is reported to take place in various Italian small and large cities, but no national official data are available to quantify and better qualify this phenomenon. A few studies focusing on selected cities and project reports on support and assistance programmes to trafficked persons provide some information. In the 90s several Italian areas experienced a significant increase of young and adult migrants begging on their streets, nearby traffic lights, in front of supermarkets, and in parking lots. In many regards, this phenomenon was the result of push and pull factors (poor social and economic conditions; wars; globalisation, etc.). Many beggars ask for money in exchange for “services” such as car screen cleaning, sale of small goods (paper tissues, lighters, key chains, sponges, etc.), thus, camouflaging their begging activity through a sort of a new form of street vending. On the other hand, many male migrants – mainly from the Maghreb and other African countries – are directly employed as peddlers. Also this phenomenon has gone through structural changes to the extent that it has clearly become an organised illegal sector regulated by strict rules, strongly “ethnised”, and largely managed by criminal groups.</p> <p>Some trafficked persons are employed in illegal activities, mainly linked to the markets of drugs, products counterfeiting, and illicit street vending. The involvement of several migrant minors – in most cases from Maghreb – in the drugs market as street drug dealers is underlined by different sources, even though there is no agreement about how the minors enter in the illegal circuit, namely if they are trafficked, coerced or voluntarily choose to perform this illegal activity. Burglary (pick pocketing, apartment break-in, etc.) is generally pursued by Roma and Romanian boys and girls. At the current state-of-play, the researchers argue that it is not possible to affirm the existence of widespread and structured forms of trafficking for the purpose of begging and carrying out illegal activities. However, there was no doubt that some cases involved persons trafficked to Italy in order to exploit them. Furthermore, the studies highlighted that unaccompanied minors with no or little contact to members of their communities or controlled by a person outside their family circle are more vulnerable to forms of severe exploitation or slavery-like conditions.</p> <p>Scientific literature on trafficking in organs is practically non existent in Italy. Every now and then only the media briefly refer to the phenomenon that, however, has never been seriously investigated. No evidence that such form of trafficking takes place in Italy was found so far. No study was found on mail order bride.</p>
Lithuania	<p>In the last few years the sex industry has been constantly growing in Lithuania. At the same time, trafficking in human beings for the purpose of sexual exploitation has been significantly on the rise. Lithuania is not only a country of origin for persons trafficked to Germany, Norway, Italy, France, Spain, Denmark, The Netherlands, the United Kingdom, Poland, Japan, Turkey, etc., but also a transit and destination country for citizens of the Commonwealth of Independent Countries and Central Europe. The main root causes of trafficking identified are: unemployment, lack of perspectives, willingness to earn money quickly.</p> <p>Migrant prostitutes, mainly women from Middle and Central Europe (esp. Russia, Belarus, Ukraine, Poland) and, recently, from China work more on the streets and, to a lesser extent, in apartments and massage parlours. They often cross Lithuanian borders legally holding a temporary visa, which they often overstay. Competition between local and national prostitutes has been noted. The biggest segment of the prostitution market therefore takes place behind closed doors and is controlled by agencies that advertise their “services” through disguised ads</p>

	<p>offering “flowers delivered to your home”, “massage” and “escort services”.</p> <p>Due to their irregular position and the resulting lack of social and legal rights, prostitutes are often in a vulnerable position that can result in severe forms of exploitation. This situation is worsened because, of, <i>inter alia</i>, the constant fear of being caught and the ever-increasing demand for (cheaper) sexual services. Trafficked persons often experience physical, sexual and psychological violence. They may know that they are going to work in the sex industry but they are not aware of the exploitative conditions and abuse they will suffer. They are often visually controlled by their exploiters, by other prostitutes or via mobile phones, and their freedom of movement is rather restricted.</p> <p>No information on other forms of trafficking was found in the selected literature.</p>
Poland	<p>Poland is a country of origin, transit and destination of trafficking for sexual exploitation. Such phenomenon started to become significant and worrying after the fall of the Berlin wall and the collapse of the Soviet empire. Migrant women exploited in the sex industry mainly come from Ukraine, Moldova, Belarus, Latvia, Bulgaria, Romania, Lithuania, while Polish women are both trafficked internally, from poorer areas of the country to the richer ones and to Western countries, such as Germany, The Netherlands, Italy, Spain, Greece, Portugal, Denmark and Sweden, Austria.</p> <p>In Poland prostitution takes place in hotels, bars, restaurants, apartments, massage parlours, spas, streets and highways. There is evidence of many hidden brothels and the mushrooming of escort services. Increasingly Polish prostitutes commute to German towns just for one day or for a week-end.</p> <p>Traffickers usually offer jobs as barmaids, waitresses, salespersons, farm workers, au-pairs, dancers or they offer marriages providing fake information about living and working conditions. Ads on local papers are commonly used to falsely advertise lucrative jobs in other EU countries. Internet is also becoming a popular recruiting means, especially for younger individuals, who are sometimes underage.</p> <p>Women often enter the Polish borders legally but their documents are in most cases seized by the traffickers, who also make use of threats and coercive methods to control them.</p> <p>No information on other forms of trafficking was found in the selected literature.</p>
Portugal	<p>Portugal is a country of transit and destination for several forms of trafficking. Migrant women are the main identified target group trafficked for sexual exploitation. According to the reviewed literature, in the last few years there has been an increase of migratory flows for sexual exploitation. As far as countries of origin are concerned, the following trends have been observed: mainly women from Eastern Europe (Romania, Russia, Moldova, Hungary, Ukraine) and Nigeria were found in the Algarve; while in Lisbon there are more women originally from African countries of Portuguese language (PALOP: Angola, Mozambique, Guinea-Bissau, São Tomé and Príncipe) and Eastern Europe; finally, in the Northern parts of Portugal there is a predominance of South American women, Brazilians in particular. Other countries of origin are: Cape Verde, Liberia, Ghana, Sierra Leone, and Morocco.</p> <p>Trafficked women are generally quite young; in the case of Brazilians, many are between 18 and 20 years of age, with already 2 or 3 children back home. Therefore, they are the breadwinners for the extended family.</p> <p>The root causes identified are: unemployment, economic problems, quest to ameliorate the personal and family future.</p> <p>Victims of trafficking live in extremely vulnerable conditions since they generally have illegal status and under strict control. They are often recruited by means of deceptive job offers, such as, for instance, as waitresses. In some cases, they are</p>

	<p>also directly asked to work in prostitution but they are deceived about the real working and living situation once in Portugal. Their passports are often withheld until the “debts” are refunded. Still, they often believe they will be able to clear their debts with the recruiters and get back their freedom.</p> <p>Some differences in terms of recruiting and exploitation strategies have been identified according to the countries of origin. For instance, in the case of Brazilian victims, they often have relatives or acquaintances already established in Portugal, who have contacts with Portuguese citizens active in criminal networks, who will eventually exploit the trafficked persons. Conversely, in the case of Eastern European women, no significant involvement of Portuguese nationals as traffickers and exploiters was found. The criminal organisations are generally men-dominated, even though some female exploiters have been found.</p> <p>Trafficked women are exploited as escorts or prostitutes in bars and clubs, since street prostitution is still mainly practiced by nationals. The Portuguese prostitution market has developed close links to drug ab/use and drug trafficking.</p> <p>Due to the increasing restrictions set by national and European migration policies, a growing number of migrants resort to illegal channels to reach Portugal to find a job. Given this scenario, individuals and organised crime organisations have started to profit from this special demand by organising the smuggling and the trafficking of persons for labour exploitation. They recruit persons by promising services that are not provided once in Portugal. On the contrary, the deceived persons are subject to different forms of abuse, coercion, and exploitation in the labour market. The main sectors of exploitation are agriculture and construction. Sometimes, the journey starts with an illegal entry into Portugal through smuggling services in exchange for money to pay the trip, fake documents, and an employment contract and it ends as a trafficking case. In some cases, migrants legally enter Portugal with tourist visas and then just overstay. Due to their illegal status, they become vulnerable individuals and, thus, potentially fall prey to exploiters. Also in this case, Brazil and the Eastern European countries are reported to be the main countries of origin for trafficked persons exploited in the labour market.</p> <p>In the last 25 years an increase of immigration was noticed mainly from African countries of Portuguese language, Brazil, and, most recently, from Eastern European and former USSR countries. Women represent a significant share of migrants to Portugal and a great number of them fall under the category of “female marriage migrants”. Since the phenomenon is rather new and highlighted in the media, few scholars have started to research it, in order to also find its possible correlation with trafficking through the so-called mail-order bride. Cape Verdian women are the target group examined by one of the two studies reviewed. They generally suffer from poor social and working conditions, lack of family support, and weak social inclusion. They often are single mothers, with underpaid jobs, and a serious lack of perspectives. Given this context, they can be easily recruited by transnational networks that promise marriages with foreigners in exchange for some money. Due to the easier family re-union procedures existing in other EU countries, many Cape Verdean women marry in another Member State and, then, travel to Portugal. Some cases of “marriages with passport” were found by the investigations. According to the latter, young women, originally migrated some years ago for schooling reasons, never attended school, but “accepted” to marry a man in exchange for little money as a means to support their family back home. Given the lack of detailed information and proper methodological tools, it was not possible to further investigate the phenomenon of mail-order brides and assess its impact in the trafficking field.</p>
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Conclusions

The 71 studies selected by the partner countries represent a significant sample of the publications on trafficking issued in Estonia, Germany, Italy, Lithuania, Poland, and Portugal between 1999 and 2006. They provide useful information, on the one hand, on the state-of-the-art of the research on trafficking in these countries and, on the other hand, on data concerning the phenomenon and its various forms and representations, the legislations enacted, and the practices implemented to support victims and apprehend the criminals involved in this hideous crime.

The analysis of the publications brought the existence of the following key issues that often concern all partner countries to light. Scholars and agencies that sponsor and publish research and documents on trafficking in human beings should take the following into consideration:

Definition

Even though the UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (2000), has been signed by all countries of the partnership, and also ratified by some that transposed it into their national criminal laws, the definition of trafficking seems to remain a rather problematic issue. Some scholars, in fact, underscore that the terms “trafficking” and “smuggling” are still confused to the detriment of trafficked persons, who should be identified and assisted by those stakeholders that supposedly are at the forefront of prevention, assistance, and repression through their daily work. Such confusion was also found in the analysis developed by the researchers and/or the agencies involved in some of the reviewed studies.

In order to tackle the different issues relating to trafficking, the need to clearly define and distinguish it from other phenomena, such as prostitution, labour exploitation or illegal migration has been underlined. Other terms that must be better defined are those of “forced labour”, “slavery”, “practices similar to slavery” and “servitude”. Even though these forms of exploitation are contained in the UN Protocol, it does not provide any explanations as to their meaning. However, it must be noted that these expressions are defined in other international legal instruments, such as those issued by the International Labour Organisation, allowing for them to be internationally adopted, especially if these treaties were already ratified.

Language

Language matters. The analysis of the literature underlined the (mis)use of some terms in relation to trafficking and the construction of public discourse. In many cases, no consistent use of expressions such as “trafficking in women” and “trafficking in human beings” was found. Some authors made a clear distinction between the two terms, while others use them synonymously. Some German studies underline that only the term “human trafficking” exists as a legal category in German law, while some Italian scholars claim that there is a clear need to dismiss the old Italian term “*tratta*” and adopt “*traffico*” to refer to trafficking since the latter better epitomizes the current forms of this phenomenon as well as it is an accurate translation of the English word.

Furthermore, the intentional or unintentional use of some terms contributes to the conceptualisation of distinct narratives about the phenomenon of human trafficking. As some studies point out, this is especially the case when dealing with trafficking for the purpose of sexual exploitation. Even though the situation has greatly improved in the last few years, a clear separation between “prostitution” and “trafficking in women” cannot be found in all studies and, most of all, such terms are constantly confused in the public discourse generated especially by the media. This situation also reflects different ideological positions on prostitution held by distinct social and religious groups. The different use of the terms does not contribute to a mutual understanding of the complexities characterising trafficking. Such confusion can also negatively influence research. As a matter of fact, different approaches and conceptualisations of the same phenomenon can produce different methods of data gathering, processing, and, analysis to the detriment of the common knowledge on trafficking.

Some researchers argue that the term “trafficking in women” conveys a negative and biased perception of trafficked women thus favouring their social construction as helpless, passive victims. According to these studies, the rhetoric of victimhood seems to permeate many publications, sometimes intentionally, sometimes not, denying the active and powerful roles women often take on through their decision to migrate and ameliorate their living conditions. As a result, such research provides a highly gendered representation of trafficking (all trafficked persons are passive women, all traffickers are violent foreign men) and re/produce stereotypical narratives of masculinity and femininity.

Migration issues

Some studies pointed out a need for a better elaboration on the links between migration policies, labour exploitation, and trafficking. Most of trafficked persons are employed in informal labour sectors, often unregulated and characterised by a strong demand for unskilled workforce. The latter is usually employed in domestic work, agriculture and the entertainment industry, all of which are sectors that favour a significant degree of isolation and exploitation. Scholars argue that the increasing deregularisation and

informalisation of many sectors of the labour market increase the vulnerability of migrants, who easily become disposable, cheap, and highly exploitable workers. In this scenario, trafficking can without doubt thrive and hide itself.

Another important issue highlighted by some research is the growing feminisation of migration. The political, social, and economic transformations occurred in the last two decades have greatly affected the labour market at local and global level. On the one hand, women have had more possibilities to ameliorate their status and migrate but, on the other hand, they tend to primarily enter unskilled and unregulated sectors as well as they become the only breadwinners of their households through the remittances they send back home. Even though the female migration has greatly increased, the migration policies and the skilled labour opportunities still remain highly male oriented. Given this scenario, women can easily fall prey to traffickers and exploiters that promise them fake job opportunities.

The selected studies clearly point out that the national governments and the international institutions should develop and implement policies based on accessible legal and safe migration schemes, rigorous labour standards and managed migration programmes in order to prevent exploitation and trafficking both in the formal and informal sectors. Such policies should also be gender sensitive to better protect the rights and the conditions of the female migrant workers. They should furthermore be designed and implemented in co-operation with countries of origin of the workforce. According to the studies, in fact, restrictive migration policies negatively affect the labour market and working and living conditions of migrants, who, through their efforts to survive or improve their lives by utilising smuggling or trafficking channels, contribute to the economic growth of country of destination..

Fields of research

The review of all selected publications clearly identified a serious lack of research in fields other than trafficking for the purpose of exploitation in the sex industry. As a matter of fact only few studies investigated the phenomenon of trafficking for labour exploitation, for illegal activities, for illegal international adoptions, or for the removal of organs. This is the result of several factors, such as:

- the particular hidden nature of these specific phenomena;
- the poor legislations or lack of legislation addressing these matters or, in some cases, no sound enactment of the existing provisions;
- no or inadequate political will to address these issues and to include them in the political agenda;
- the scarce level of awareness about the existence of these phenomena among stakeholders that are in direct contact with trafficked persons and among those who have operational duties to prevent and fight trafficking and support its victims;

- the lack of (standardised) identification procedures and tools to detect trafficking cases;
- the clear limits in the existing methodological tools to investigate these areas³, to gather, process, and analyse the data;
- the low interest for these fields of research on part of the academia.

Educational materials

Among the works selected, the existence of handbooks, brochures, and cd-roms aimed at different professionals (social workers, outreach workers, lawyers, prosecutors, law enforcement officers, policy makers, etc.) and for (potential) trafficked persons is notable. These materials are intended as training tools and kits that can be used according to the different needs of the targeted groups. The training materials often provide different methodological tools, while the brochures and the cd-roms for the (potential) trafficked persons are multilingual and designed to specifically offer ready-to-use information and contact details. It has been noted that a wider range of these types of educational materials should be produced and shared among different agencies engaged in the anti-trafficking field within the same country and among different countries in order to profit from tested materials and methodologies and not to be in a position of always re-inventing the wheel anew.

Exchange of good practice and co-operation

The analysis of the literature has underlined the need to improve co-operation and the exchange of good practice at local, national, and international level. The exchange of the expertise developed by different organisations and agencies in different countries could play an important role in the development of qualified services and measures to counteract trafficking and support trafficked persons. Exchange among stakeholders could furthermore contribute to encourage innovation and to elaborate a common language within the same country and across countries that would endorse the development of common standards at transnational level. This would allow for the implementation of “common understanding and action that would greatly contribute to the better functioning

³ It must be noted that in 2001, the International Labour Organisation established a Special Action Programme to combat Forced Labour (SAP-FL). Since then this body has promoted several measures to raise global awareness on forced labour and has issued several country-specific studies on different aspects of forced labour (bonded labour, human trafficking, forced domestic labour, rural servitude, and forced prison labour. SAP-FL has also published concepts and working papers on the definition, indicators and measurement of forced labour. For more information: www.ilo.org

of the services set up and, most of all, to aptly address the trafficked persons' needs".⁴ Furthermore, the use of common standards would facilitate the establishment and use of shared monitoring and evaluation procedures that could allow for a sound comparability of data⁵.

EU-funded programmes

In a number of countries, some programmes funded by the European Union played a major role both, for the development of services and the production of educational materials and research. These are programmes, such as Stop, Agis, Daphne, Phare, Tacis, Cards, Aeneas, Interreg that provide funding opportunities also for projects whose main goals are the prevention and the fight against trafficking in human beings, and the support of victims. The European programmes certainly contributed to the development and strengthening of a wide range of partnerships at different geographical levels and the experimentation of new services and working methodologies.

On the other hand, it must be noted that there is still a lack of know-how on how to access available European financial resources on part of many key players that could greatly benefit from such funding, since national sources are rather meagre in many Member States. Furthermore, the EU funds projects characterised by innovation, experimentation, research, and system actions that, once tested and validated, should be regularly financially supported by the Member States. But this seldom happens. Finally, it is necessary that the European Union, the Member States, and all other funding agencies revise their funding strategies in order to transparently support not only short-term projects but also long-term initiatives. Such a decision would represent a key turning point for many organisations, especially NGOs that are not economically independent and rely on public funding to provide fundamental services to trafficked persons and other target groups, and/or research the phenomenon.

⁴ European Commission, *Report of the Experts Group on Trafficking in Human Beings*, Brussels, 2004, p. 178; *Brussels Declaration on Preventing and Combating Trafficking in Human Beings*, pt. 13, 6th bullet point.

⁵ European Commission, *op. cit.*, pp. 177-178.