



REPORT

EU-Enlargement, Migration and Trafficking in Women: The Case of South Eastern Europe

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HWWA-Report

Hamburgisches Welt-Wirtschafts-Archiv (HWWA)
Hamburg Institute of International Economics
2004

ISSN 0179-2253

Hamburgisches Welt-Wirtschafts-Archiv (HWWA)
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This report has been prepared within the "Migration Research Group" of the HWWA. The research was financed by the Sector Project against Trafficking in Women. The "Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit" (GTZ) is implementing the Sector Project against Trafficking in Women on the basis of a commission from the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ). The project is funded under the Program of Action 2015, the German Government's contribution to reducing poverty worldwide.

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

ABA	American Bar Association
AMM	Alliance for Micro-finance, Moldova
ARAS	Romanian Association against AIDS
BKA	German Federal Criminal Investigation Office
BMZ	German Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development
CEEC	Central and Eastern European Countries
CIS	Commonwealth of Independent States
CIVIS	Centre of Sociological, Political and Psychological Analysis and Investigations, Moldova
COE	Council of Europe
EC	European Commission
EEA	European Economic Agreement
EECA	Eastern Europe and Central Asia
EMU	European Monetary Union
ENP	European Neighbourhood Policy
EU	European Union
GTZ	German Technical Cooperation Agency
ICMPD	International Center for Migration Policy Development
ICS	Italian Consortium of Solidarity
IO	International Organisation
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMP	International Migration Policy Programme
IOM	International Organisation for Migration
IREX	International Research Exchange Board
ME	Ministry of Education
MFA	Ministry of Foreign Affairs
MH	Ministry of Health
MIA	Ministry of Internal Affairs, Moldova
MI	Ministry of the Interior
MJ	Ministry of Justice
MLSP	Ministry of Labour and Social Protection
MLSS/MMSS	Ministry of Labour and Social Solidarity, Romania

MS	Member State
MSS	Migration State Service, Moldova
NIS	Newly Independent States
NIS	National Institute for Statistics, Romania
NC	National Committee to Combat Trafficking in Human Beings, Moldova
NOVIB	Oxfam Netherlands
OSCE	Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe
OSCE/CPC	OSCE Secretariat/Conflict Prevention Centre
OSCE/ODIHR	OSCE-Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights
SACP	State Agency for Child Protection, Bulgaria
SEE	South Eastern Europe
SCF	Save the Children Fund
SECI	Southeast European Co-operative Initiative
SPOC	Stability Pact Initiative Against Organised Crime
SPTF	Stability Pact Task Force
ULIM	Free International University of Moldova
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNOHCHR	United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USM	State University of Moldova
UTM	Technical University of Moldova

Foreword

Even though trafficking in human beings is by no means a new phenomenon, trafficking in women and girls for the purpose of sexual exploitation has emerged as a serious and complex problem in recent decades. The period of transformation in Central and Eastern European countries and the reshaping of the European Union's Eastern borders have led to a rapid change in patterns of trafficking from Eastern Europe. The present study seeks to analyse the interrelation between trafficking in women, on the one hand, and migration of women who look for work abroad, on the other hand. This is examined in the context of EU enlargement.

The Migration Research Group of the *Hamburgisches Welt-Wirtschafts-Archiv* (HWWA – Hamburg Institute of International Economics) thus combines its expertise on economic aspects of East-West labour migration with a sociological analysis of vulnerability to trafficking. Given the complexity of the issue, it is difficult to find clear-cut answers on the impact of EU enlargement on trafficking: How will enlargement affect the scale of the phenomenon? Will free movement induce a change in the nature of the trafficking problem? Which measures should be taken to fight trafficking in an efficient way? The multidisciplinary approach of the analysis allows, however, for a contribution to answering these questions and for the formulation of tentative policy conclusions with regard to the case of South Eastern Europe.

The present study has been commissioned to the Migration Research Group by the *Sector Project Against Trafficking in Women* of the *Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit* (GTZ), a project funded by the German Federal Ministry of Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ). The project seeks to further assess the socio-cultural background of trafficked persons in order to design appropriate counselling and advisory approaches to victims of trafficking. It is indispensable for tailor made prevention measures as well as rehabilitation strategies to take into account the specific conditions that motivate and shape temporary labour migration. Since the majority of victims in Germany come from Eastern European countries, this region has become the focus of the project's work.

In drafting the study, we were able to benefit from extensive work carried out i.a. by the international organisations UNICEF, UNOHCHR, OSCE/ODIHR and the Regional Clearing Point of the Stability Pact for South Eastern Europe. We would like to express our special gratitude to officials of the European Commission and the European Parliament who forwarded to us important documentation, the OSCE Mission to Moldova which kindly gave us feedback on the Moldovan case, and last but not least, Ms. Vera Sagel from KOOFRA (*Koordinierungsstelle gegen Frauenhandel* – a Hamburg-based NGO working with trafficked women) who provided us with invaluable information on the situation of victims identified in Germany.

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Executive Summary

A large bulk of research has already been devoted to the likely consequences of EU enlargement for East-West migration in Europe. At the same time, the understanding of the phenomenon of trafficking in women from Eastern Europe increased in recent years as well. However, there is a lack of systematic analyses about what kind of impact the Eastward enlargement will have on trafficking in women in both the EU and the neighbouring countries: How will the enlargement affect the scale of the phenomenon? Will the free movement of persons induce a new nature of the trafficking problem? What sort of indicators are best suited for an early warning system and which policy conclusions could be drawn for preventing the trafficking harm? The present report tries to contribute filling this gap by focusing on the issue of trafficking in women from South Eastern European (SEE) countries in the context of EU enlargement.

Trafficking in human beings, as a “contemporary form of slavery”, refers to any kind of forced labour or services, exploitative domestic servitude, sexual exploitation, begging, bonded sweatshop work as well as the removal of organs. In this report, however, we will confine ourselves to discussing the issue of trafficking in women and girls from South Eastern Europe for the purpose of sexual exploitation.

The aim of the report is threefold. The report will first point out the necessity to address trafficking in women from Eastern Europe in the larger context of East-West migration. Second, it will provide a thorough analysis of the current characteristics of trafficking in women from South Eastern Europe. In this context, it will also review national and international actions against trafficking in human beings from this region. Third, based on this, a set of policy recommendations with regard to preventing and combating trafficking and to the reintegration of victims will be considered.

Trafficking in women and circular labour migration

The available evidence on trafficking in women and on recent labour flows from Eastern Europe suggest the need to address the two issues in an integrated framework. From both a “demand” and a “supply” side perspective, questions about trafficking are found to be analytically inseparable from more general questions about circulatory income seeking migration from SEE. On the demand side, recent trends demonstrate that despite relatively high unemployment rates in the majority of EU countries there is a growing demand for foreign labour and particularly for the undocumented work of women. From the supply side perspective, most of the individual trafficking experiences originate in strategies of (failed) circulatory migration. Given the poor opportunities in the regions of origin, women have a strong motivation to seek employment abroad. This migration pressure and the restrictions to legally enter the EU labour market explain the growing probability of migrant women ending in vulnerable situations.

Feminisation of migration

Moreover, one of the most prominent features of newly emerging migration patterns from SEE is the overrepresentation of female migrants in almost all types of temporary labour migration flows. In the medium term, this feminisation of East-West flows is likely to continue due to gender discrimination, the “feminisation of poverty” and restricted access to (self-) employment for women in SEE. This hypothesis is supported also by the motivations of potential migrants: the migration of women from Eastern Europe is increasingly dominated by economic rationales, often even more than that of male migrants.

Impact of enlargement on future trafficking flows

Given the complexity of the issue and the impossibility to obtain empirical evidence, the ways in which EU enlargement will impact on trafficking in women from the acceding countries are hardly predictable. Some of the already observed patterns, particularly regarding trafficking victims from countries of the first accession wave, allow however general anticipations. First, an apparent reduction of trafficking has been observed among women from accession countries immediately after the lifting of visa requirements. This suggests that liberalising the entry conditions enabled potential victims to devise mobility strategies while at the same time avoiding previous trafficking harms. Second, in the case of Romania – for which visa requirements were lifted only in 2001 – the possibility to enter freely the Schengen area induced initially an apparent rise in the number of victims (see Figure 2.4), followed however by a clear decline. A similar hump-shape (rise followed by decline) of the perceived number of victims is very likely to be the effect of EU accession for Bulgaria and Romania.

It remains nonetheless open how large the trafficking flows will be in the medium run. The rationale for expecting that they will persist at rather non-negligible levels is related to the existent migration pressure and the still restricted access to EU labour markets even after accession: since women usually lack access to informal migration networks their vulnerability to becoming dependent on traffickers will not cease.

Determinants of vulnerability to trafficking in Romania

Consistent with the already described patterns of migration, vulnerability to trafficking in Romania is demonstrated to be mainly determined by two factors. The investigation of the migration behaviour of a countrywide representative sample of young unmarried women indicates the strong desire to seek employment abroad as the main explanation of vulnerability to trafficking. The second important factor rising the vulnerability is the propensity to break both official and informal rules: victims of trafficking are usually social innovators, trying to find solutions to an unstable environment.

Among the individual push factors which further significantly explain the exposure to trafficking harm belong the familial background, ethnicity (particularly Roma origin), age, the degree of risk aversion and the level of education. There are also important variations in the degree of vulnerability at regional level: living in medium-sized towns and in regions like Transylvania and Moldova increases the risk of being trafficked for the vulnerable group. Despite this individual and community level push factors, pull factors are also likely to increase the vulnerability to traffic, e.g. the success story of a migrant from the circle of acquaintances.

Overall, the data support the fact that having access to a strong culture of mobility (in the family or the community) makes young female likely to be socialised to make their own living and to the idea of working or getting married in a foreign country.

Irregular migration and trafficking from Moldova

Most characteristics of the migration and trafficking patterns are similar in Romania and Moldova – e.g. large labour outflows due to the very low levels of earnings; whole communities involved in migration circuits; high vulnerability of young girls to trafficking; a very similar distribution of the destination countries. However, addressing the current Moldovan migration from a macro-perspective reveals one the most complex informal/illegal migration models in Europe, the magnitude of which can hardly be grasped from available data and anecdotal evidence.

Moldova's geographic position will continue to have a strong influence on the complicated patterns of migrants outflows. After the planned EU accession of Romania, the Romanian-Moldovan border will become an external border of the EU making the legal labour mobility more difficult. In this context, it is impossible to predict what role the special relation of Moldova with Romania will play for the future emigration, particularly given the large proportion of Moldovan citizens who have been granted Romanian citizenship in recent years (estimates vary between 300.000 to 600.000).

Like in the case of other SEE countries, the feminisation of migration from Moldova is determined by the women's income-seeking migration strategies in the context of survival circuits. This provides also the ground for the strong connection between the new trends in illegal migration and trafficking: the high vulnerability to trafficking in Moldova is to be traced back to the widespread irregular migration culture.

Trafficking from and to Bulgaria

Bulgaria is not only an origin but due to its location increasingly also a transit and destination country. Bulgarian women are trafficked to a variety of European countries (like Greece, Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium, Spain, Austria, Poland, France, Turkey, Italy, Cyprus) and were identified as the second largest group of victims of trafficking in Germany (after women from Lithuania). Unemployment rates of women are the highest in Bulgaria among all Eastern European countries while the feminisation of poverty is rapidly increasing (64% of female headed households live in absolute poverty). These factors led an estimated number of 450 000 young Bulgarian women to be likely to take risky jobs abroad.

While the determinants of trafficking and the victims' profile are similar to those in Moldova and Romania, Bulgaria has the most comprehensive legal framework for combating trafficking in human beings in the region (a new law on Combating the Illegal Trafficking in Human Beings entered into force in 2003). Despite considerable efforts to fight trafficking, the legislative frame still contains gaps with regard to the situation of victims. An exact assessment of these gaps is however impossible given the lack of reliable information on trafficked women and on the outcomes of the reintegration programmes.

Recommendations

In spite of the lack of reliable data, the present study shows that trafficking in women from South Eastern Europe is growing in importance, and that there is clearly room for manoeuvre of policy interventions to tackle the problem. From a policy perspective, one important conclusion of the study is the need to treat trafficking in women from Eastern Europe in the broader context of East-West migration.

Trafficking in persons is a violation of individual human rights as well as of national legislation and international covenants. The challenges of trafficking arise equally in countries of origin, transit and destination. Therefore, a cohesive and complementary anti-trafficking frame involving the EU member states and candidate countries, SEE countries, international and regional organisations as well as NGOs is the only way to address trafficking in human beings in an efficient way.

The main proposals derived from the study could be structured under three headings: Prevention, Prosecution and Reintegration of victims.

Prevention

- Empowerment of women is the key issue to prevent and fight trafficking for sexual exploitation in a sustained manner. Women, and in particular women from minority groups, need to have equal opportunities with regard to education, employment and all other areas of societal activities. To this end, anti-discrimination legislation and actions in SEE countries should be revised and implemented.
- Campaigns exposing the emerging trends in trafficking should be relaunched in rural areas and in small-/medium-sized cities of SEE countries.
- There is a considerable need for research and studies on a variety of issues comprising data collection, country-specific evidence with regard to vulnerability, the situation and needs of children as well as concerning the demand side of sexual exploitation.
- Current migration policies of individual EU member states should be reviewed in view of introducing more consistent options for the legal employment of East European migrants – e.g. in forms of quotas for specific sectors – which is considered to be a useful policy making strategy particularly for the pre-accession period of Romania and Bulgaria and regarding the high migration pressure in Moldova.

Prosecution

- Impunity remains one of the core problems when dealing with human trafficking. The protection of victims who are willing to co-operate with the authorities is not ensured. In addition, basically no incentives exist which would persuade the victims to testify. To this end, there is an important need to improve witness protection programmes in SEE countries as well as to implement legislation (including an EU Directive of April 2004) in such a way that it takes fully account of the victims' human rights and interests.

Reintegration of victims

From a human rights perspective, major focus should be directed at the support, rehabilitation and reintegration of victims. Such reintegration comprises short- and long-term shelter, medical examination, medical treatment, short-term and long-term psychological treatment, family counselling, legal advice, education, profiling of victims with regard to their skills and interests, vocational training accordingly as well as support when searching for a job or setting up a business.

These considerable tasks are currently carried out to a large extent by international organisations and NGOs.

There is an immediate need for:

- Evaluating and monitoring the existing reintegration programmes in the region;
- Creating more space in shelters (in particular for internally trafficked victims);
- Creating children specific shelters, including long-term accommodation and support;
- Offering HIV/AIDS treatment free of charge;
- Providing long-term psychological treatment.

There is further need for:

- An assessment of labour market data in each country (for this study: Romania, Moldova and Bulgaria) in order to propose education and vocational training to women according to the demand;
- Small business start-up loans for individual women to become entrepreneurs.

In the long run reintegration of trafficking victims can only work successfully if common efforts are made by EU member states, SEE governments, international and regional organisations in co-operation with NGOs.

Section 1: EU enlargement, free movement, and gendered migration patterns in Eastern Europe

In recent years, increasing numbers of women from Eastern Europe were employed or used in various economic sectors of EU countries. This 'feminisation' of labour mobility¹ became visible not only in regulated industries, such as nursing, but also in rather informal, illegal, or even illicit activities, such as domestic services, prostitution, and sex trafficking.

Illegal migration and trafficking of women from Eastern Europe is anchored on the one side in specific characteristics of the restrictive immigration regimes of destination countries in the EU, and on the other side, in the feminisation of poverty, gender discrimination and emerging migration cultures in the countries of origin. The enlargement of the EU also impacts on both sides: in medium term it will fundamentally change the legal framework of East-West migration while at the same time influencing the socio-economic conditions and expectedly the gender relations in the newly acceded and acceding countries.

The analysis undertaken in the first section of the present report will provide the background information for trying to understand how EU enlargement is likely to affect women's migration trajectories in general, and trafficking in women from South Eastern Europe (SEE) in particular. The aim is thus to describe the key features of East-West migration in the context of EU-enlargement from a gender perspective. This will be subsequently complemented by detailed analyses of the nature, extent and countering strategies of trafficking in women from SEE.

To this end, this section will start with a brief overview of the migration patterns from Eastern Europe in the last decade. It will then sketch the changing nature of the legal framework in which East-West labour migration occurs prior and after EU enlargement. A gender perspective will also be used when addressing the potential migration flows after EU enlargement, which are usually dealt with in gender neutral approaches. Eventually, the roles played by informal networks and by migration policies for women to succeed in their migration plans are explained. This will provide the bridge to the remainder of the report by linking the broader phenomenon of circular migration to women's vulnerability to traffic ("failed circular migration", Lazaroiu 2000).

1.1 East-West migration patterns in the forerun to EU enlargement

When trying to understand the presence of women from Eastern Europe in various forms of cross-border labour mobility it is of particular relevance to pinpoint the typologies and the evolution of post-1989 income-seeking East-West migrations.

There is by now a large bulk of literature analysing how transnational labour movements emerged after the collapse of socialism in Eastern Europe. Most scholars agree on two main

¹ The trends towards the feminisation of migration flows are not only European but global phenomena. Evidence for OECD countries is provided by Kofman (2003). Morokvasic-Müller (2002) documents the main characteristics of gendered migration from Eastern Europe, whereas Martin (2004) and Zlotnik (2003) demonstrate that globally the number of female migrants is increasing.

evolutions of out-migration from Eastern Europe in the last decade. On the one side, a rapid change from a regime of emigration mainly shaped by ethnicity, before 1990, to one characterised by informal networks and illegal migration². On the other side, the change from long-term movements and settlement to pendular cross-border movements, currently endemic in SEE (for which a new terminology emerged: circular migration, labour tourism, incomplete migration, petty trading...).³ The new feature of East-West migrations brought about by the fall of the iron curtain is thus not that East Europeans became *free to leave* but *free to leave and return* (Morokvasic 2002).

This circular migration was facilitated by both liberalised exit regimes and the relaxed visa requirements for citizens of EU candidate countries. One could thus distinguish three periods after 1989 with specific migration patterns: (i) a first one for ethnically dominated migration, usually "Aus"- and "Übersiedler" to Germany or members of the Jewish community to Israel, (ii) a second one dominated by the emergence of informal/illegal migration networks in which short-term tourist visas were used for engaging in seasonal work in agriculture or construction, domestic work, nursing and care, and, eventually, (iii) a third period marked by normalisation and regularisation of immigrants during the transition to free movement in the EU. The length of these periods and the migration patterns vary considerably among the candidate countries. One reason is the different visa regime: visa requirements were first lifted for Poles in April 1991, while Bulgaria and Romania were the last to be removed from the "blacklist" of countries with visa requirements for the Schengen area in 2000 and respectively 2001. This rough generalisation helps however showing that East-West migration over the 1990s was mainly demand determined and that its patterns were triggered by the restrictive migration policy of receiving countries.

The overall characteristics of mobility from Eastern Europe are relevant also for the circular migration of women. The available empirical evidence suggests that women are more likely than men to engage in short-term, short-distance movements (Morokvasic 2002, Wallace 2002). Women engaging in circular migration usually possess tourist visas without work permits and work in domestic services (as cleaners, baby sitters, care takers), as seamstresses in informal garment, and in increasing numbers as prostitutes (Morokvasic 2002, Morawska 2001). There are also considerable bodies of data showing that women's overall strategies to cope with the obstacles relative to short-term income-seeking mobility and to optimise the opportunities to find undocumented work abroad depend to a large extent on the legal/institutional options to find employment in EU countries (Cyrus 1997a, b, Morawska 2001, Wallace 2002, Wallace, Stola 2001). It seems therefore relevant to look at the ways in which citizens of candidate countries are able to legally enter the EU labour markets prior and after their countries accede to the EU.

1.2 Access to EU labour markets for nationals of the accession countries

Free movement of workers remains the single dimension of economic integration which will not apply directly after EU accession. As agreed between the incumbent and the new EU member states the pre-accession system, under which citizens of the candidate countries need to get a work permit to be employed in the EU, will be perpetuated for some years after accession. The rationale behind this postponement is first to protect the labour markets of EU countries against

² Ohlinger (2000) describes this transition from ethnically driven to illegal migration in the Romanian case. For special studies of Romanian illegals: Diminescu (1996), Diminescu, Lagrave (1999). For overviews: Sik, Wallace (1999), Morawska (2000), Thuen (1999).

³ Morawska (2001) and Salt (2001), p.86.

supposedly uncontrollable inflows and second to move gradually towards the EU system, whereby EU citizens can freely be employed anywhere in the EU.

The imposition of transitional arrangements for the new member states is consistent with the basic "protectionist" philosophy of the EU with regard to the free movement of workers. Whereas for goods and services (unconnected with movement of persons), price competition and the principle of the country of origin are key elements of the internal market, this is not the case with employed workforce (Bruha 2002).

Vis-a-vis citizens from East European countries the EU applied a "fortress attitude" as far as the mobility of labour was concerned over the whole pre-accession period. CEE citizens were thus forced to find alternatives in order to make use of their comparative advantage in form of "cheaper work".

1.2.1 Transitional arrangements (2+3+2)

The exact ways in which the transitional arrangements will operate are stated in the Accession Treaty. The precepts referred to in Article 24 of the Accession Act envisage that the initial member states will admit workers from the new member states under national rules, rather than EU rules on freedom of movement, for the first **2 years** after accession.

After this period the member states will have to announce the system they will use from then on. Those countries which on grounds of unexpected disturbances on the labour market or in specific regions or professions will maintain a "safeguard", i.e. they are allowed to re-introduce work permits temporarily for another period of **3 years**. After these periods the countries are expected to open their labour markets entirely. However, countries threatened by serious disturbances will be allowed to continue restricting labour market access for maximum further **2 years**. After this period all EU countries are obliged to lift the work permits for citizens of the new member states definitely.

The imposition of transitional arrangements implies that there will be no radical change compared to the pre-accession situation. However, the rights of citizens from new member states to access the EU labour market will increase first due to relaxing national regulations and applying "preference rules"⁴ and second to evolving EU legislation and case law.

1.2.2 Labour market access in the pre-accession period

The pre-accession system will also continue to apply for citizens of Romania and Bulgaria until the envisaged EU accession. Under this system, Romanian and Bulgarian workers have no rights to access to EU labour markets.

The legal framework of economic relations between Romania and Bulgaria on the one hand and the EU countries on the other hand will continue to be derived from the Europe Agreements. Whilst the agreements contain a title 'movement of workers, establishment and supply of services', there is in fact no right for workers to move either between their home countries and the EU nor within the Community. As far as the movement of workers is concerned, the

⁴ Citizens of new member states will be given priority over people from non-EU countries. Moreover, the EU member states are not allowed to take away any rights already granted, e.g. due to bilateral agreements ("standstill clause").

agreements provide only for the non-discrimination in working conditions, remuneration and dismissal for workers already legally employed in the EU, which means only national treatment (Bruha 2002).

For the purpose of the present study, it is relevant to understand the situation of Romanian and Bulgarian citizens with regard to their rights to access to the EU labour markets for providing services.

Bulgarian and Romanian nationals do not have the right of establishment in the EU by virtue of their nationality. Even if the right of establishment for self-employed persons and enterprises seems to be guaranteed by the Europe Agreements, these provisions are loosened by flexible "escape clauses" which allow the application of national legislation (Bröcker 2002).

The question whether and in how far these clauses can restrict the right of establishment has so far been subject of four judgements of the European Court of Justice⁵ (ECJ). The ECJ hold explicitly in all four cases that the right of establishment has direct effect and it presupposes a right to enter and stay in the host EU country. The "escape clauses" of the Europe Agreements allow thus only the verification of the person's intentions to take up an activity as self-employed without at the same time entering into employment or having recourse to public funds.

The last of the four cases, *Jany*, dealt with the application of a number of Czech and Polish nationals to remain in the Netherlands as self-employed prostitutes. The EJC stated that the activity of prostitution on self-employed basis is a service provided for remuneration and should thus be regarded as an economic activity of a self-employed person if it is carried out "outside any relationship of subordination concerning the choice of activity, working conditions and conditions of remuneration; under that person's own responsibility; and in return for remuneration paid to that person directly and in full" (*C-268/99 Jany*).

The fact that the right of establishment stated in the Europe Agreements has been invoked only seldom by citizens of accession countries finds its explanation in the above described characteristics of East-West migration (circular movements, short-term stay, informal or irregular residence status) as well as by the rather restrictive way in which EU countries have implemented the establishment provisions. It remains also an open question if Romanian or Bulgarian nationals will increasingly make use of this right and of the related ECJ case-law, particularly considering the relatively short period of time remained until EU accession and eventually granting the free movement of workers. However, despite this limited number of cases in which the right of establishment has been invoked, the disproportionate frequent situations which concerned the income-seeking mobility of women is yet another proof of the feminisation of East-west migration flows and of the role played by migrant women as social innovators, in search for solutions in the unstable environment of post-communist transition.

⁵ Case C- 63/99 Gloszczuk, Case C-235/99 Kondova, case C-257/99 Barkoci and Malik (judgement of 27 September 2001) and Case C-268/99 Jany (judgement of 20 November 2001). Detailed comments on the cases are provided by Bröcker (2002), Bruha (2002) and van Ooik (2002).

1.3 Gendered “migration pressure” from Eastern Europe

There are two lines along which the feminisation of migration is usually investigated. First, by looking at women’s motivations to migrate and identifying a growing weight of motives which are solely gender specific and not related to family reunification. Second, by figuring out the increasing number of foreign born women employed in EU countries.

From this double perspective women’s migration can be analysed in general economic terms by modelling supply and demand components. Sketching such a demand and supply model should also determine how both the situation of women during transition and the re-structuring of employment opportunities for female work in developed economies impact on the attitudes of women towards migration.

1.3.1 The demand side

It is hardly possible to obtain statistical evidence which combines gender and other relevant human capital characteristics of immigrants in EU countries. Because of this lack of evidence most of the research on gendered immigration relies on partial bodies of data and overall information on the employment of foreign born women.

As a general observation most analysts agree that migration policies of Western European countries have been implicitly gender biased, i.e. even if not openly discriminating, many countries imposed restrictions on the admission of migrants for female types of occupations, usually low-skilled, low paid jobs (Morento-Fontes Chammartin 2002)⁶.

Concomitant with this absence of gender neutral migration management, structural evolutions in the developed economies, corroborated with rigid labour market and welfare state regulations led to an increased demand for undocumented work often provided by informal migrants (Boswell, Straubhaar 2004, Entorf 2002). In this context, undocumented migrant women often have comparative advantages for potential employers compared to their male counterparts. The growth of employment for migrant women from Eastern Europe has been driven by the informalisation of various service sectors since foreign born women became prominent in so called 3D-jobs (dirty, difficult, dangerous) like domestic work, textiles, hotel and catering or agriculture. The replacement of Moroccan men in Spanish agriculture by Polish and Romanian women can be traced back to the preference for cheap and docile labour (Kofman 2003) for low-skilled, low-paid jobs. Many of these jobs make women also more vulnerable to exploitation than male migrants. A common explanation relies on the work environment (Morento-Fontes Chammartin 2002): while men work more often in groups, women’s work is rather individualised, in the domestic sector, care or other low-paid service jobs.

Most of the sectors in which migrant women from Eastern Europe were employed – formally or undocumented – were labour intensive industries. The available data (e.g. ISERES 2000) demonstrates that even though recent immigrant women are more often employed in the service sector – while in earlier periods they were especially present in manufacturing – they display a higher probability of being locked at the lower end of the occupational ladder. Even if

⁶ One paramount example is Germany’s labour migration programme comprising project-tied workers (usually employed in construction), guestworker contracts (covering mainly male dominated, rather low-skilled industrial jobs), seasonal workers (agriculture, forestry, construction) and commuters (80% of the regular commuters in the early 1990s were men).

there are only partial indicators of statistical discrimination, migrant women from Eastern Europe in the EU seem to face discrimination of the type: “equal pay for equal work but unequal work”, i.e. immigrants – particularly women – are trapped into low-paid occupations which do not correspond to their human capital and skills imported from the home countries.

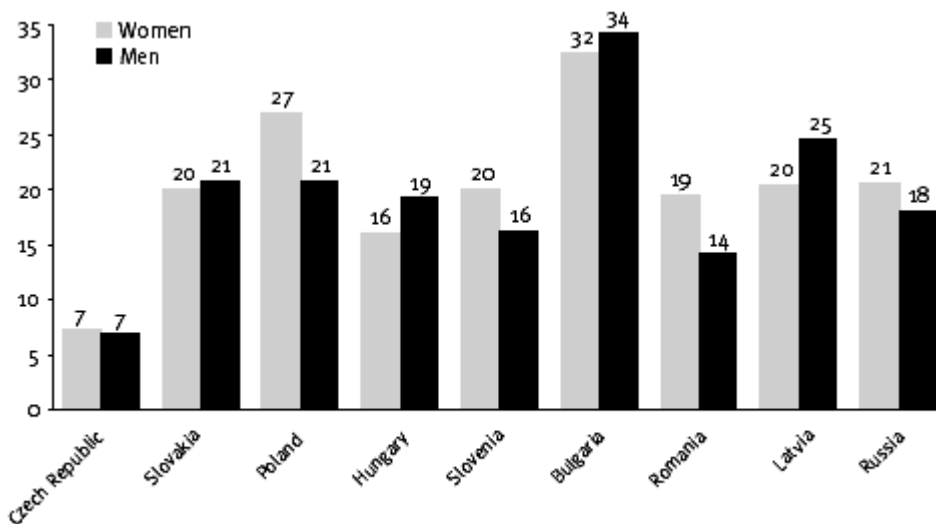
All this evidence suggests that despite relatively high unemployment rates in the majority of EU countries there is a considerable and growing demand for foreign labour and particularly for the undocumented work of women. The EU is thus a pole of attraction for many categories of migrant women from Eastern Europe who “settle into mobility” especially given the poor economic opportunities in the regions of origin.

1.3.2 The supply side

Women and men in Eastern Europe have been affected differently by the changes in employment and earning opportunities due to economic restructuring during the transition and the EU accession. In the majority of East European countries poverty affected disproportionately women (UNICEF 2003). This disproportional impact is in part due to women’s lack of access to formal education and employment. Market oriented reforms in Eastern Europe are often not in the benefit of women if they lack the economic power at the workplace or in their communities or families (UNIFEM 2002).

While the participation of women in the labour market has been nominally encouraged by the former socialist regimes, this obligation-like commitment transformed into a burden for women during transition (UNICEF 1999, Gal, Kligman 200a,b). As a consequence female employment has decreased more markedly than female labour force participation. Mostly affected by the growth in unemployment were younger women (Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1: Unemployment rates by gender (age groups 15-24), 1997



Note: Data refer to 1996 for Russia. Unemployment is defined using the standard ILO criteria. (See Glossary.)

Source: UNICEF 1999, 28

The high unemployment rate of younger women in transition explains much of the very high rates of poverty and social distress in some East European countries and what is being called

the “feminisation of poverty”: because female-headed households experience higher unemployment rate or are restricted to low-income and informal employment, they are more likely to be poor and less likely to obtain formal education and health care.

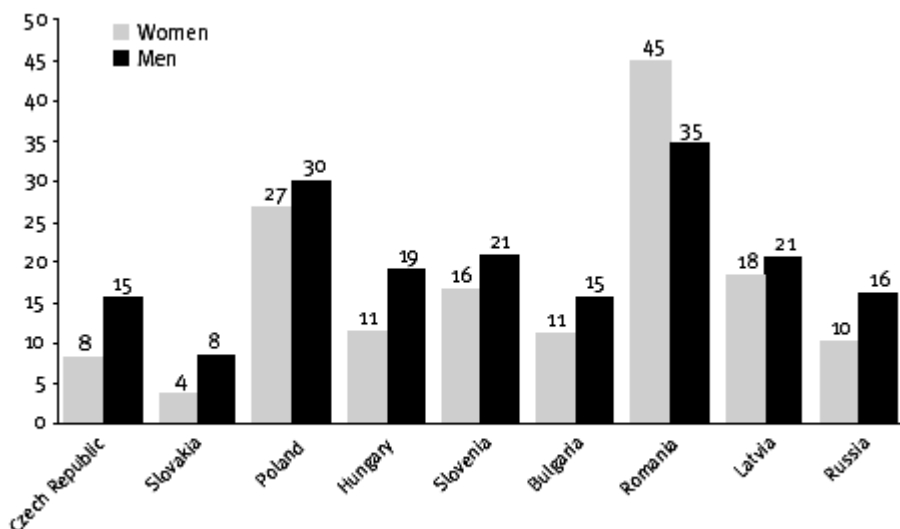
Furthermore, an important push factor for the migration of women in search for employment opportunities derives from gender discrimination. Even if finding employment in their regions of origin women face a high gender pay gap. Particularly the poorer accession countries Romania and Bulgaria report important changes in the female-male wage ratios – in Bulgaria the gender pay gap increased by almost 5% (Table 1.1) – while relative women’s earnings remaining at a smaller level (of male incomes) than the more advanced accession countries.

Table 1.1: Gender pay gap		
(female monthly wages as percentage of male monthly wages)		
Country	Ratio	Year
Czech Republic	66.1	1987
	73.0	1992
	81.3	1996
Slovakia	66.1	1987
	73.3	1992
	78.2	1996
Poland	73.7	1985
	79.0	1992
	79.0	1996
Hungary	74.3	1986
	80.8	1992
	78.1	1997
Slovenia	87.0	1987
	88.6	1991
	85.4	1996
Bulgaria	74.0	1990
	69.1	1997
Romania	78.6	1994
	76.2	1997

Source: UNICEF 1999, 33

In Eastern Europe men appear also to have a higher share of self-employment than women (Figure 1.2). While these figures should be interpreted with caution, the high ratios of self-employment among women in Romania – where a high percentage of self-employment is in agriculture – they indicate that women’s labour may have played a crucial role in the private sector development.

Figure 1.2: Share of self-employment in total employment by gender, 1997



Note: Data refer to 1996 for Russia.

Source: UNICEF 1999, 31

The described features of the demand and supply side of women migrants in Eastern Europe indicate that the feminisation of East-West flows will continue both due to the increasing demand for women labour and to the push factors in the destination countries. The hypothesis that the migration of women will play a major role in the migration of labour from Eastern Europe even after EU enlargement is thus even more supported given the likely changes in the migratory regimes and the economic effects of EU accession of women's labour supply in the sending regions.

1.3.3 The migration potential: gender specific motivations

The question of how the EU enlargement will directly affect the feminisation of East-West migrants flows could be answered when looking at the migration potentials from accession countries after the introduction of free movement. While a great variety of methodologies has been applied for addressing the likely magnitude and timing of potential flows⁷ none of these estimates considers the differential propensity to migrate by gender.

An exception is Krieger (2004). Rather than questioning the overall numbers, this analysis attempts to empirically identify gender specific motivations to migrate.

The relevant question is if women's motivations to migrate assimilate to a family migration model? In case this does not happen, the consequence will be that women are likely to migrate independently from their families.

Using standardised samples of East-European survey respondents from the Candidate Countries Eurobarometer 2002 the cross-tabulations of gender and variables related to migration intentions prove an overall high propensity to migrate of women from EU accession countries. It is again worth noting that women from Romania and Bulgaria – who earn on average the lowest

⁷ These estimates are reviewed by Schmidt, Fertig (2001), Brücker et al. (2003).

incomes in Eastern Europe – display high propensity to migrate, both in absolute terms (Table 1.2) and compared to the intentions of co-national men (Table 1.3).

Table 1.2: Migration intentions by gender in accession countries

Country	Male	Female
Bulgaria, Romania	6.7	4,2
Turkey	8.6	3,7
Accession countries 13	5.9	3,3
Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania	3.9	3,1
Hungary, Czech Republic, Slovakia	1.9	2,8
CEE 10	3.6	2,7
Poland	5.0	2,5
Cyprus, Malta, Slovenia	2.3	1,9

Source: Krieger (2004), Table 10. The estimates are based on the Candidate Countries Eurobarometer 2002

This means that the percentages of women declaring their intentions to leave from Romania and Bulgaria are among the highest (only Polish women are more likely to move), but also that the ratio of women among the potential migrants from these two countries are higher than the corresponding ratios of other (then) candidate countries.

Table 1.3: Firm intentions to migrate by gender (selected CEECs)

Country	Male	Female	All
Poland	48.1	51.9	100.0
Bulgaria	48.8	51.2	100.0
Romania	56.9	43.1	100.0
Czech Republic	63.4	36.6	100.0
Lithuania	65.4	34.6	100.0
Slovenia	85.7	14.3	100.0
Malta	100.0	0.0	100.0
Cyprus	37.1	62.9	100.0
CEE 10	54.7	45.3	100.0
ACC 13	58.3	41.7	100.0

Source: Krieger (2004). The estimates are based on the Candidate Countries Eurobarometer 2002

This picture can be refined by combining the gender of the respondents with variables indicating the motives for the intended migration. At aggregate level, one could distinguish two major groups: one of women who are mainly motivated to migrate by earning arguments (work or financial reasons) and another group who emphasise on the contrary, family and housing concerns.

The male-female differences are clearly observable on this aggregate level: male migrants are clearly more economically motivated to migrate than women (the difference between men and women indicating financial or work reasons for migration lies at about 10-15%).

When disaggregating these results at country level it became clear that women from less advanced accession countries, like Bulgaria and Romania, are – contrary to common expectation

– more motivated to migrate by economic reasons than women from rather advanced accession countries (Table 1.4).

Table 1.4: Cross tabulation for general inclination to migrate by gender and motives (selected CEECs)

Country	Gender	Not satisfied with current home	Do not like people in the area	Work reasons	Family / private reasons	Financial reasons	All
Bulgaria	Male	16.1	4.7	9.1	7.4	62.7	100.0
	Female	3.1	0.0	3.2	22.1	71.7	100.0
Romania	Male	9.4	2.2	14.0	13.2	61.1	100.0
	Female	21.6	6.5	12.4	24.3	35.2	100.0
Lithuania	Male	9.1	3.1	35.0	8.1	44.6	100.0
	Female	15.7	0.0	23.2	27.1	34.1	100.0
Poland	Male	11.1	6.8	47.9	14.0	20.1	100.0
	Female	15.4	6.4	34.2	25.5	18.5	100.0
Cyprus	Male	0.0	0.0	62.1	37.9	0.0	100.0
	Female	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0
Malta	Male	0.0	0.0	47.4	32.6	19.9	100.0
	Female	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0
CEE 10	Male	11.2	4.9	41.7	17.2	25.0	100.0
	Female	13.8	4.7	32.7	26.9	22.0	100.0
ACC 13	Male	7.5	4.4	36.8	13.1	38.3	100.0
	Female	14.3	5.2	31.5	20.9	28.2	100.0

Source: Drawing on Krieger (2004). The estimates are based on the Candidate Countries Eurobarometer 2002

This pattern could be explained by the specific labour market conditions (income distribution, employment opportunities, etc.) in these countries corroborated with the comparatively high human capital levels of women: flatter human capital – earnings profiles provide incentives for rather qualified women to seek employment abroad.

Considering these results as representative, the conclusion would clearly be that the migration of women – particularly from less advanced candidate countries – is in a very high proportion dominated by economic reasons (in Bulgaria, Romania and Slovakia even higher than that of the average East European male migrant).

When combining these results with aggregate estimations of the migration potential after EU enlargement, the following conclusions could be drawn:

- The overall East-West labour migration flows after EU enlargement are likely to be rather small. The majority of the gross estimations, even largely diverging in their methodologies, seem to confirm the 3-4% rule of thumb (Straubhaar 2001) for predicting the potential outflows of labour over the first decade after introducing the free movement.
- Even if the numbers will be low, an increasing number of women is likely to migrate from the candidate countries.
- When looking at the motivations to migrate from a gender perspective, the patterns of a new migration behaviour seem to be confirmed: contrary to common expectations, the

migration of women from Eastern Europe is increasingly dominated by economic rationales, in some of the candidate countries even more than that of male migrants.

Completing the picture with the described characteristics of the East-West migration regime in the last decade – particularly concerning the emergence of formal/informal migration networks and the protectionist approach of EU countries – will help explaining the increasing probability of migrant women ending in vulnerable situations on their migration trajectories.

Even if women from EU candidate countries (including after 2000 Bulgaria and Romania) were able to travel freely as tourist, there is evidence supporting that they often lack access to informal networks enabling them to find irregular employment.⁸ They became thus often dependent on criminal men or networks for sustaining their income-seeking stays in the EU. The remainder of the report will deepen the understanding of this vulnerability by specifically addressing the vulnerability to trafficking of women from Romania, Moldova and Bulgaria.

⁸ E.g. Davis (2002), drawing on Hungarian Sex Workers Abroad Survey, Salamon Alapitvany 1997-98.

Section 2: The Phenomenon of Trafficking in Women and Girls

Section 2 is composed of four different parts. Part one introduces the main aspects involved when looking at the phenomenon of trafficking in women and girls for the purpose of sexual exploitation. In this context, it raises the difficulties encountered – as well as the reasons for these difficulties - when trying to draw a picture of the issue. It furthermore contains definitions and data, and touches upon some essential questions to be taken into consideration when investigating this area.

Part two seeks to present the situation of trafficked women in South Eastern Europe and describes initiatives undertaken by a variety of actors to fight trafficking in the region.

Part three is composed of different case studies relating to Romania, Moldova and Bulgaria as EU candidate (Romania and Bulgaria) and future neighbouring (Moldova) countries. Given that there are similar features involved when treating the issue of trafficking in 3 countries which are mainly countries of origin of trafficked victims and from the same region, it has been decided to draft the case studies from different perspectives. To this end, the case study on Romania covers essentially the sociological aspects investigating the causes that render women and girls vulnerable to being trafficked. The case study on Moldova has a completely different approach. It looks at the situation of the Republic of Moldova which will, after Romania's accession to the EU in 2007, be a new neighbouring country of the EU. The causes of massive waves of legal and illegal migration, its impact on trafficking in human beings, and measures to manage migration are being discussed. The third case study on Bulgaria is a short report on the state-of-play of the legal framework with regard to combating human trafficking, given that it is the most comprehensive one in the region, and raises a few topics with regard to gaps in the assistance and protection of victims.

The final part comprises further comparative figures and data with regard to all three countries.

2.1 General Introduction to the Phenomenon of Trafficking in Women and Girls

When investigating the phenomenon of trafficking in human beings a variety of questions has to be taken into account. Definitions, concepts and figures differ considerably which is due to different political and moral viewpoints and, above all, to the underground nature of trafficking activities. The path of a trafficked person may contain multiple features starting with the intention to either migrate and thus seek work on a temporary basis or to emigrate. The victim might then enter a country of transit or destination on a legal or on an illegal basis. If entered legally – in most of the cases with a tourist visa, the status of residence may turn into illegality if a person is being forced to work and/or if the person overstays the permitted period of stay. In addition to the diversity of individual fates, trafficking and smuggling are often used in the same way creating further confusion. Finally, controversial debates about "forced" and "voluntary" prostitution represent another constraint in agreeing on basic concepts and consequently on evaluating the whole phenomenon⁹.

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions and concepts shall apply:

⁹ There is an ongoing debate about the question whether prostitution is per se a violation of basic human rights or whether it is the conditions under which prostitutes work that violate basic human rights. To this end, the concept of "voluntary" prostitution is generally discussed in a controversial manner.

Trafficking

The UN Protocol to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons, especially women and children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against transnational organised crime defines trafficking in persons as *“the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs;”*.

Trafficking in human beings as a form of contemporary slavery thus confines not only to forced prostitution affecting mainly women and girls, but also to exploitative domestic servitude, begging, bonded sweatshop work, women and men working in “3 D-jobs: dirty, difficult, dangerous” as well to the removal of organs. The study will, however, focus on trafficking for the purpose of sexual exploitation.

Smuggling

By contrast, smuggling only refers to the facilitation of crossing the border by using illegal means in order to obtain a financial or other material benefit. Another difference is related to the consent of the migrant to illegally cross the border or to perform a certain job at the destination¹⁰. However, the distinction might often lose its differentiated character. Undocumented migration is sometimes hard to be distinguished from trafficking due to the ambiguous character of the negotiation between the migrant and the intermediary and therefore of the supposed coercion/deception practice. More, the same smuggling channel can also be a traffic network. Trafficked girls may be transported together with other migrants, separated later and sent to a different destination. In spite of the fact that exploitation and abuse of a person does not strictly relate to smuggling situations, using an informal channel entails the assuming of various risks and smuggling might involve the violation of human rights.

Prostitution and Trafficking

The difference between prostitution and traffic is not always easy to perceive. This is due to the informal character of the contract between the intending migrant and the trafficker or to the impossibility of checking if the victim was to a certain degree aware of the nature of the job that was to be performed. However, even where the migrant is aware that she will be working as a prostitute, this could as well be considered as part of the traffic activities due to the restraining of the freedom of movement often achieved through the confiscation of the passports, to her being physically abused, treated as commodity and paid little amounts of money.

In order to better distinguish between prostitution and trafficking, further aspects as described below can be involved in the case of trafficking:

- The existence of a recruiter who promises one or more women a job abroad as well as the facilitation of a safe crossing of the border;

¹⁰ Salt, J.: Trafficking and Human Smuggling, An European Perspective, IOM, 2000

- The conclusion of a written or informal contract/convention between the trafficker and the intending migrant who agrees to the conditions of her departure based on several information that she considers satisfactory;¹¹
- The transport and sometimes the documents necessary for the border crossing involve the acting of an organised network that often includes actors from more than one country;
- The traffickers make possible the transport of the recruited women over various frontiers; the victims are unwillingly sold to various buyers;
- The trafficked women's previous information about the conditions of work abroad prove to be entirely or partially false. When arriving at the destination country that is often different from the one specified in the contract, they are constrained by the persons who "own" them to unwillingly perform a specific job or to work for very low payment to which they do not agree (the victims are treated as merchandise, sold, bought and evaluated in accordance with the market demand and the expected profit).

The lack of opportunities in their country of origin arising from social and economic disparities, the majority of unemployed being women, and poor or non-existent education make women and girls particularly vulnerable to becoming victims of trafficking. The feminisation of poverty results in a greater flux of female migrants and immigrants who seek to find work abroad. These women are often excluded from safe – whether legal or illegal - migration networks. Jobs as waitresses, maids, nannies, dancers, hostesses and models are offered through advertisements, job and modelling agencies or through acquaintances. Marriage agencies offer as well an opportunity for emigration. A certain percentage of women agrees to work in the sex business as prostitutes, without being aware of the undignified and violent conditions under which they will have to live and work.

According to IOM, 500 000 women a year are trafficked from poorer regions in the world to Western Europe. Apart from Western Europe, the USA, Canada, Israel and Arabic countries such as the United Arab Emirates and Saudi Arabia are main countries of destination. In total, an estimated 4 million people are trafficked each year¹². For decades, the majority of women has been trafficked from less developed countries, in particular from South East Asia, to industrialised countries. However, since the collapse of socialism in Europe, women are being recruited mainly in Ukraine, Belarus, Russia and the Baltic states as well as in Central and South Eastern European countries such as Bulgaria, Romania and Moldova. Another estimation relates to the global value of the sex business, treating women and girls as goods, which amounts to US\$ 7 – 12 billion per year¹³.

If the worst comes to the worst, the girl or woman may be four times victimised during her path as trafficked person. She may first be the victim of the recruiter or pimp who treats her in a live-threatening way. According to Europol, hundreds of corpses of trafficked women who have been beaten to death, shot or strangled are found each year. In 2000, 22 women were left to freeze to death during a blizzard while crossing a mountain range into Greece¹⁴. The woman may then be victimised a second time when treated as a criminal, accused of prostitution or illegal immigration, by law enforcement authorities of the receiving country. When returning to her country of origin, she will be left with physical and psychological traumata which will render her

¹¹ There are cases when the victim is kidnapped; this particular case is not related to the vulnerability concept as will be defined in this study and will therefore not be included.

¹² Von Struensee, V.: Sex Trafficking: A Plea for Action, 2000

¹³ Hughes, Donna M.: The "Natasha Trade": The Transnational Shadow Market of Trafficking in Women, 2000

¹⁴ idem 12

life in a country, that she had left to find better living conditions, merely impossible. And fourthly, stigmatisation of prostitutes or forced prostitutes represent an additional burden to the difficult situation of the woman.

Only recently, wide concerted efforts are made at the international, regional and national level to combat trafficking in women and girls. These efforts aim at harmonising international and national criminal laws as well as at improving victim protection and assistance. There is indeed an urgent need for co-ordinated action given that organised crime networks adapt quickly to newly introduced provisions and redirect their operations further to the underground. Different *modus operandi* of organised crime networks such as moving women from brothels and bars to private apartments as well as recruiting women pimps (in Ukraine, 70% of the pimps are women)¹⁵ require immediate responses with regard to law enforcement and judicial activities as well as to awareness raising campaigns.

Considerable efforts are also necessary regarding reintegration measures. A couple of international organisations and NGOs, partially in co-operation with national authorities, offer a wide range of services, including shelter, medical and psychological advice up to vocational training and small business start-up loans. However, much remains to be done to cover the needs. There is generally no HIV/AIDS-treatment available, no long-term psychological or psychiatric support and no programmes to reintegrate trafficked children.

The last years brought as well some positive changes which concerns the overall attitude towards the phenomenon of trafficking in human beings. There is an observable trend to deal with the issue more from a human rights perspective, putting the life, well-being and dignity of the individual at the centre of considerations.

2.2 Trafficking in South Eastern Europe¹⁶ and legislative action in the region

Situation in South Eastern Europe

In the region of South Eastern Europe (SEE), comprising Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina (BiH), Bulgaria, Croatia, Kosovo, FYR Macedonia, Moldova, Romania, Serbia and Montenegro, 90 % of foreign women working in the sex business are alleged victims of trafficking. 10 – 15 % of these women are girls under the age of 18. Younger children under 13, both girls and boys, are trafficked for forced labour, mostly begging and street selling. The majority of children come from the poorest and often dysfunctional families. It appears that many are from the Roma community. However, as regards children, still no reliable data exist for the region.

The majority of victims are recruited in Albania, Bulgaria, Moldova and Romania. The women and girls are often initially trafficked on the local market. This refers especially to women from Bulgaria, Moldova and Romania. They are being moved by the pimps from one place to another and, after a while, sold abroad. This information is of particular relevance when looking at the willingness of victims to testify against traffickers. Given that local pimps do know the victim and her family, testifying against the trafficker may put her and her family's life into danger. Furthermore, many efforts of law enforcement authorities concentrate on combating organised crime and high profile cases, thus, few attention is paid to the role of local criminals.

¹⁵ idem 13

¹⁶ Section mainly based on findings from UNICEF/UNOHCHR/OSCE ODIHR: Trafficking in Human Beings in South Eastern Europe, 2003.

BiH, Kosovo, FYR Macedonia, Serbia and Montenegro are countries of both transit and destination, Serbia being a key transit country.¹⁷ Main destination countries for trafficked women within Western Europe are Italy, Greece, Spain, Germany and France. More frequently, victims are moved by air directly to Western European countries. This trend is due, on the one hand, to the less strict visa regimes for citizens of some SEE countries¹⁸ and, on the other hand, to the stricter border control and anti-trafficking measures introduced in recent years in the region. Often, victims are moved to a Western European country on the basis of a tourist visa, however, enter an illegal status when working as prostitutes or exceeding their permitted period of stay. Traffickers do provide legal documents accordingly and pay for the travel expenses, thereby creating a relationship of dependence with the victims. Victims are forced into prostitution to repay the travel expenses, the purchase to their "owners" as well as any other expenses such as e.g. rents. The women get to keep little, if any, of the earnings. Further dependence is created when the victims' stay is illegal, and they rely on the pimps or traffickers to provide them with further legal documentation.

When discovered, the women are often treated as criminals by police, arrested and deported to their country of origin. Even if they are identified and recognised as victims of trafficking, in most of the countries no proper victim protection and assistance exist or, if it exists, is linked to certain conditions, as shows the case of Bulgaria. In Bulgaria, the "Law on Combating the Illegal Trafficking in Human Beings" is the most comprehensive one in the region to date. However, the law makes a clear distinction between the rights of the victims who are willing to co-operate with law enforcement authorities and those who do not want/cannot do so. It stipulates that a foreign national can only be granted the status of special protection, an extended residence permit and the prolonged stay in the shelters if she is willing to co-operate in detecting the traffickers.¹⁹ But if a victim agrees to co-operate with the authorities, the security measures to protect her still cannot be implemented due to a lack of more specific legal provisions regarding witness protection.

To take another example of witness protection, in Germany, the programme to protect witnesses offers two levels of protection according to the potential risk the woman is faced with²⁰. Women who find themselves in high danger will be provided with new identity documents and removed to another region within Germany. Those women represent approximately 5 % of identified trafficked women, willing to testify. Another 95 % fall under the category of persons less in danger of the witness protection programme. The women, after having testified in court, are subject to a risk assessment with regard to their safety in case they would be returned home. In the majority of cases, the risk assessment concludes that there is no acute danger which results in sending the women home – against their will (contrary to a smaller percentage of women who return on a voluntary basis). However, it is highly questionable to which extent these assessments provide the right results. Furthermore, from a human rights perspective, a woman who went through such traumatising situations should have

¹⁷ Stability Pact for South Eastern Europe: First Annual Report on Victims of Trafficking in South Eastern Europe, Regional Clearing Point, 2003

¹⁸ Citizens of Bulgaria and Romania can obtain a Schengen tourist-visa. The majority of Moldovan citizens possess a Romanian passport and are therefore as well able to travel on the basis of a Schengen visa.

¹⁹ idem 16

²⁰ For witnesses in acute danger: „Zeugenschutzprogramm“; for witnesses considered in less danger: „Zeugenbetreuungsprogramm“.

the opportunity to recover, rehabilitate and receive all possible support in the receiving country, if she wishes to stay.

The testimony of the victim is often the only evidence against the traffickers. Given that in the countries of the SEE region there is generally no effective witness protection programme, the majority of traffickers go unpunished. Impunity thus represents one of the major problems with regard to law enforcement in SEE.

Against this background, international organisations, interstate agencies and non-governmental organisations together with national authorities are making reinforced concerted efforts to combat trafficking, as shown in the next section.

Legislative Action in South Eastern Europe (SEE)

Given that there is a variety of legal instruments, concrete initiatives and different actors at the international, regional, sub-regional and local level involved in dealing with human trafficking, and in particular in this region, only a few major provisions and actors can be mentioned.

UN/UNOHCHR

All countries in the region are state parties to the UN Protocol to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons, especially women and children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against transnational organised crime (all countries have signed and ratified, except for Moldova and Macedonia which signed but have not yet ratified). The Protocol which entered into force on 25 December 2003 lays down provisions with regard to the prevention and combat of trafficking in persons, protection and assistance of the victims, and encourages co-operation among the state parties. More significantly, it provides a definition of "trafficking in persons" which was urgently needed in order to deal in a co-ordinated way with the phenomenon. From a human rights perspective, further comprehensive guidelines at the international level have been elaborated by the United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (UNOHCHR).²¹ These guidelines of May 2002 put the needs of the victims at the centre of considerations and thus represent a sensitive set of principles to be taken into account when drafting national legislative frames, thereby complementing the law enforcement and migration approaches. At the UN- and Specialised Agencies-level, many other organisations are active in the region such as UNICEF, UNFPA, UNIFEM, UNDP, UNICRI, UNODC, ILO etc.

Stability Pact for South Eastern Europe

With the creation of the Stability Pact for South Eastern Europe Task Force on Trafficking in Human Beings (SPTF) under the auspices of OSCE in September 2000, one of the most important instruments for the region was set up. The initiative allowed for establishing an institutional frame and concrete actions. At its first annual meeting in 2000, the Regional Ministerial Forum signed the Anti-Trafficking Declaration of South Eastern Europe. The Governments committed to implement effective programmes for prevention, victim assistance and protection, law enforcement, legislative reform and prosecution of traffickers. SPTF provided the SEE countries with guidelines for developing their National Plans of Action in which the countries identify their respective priorities in fighting trafficking as well as their needs for

²¹ UNOHCHR: Recommended Principles and Guidelines on Human Rights and Human Trafficking, May 2002

international support. In this context, each country appointed a national co-ordinator and created a multi-disciplinary national working group comprising the main actors involved in the issue. Moreover, STPF identifies priority areas of action. In 2003, the prevention of child trafficking, victim/witness protection, temporary residence, root causes of trafficking and the demand side have been the declared priorities. With its "Regional Clearing Point" managed by IOM (in co-operation with the International Catholic Migration Commission), the SPTF has a structure for the collection and analysis of data on trafficked victims at its disposal.

SECI

The essential regional initiative with regard to law enforcement is "SECI", the South Eastern European Co-operative Initiative. It seeks to combat transborder crime by promoting the co-operation of law enforcement authorities.

OSCE/ODIHR

The Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) has developed in 2003 a detailed action plan to combat trafficking which recommends specific action for OSCE participating states. Its field missions moreover play a crucial role in carrying-out anti-trafficking work in the host countries, including the implementation of projects. As members of the STPF expert team, the Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR) of the OSCE co-operates with UNICEF and UNOHCHR in drafting annual reports on the situation in SEE. Furthermore, in May 2004, OSCE/ODIHR published a practical handbook on "National Referral Mechanisms" aiming at advising the countries on how to set up an efficient national structure for the protection and promotion of the trafficked persons' human rights.

Council of Europe

As regards the Council of Europe (CoE), two special initiatives should be mentioned. An expert team of the CoE investigated the growing phenomenon of the use of new information technologies with regard to trafficking in human beings for sexual exploitation and published a report in September 2003²². "*The Internet offers unprecedented advantages, which traffickers have been quick to exploit. The Internet and other types of telecommunication provide the sex industry and individual users with new ways of finding, marketing and delivering women and children into appalling conditions of sexual exploitation and modern-day slavery*"²³.

The CoE furthermore implemented successfully a pilot project in Moldova and Romania – the "Lara-project" – dealing with the effective criminalisation of trafficking and the protection of the victims' human rights.

Finally, it should be mentioned that the CoE strongly pleads for a binding legal instrument at the European level.

IOM

The International Organisation for Migration (IOM) is the lead agency for return and re-integration assistance within the frame of SPTF. As such it focuses on awareness-raising

²² Council of Europe: Group of specialists on the impact of the use of new information technologies on trafficking in human beings for the purpose of sexual exploitation, 16.09.2003

²³ idem 22, p. 7 referring to D. Hughes

campaigns and in particular on the protection and assistance of victims. Its reintegration programme seeks to assure the victims' dignified reintegration into society.

EU

The role of the EU in this matter is of crucial importance, given that (i) many EU countries are countries of destination of trafficked persons, in some cases as well countries of transit, (ii) Romania and Bulgaria as candidate countries are main countries of origin, (iii) the future neighbouring states such as Moldova represent as well one the main countries of origin. To this end, the EU is, i.a., tackling the issues of victim assistance in the EU member states, harmonisation of criminal laws and co-operation in the field of transborder organised crime.

To mention a few initiatives: With the Council Framework Decision of July 2002 on combating trafficking in human beings²⁴ the EU aims at harmonising the laws of the EU members states in the area of police and judicial co-operation in criminal matters. It thus addresses topics such as criminalisation, sanctions and penalties. A Directive proposing a residence permit issued to third-country nationals victims of trafficking was adopted on 29 April 2004. However, also here the prerequisite for receiving the residence permit is the co-operation with the competent authorities. The victims would be granted a reflection period allowing them to recover and escape the influence of the perpetrators so that they can take an informed decision as to whether to co-operate with the authorities.²⁵

A second set of actions refers to EU financial programmes. The AGIS programme sets the frame for projects which promote the police and judicial co-operation in criminal matters. Furthermore, the Regional and National TACIS programmes include specific projects addressing human trafficking in Moldova (together with Ukraine and Belarus).

In September 2003, the European Commission (EC) initiated a conference which resulted in the "Brussels Declaration" recognising the urgent need for a "*comprehensive European policy against human trafficking [which] needs to address the entire trafficking chain, comprising countries of origin, transit and destination alike, targeting recruiters, people who transport the victims, exploiters, other intermediaries, clients, and beneficiaries. Also the development of a broader policy on migration management can offer a substantial contribution in reducing and preventing trafficking in human beings. Furthermore, root causes of trafficking, not least including unemployment, poverty, gender inequalities, including the status of girls, social and cultural attitudes, and the demand for sexual services, cheap labour and other forms of exploitation must continue to be at the forefront of the long-term efforts to fight human trafficking effectively. ...*".²⁶ This Declaration has been the basis for further legal acts undertaken by the Council of Ministers. Finally, the EC is as well member of the STFP expert team, and thus directly involved in the activities in the region of SEE.

NGOs

Last but not least, international and local NGOs such as Reaching Out, La Strada, Nadja Centre Foundation, Save the Children Fund etc. ensure the victims' protection and assistance, implement long-term reintegration measures and give advice to countries with regard to drafting national legal frameworks in this area.

²⁴ Official Journal L 203/ 01, 01/08/2002, p. 1

²⁵ Official Journal L 261/19, 06/08/2004, p. 19

²⁶ Official Journal C 137/01, 12/06/2003, p. 1

2.3 Case study 1: ROMANIA

The following section on Romania is based in large parts on findings which were published in the study "Who Is the Next Victim?", carried out in 2003 by Sebastian Lazaroiu and Monica Alexandru for the IOM.

Vulnerability to trafficking comes from a strong desire to seek a job abroad and also from a propensity to break both official and informal rules. The number of young Romanian women aged between 15 and 25 years old at high risk of being trafficked might be between 6-12% of the total number of 15-25 year old girls living with their families. This figure represents a rough estimate that could be subject to measurement errors and which most likely includes a number of persons who are not really vulnerable. In order to best target this category with an information and prevention campaign however, it is better to include more non-vulnerable girls than not enough of the vulnerable ones.

Vulnerable girls mostly come from single-parent families living in medium-sized towns (between 30-100,000 inhabitants) in regions like Transylvania and Moldova (the region in Romania).²⁷ Those at the extreme ends of the 15 – 25 year old cohort are at less risk than the others. Vulnerable girls are more likely to have interrupted their studies or abandoned school before high school graduation. In terms of ethnic background, it appears that young Roma women are more exposed to trafficking in human beings.

Describing the vulnerable group in terms of values and attitudes evidences that these girls are more independent and experimental, preferring incertitude and risk. It is clear that they do not feel close to the family and do not believe that the family is the most important concern in one's life. They also do not value education as a means to succeed and think that more money can justify any job. There is a lower than average trust in institutions, though the Church, media and school remain at the top of those trusted.

Although some parents consider education important for their children's future, they usually neglect to inform themselves of their vulnerable daughter's performance in school. Vulnerable girls, however, do not view education and human capital as resources relevant to success. Rather, they are confident in their ability to work hard and mostly want money in order to buy what they want and to be considered a success.

It is apparent from the study that vulnerable girls come from an abusive family environment where there is domestic violence and where children are neglected. There is also an obvious lack of communication between the parents and children on important intimate issues. Furthermore, vulnerable girls are weakly integrated into their circles of friends and they usually lack parental control. This weak social integration has oftentimes produced psychological disorders and feelings of abandonment.

It is not only the push factors of the family and community environment that result in the group's strong desire to move to another country. There are also pull factors, such as the model

²⁷ Formerly ruled by Romania, Moldova became part of the Soviet Union at the close of World War II. Under the former USSR it was known as the Soviet Socialist Republic of Moldavia, until 1991 when it declared its independence under the Republic of Moldova. The Eastern part of Romania (along the common border with the Republic of Moldova) bears the same name Moldova, from the times when the two regions built the Medieval Moldovan State.

of a successful migrant from among a circle of acquaintances and someone who has proposed a job abroad to the vulnerable girl.

The data supports the fact that vulnerable girls come from a family with a strong culture of mobility. The girls have been socialised to make their own living and to the idea of working or getting married in a foreign country. The families are not extremely poor, but perceive themselves as poor. There is a wish for money and success that is passed on from the parents to the young girls.

Knowledge of the conditions of travelling and staying abroad is rather poor among the group, with the exception of a few basic elements. However, vulnerable girls tend to be better informed than their non-vulnerable counterparts on issues related to travelling and staying abroad. This knowledge might be explained by their strong desire to migrate.

While the parents of vulnerable girls are more aware than the average parent of trafficking in human beings, particularly trafficking in women, the vulnerable girls are actually less aware than other girls of their age. It seems that given their strong desire to seek work abroad, they usually deny cases of deception and exploitation since they want to maintain a positive image of working abroad.

It seems that the collective imagination has created some stereotypes about how a trafficker might be, and young vulnerable women have a well-defined portrait of the typical trafficker. The risk of becoming a victim is even higher when a person who contradicts the stereotype proposes a job to a potential victim.

A last condition for young women to become the victims of trafficking, as previous case studies have evidenced, is a certain willingness to break the rules or social/community norms²⁸. Because the starting point for trafficking is the victims' personal initiative to leave the country, their remoteness from their community and family acts as a push factor towards migration. The propensity to break the rules in order to accomplish their specific goals is an aggravating factor.²⁹

2.3.1 Short outline of trafficking in women in Romania and the Balkans

Trafficking in women is the result of a complex range of circumstances that need to be addressed by resorting to both micro and macro frames of analysis. In the first part of this case study we shall briefly present the structural characteristics that have favoured the emergence and proliferation of trafficking in women in Romania. Since we previously mentioned that the intention to migrate accounts for a significant part of the vulnerability to trafficking, in the second part we will concentrate on the socio-demographic profile of the victim. Not all migrant women are trapped in traffic networks. The question that needs to be answered is why certain young Romanian women are more likely to become traffic victims than others. Which are the socio-demographic factors that explain the variance of the vulnerability patterns?

²⁸ Lazaroiu, S., L. Ulrich: Le trafic de femmes: une perspective sociologique, in: Diminescu, D. (ed.): Visibles mais peu nombreux. Le circulations migratoires roumaines, Editions de la Maison des Sciences de l'homme, Paris, 2003

²⁹ Most trafficking situations involve people who intend to migrate; kidnapping cases not related to migration are seldom an issue.

2.3.1.1 Trafficking from and through the Balkans and neighbouring countries

A highly disruptive environment has characterised the period following the fall of the Berlin Wall. Rapid economic, social, and political changes as well as ethnic conflicts have contributed to the creation of an unstable environment favouring the development of organised crime networks. Starting with the mid of the '90 the Balkans have been seen as representing one of the major areas hosting traffic networks³⁰. Studies in Central and Eastern Europe and in the former Soviet Union emphasise the economic conditions in these countries as factors that generate and contribute to the proliferation of the traffic phenomenon. Predictors such as extreme poverty levels, high unemployment rates, low levels of education and lack of information regarding official opportunities for migration and documents needed in order to legally work abroad are often associated with traffic vulnerability.³¹

In terms of migration typology, the Balkans are not a homogenous region; each country has a different role in the migration flows being primary an origin, destination or transit area. In addition, if considering the intricate process of trafficking, the same country may assume various roles. While in transit, victims may be forced to provide sexual services in countries that are not necessarily main destinations. A brief outline of the Balkan system of trafficking in women, as described in an earlier section, will reveal Bosnia, Herzegovina and Kosovo as main destination countries while Moldova, Romania, Albania and Bulgaria are primary countries of origin³².

2.3.1.2 Migration as innovative strategy in post-communist Romania

The post-communist transition in Romania has been a disruptive element creating an insecure socio-economic environment. The mercantilist economy has been gradually replaced by market economy, which had important consequences on the former immobile society controlled and regulated by the state-party. Privileges and status were not any longer dependent on party loyalties but mainly on competency. Human capital and previous professional experience have become some of the most important criteria for selection, as the equalitarian principle has become obsolete. Unfortunately, it is difficult for a young person to meet both conditions.

The pressure generated by the unsatisfactory income and the frustration provoked not only by the difference between expectations and reality but also by the perception of others' social status sometimes seen as model of success are some of the reasons pushing people to try to find solutions, often illegitimate, in a disruptive environment. As the fall of the communist regime has been followed by the opening of borders and the possibility to exercise the right to freedom of movement no longer restrained – only limited until the Schengen agreement - one of these solutions was migrating and looking for a job overseas.

Since more cycles of migration emerged and remittances became visible in new life style, international mobility became a mean of upward social mobility. From this perspective, the

³⁰ We do not refer to the Balkans as geographic region but as the region targeted by the Stability Pact for South Eastern Europe, here also including the Balkan's neighbouring countries: Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Hungary, The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM), Kosovo, Moldova, Montenegro, Romania, Slovenia, and The Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (FRY).

³¹ Victims of Trafficking in the Balkans, IOM 2001

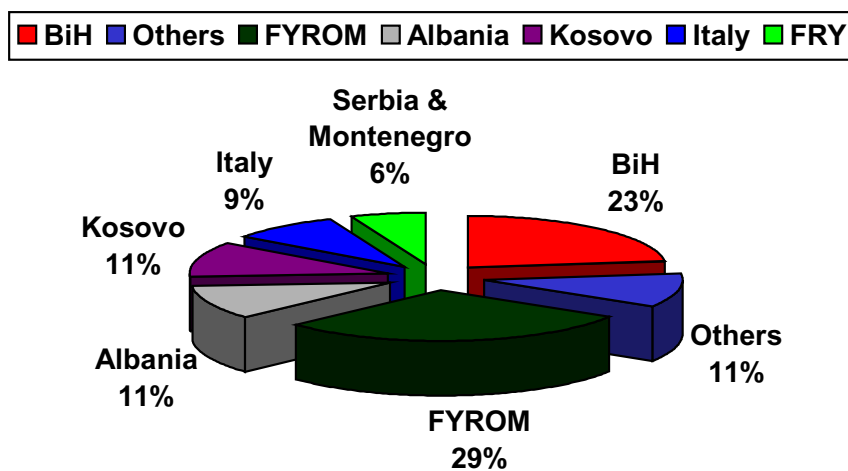
³² idem 30

victims of trafficking as well as any migrants could be considered as “social innovators.”³³ Migration has progressively become a rite of passage for the young categories willing to escape the long and painful economic transition as well as to experiment the stories of success of former migrants. However, the innovative strategies will not always be successful. Risk acceptance is common for youths, but it may generate failure when people lack the ability to manage the new social situations encountered.

2.3.1.3 Brief national assessment of trafficking in women

Where does Romania stand in the traffic system? The answer is quite straightforward if one considers the economic development of the country. Migration is a rather new phenomenon in Romania after 1990. The economic differential between Romania and Western Europe has transformed the latter into an attractive destination for migrants willing to improve their living standard while avoiding the sinuous economic development policies. The difference between inflows and outflows is significantly in favour of the out-migrants. Labour migration is the most important form of Romanians’ moving to a foreign country. Inflows are only secondary, still indicating small figures more significant for transit migration whose scale is difficult to assess.³⁴ The curbing of the country’s migration profile to the traffic phenomenon reflects the same traits. Trafficking in women is a phenomenon related to migration. Interviews with victims of traffic assisted by IOM indicated that most of the women were ordinary migrants cheated by members of organised networks of crime. The most important destinations are FYROM, BiH, Albania and Kosovo.

Figure 2.1: Distribution by country of destination of assisted victims of traffic



Source IOM

³³ Lazaroiu, S.: Trafficking in women. A sociological perspective, in: Sociologie Romaneasca 2/2000

³⁴ The official statistics only include the number of the transit migrants that have been identified by the Border Police or other institutions managing migration; the figures are only estimates and are likely to be significantly higher due to the hidden character of smuggling and trafficking networks.

The Border Police reported in June 2003 that it had discovered and annihilated 158 smuggling and trafficking in human beings networks during the last two years (Border Police report, June 2003). The Romanian authorities have passed significant legislation related to the prevention and prosecution of traffickers and the protection of victims. In practice, there are still shortcomings especially regarding financial support, shelter, and repatriation. Large efforts have been made in the last 2 years to pass and enforce anti-trafficking laws. As international reports evidence, Romania is a source and transit country primarily for women and girls trafficked from Moldova and Ukraine to Bosnia, Serbia, Macedonia, Kosovo, Albania, Greece, Italy and Turkey for the purpose of sexual exploitation. Romania is considered in tier 2³⁵ by the U.S. State department, which means that the authorities did not meet the minimum standards but are making considerable efforts to do so. Statistical data show dramatic changes from year to year. However, the same sources indicate that there is still a major gap regarding laws or regulations and their implementation. On this aspect, the US Department of State considers Romania lagging behind other countries in the region.

2.3.2 Traffic vulnerability. Methodological background of the concept

The vulnerability of young Romanian women becoming victims of trafficking in human beings is an operational concept, resulting from interviews with this target category. Statistical estimates show that of the total number of unmarried Romanian females aged 15-25, 85% live with their parents. Data on trafficking evidence that the risk of becoming a victim of trafficking is higher for females within this age category who have not founded their own families, but rather continue to live with their parents.

Of course there is a number of unmarried young women who live alone or with some school/office mates or in institutions, but this accounts for only 15% of the total number of 15-25 year old unmarried Romanian females. Although this small category is even more vulnerable to being trafficked, as compared to girls who live with their parents (as former researchers have pointed out)³⁶, the proportion of the latter group is much larger. This disproportion is the rationale for confining the target group for future information and prevention campaigns to those young women who live with their parents.

There are specific indicators of conditions of vulnerability. For the first condition, we formulated a question involving the typical conditions for recruitment, i.e. a person proposes to offer a job and transportation to a certain destination to the potential victim.

³⁵ In its annual reports, the U.S. State Department classifies countries according to how domestic efforts meet the legislation's minimum standards for the elimination of trafficking. Tier 3 countries are deemed not to comply with the minimum standards and not to make significant efforts; Tier 2 countries are not in compliance, but making significant efforts; and Tier 1 countries are in compliance.

³⁶ Galat, M., Lazaroiu, S., Palada, M.: Report on vulnerability of young Romanian women to trafficking in human beings, IOM 2001

Table 2.1: Vulnerability by recruitment situation

If a trustworthy person (A) / If somebody (B) offered you a well-paid job abroad and promised to make all the necessary arrangements for you to get there, how willing would you be to accept it?

Base: total sample (854)		Percent A "Trust"	Percent B "No trust"	All sample
Valid	Very little	31	35	33
	Little	11	15	13
	Much	24	22	23
	Very much	14	7	11
	It depends on the job offer	8	9	8
	It depends on the person	7	7	7
	NA	5	5	5
	Total	100.0		100.0

Source: IMAS, 2003

The question was phrased differently for each half of the sample. For the first half, the question mentioned a trustworthy person (variant A), while for the second half the question purposely omitted the words "trustworthy person" and replaced them with "somebody" (variant B). This type of experiment was designed to discover the role of trust in accepting a job. Although it is not relevant for every trafficking situation as many recruiters are well trained to disguise their intentions, it might nevertheless be relevant for a trafficking prevention campaign to stress the idea of trust when seeking a job abroad.

The data show that when there is trust in the potential intermediary there is an increase of **9 percentage points** for acceptance, as compared to the situation when the relationship is not necessarily based on trust. **38 percent would accept the job in variant A whereas only 29 percent would accept the job in variant B.** The largest gap between variants A and B is for the highest intensity of acceptance: **7 percent when no trust is involved as compared with 14 percent where the relationship involves trusting the intermediary.**

Two other answers were considered for the question: "it depends on the job" and "it depends on the person." The interviewer, however, did not read these.³⁷ There was a low percentage of respondents who gave these answers (8-9 percent for the first answer and 7 percent for the second answer). With the first answer, no difference was expected between the two variants. In the case of the second answer, "it depends on the person", there was still no difference between the two variants. That means that for potential recruitment situations, the characteristics of a non-trustworthy person will not be questioned more than those of a trustworthy person. The invariance of the answers shows that processing information about the recruiter is an attribute that depends on the characteristics of the potential migrant.

For the second condition of trafficking, we used a set of indicators that reveal the propensity of young females to break some laws or social norms. The propensity for rule-breaking was viewed as a means to achieve an important goal, whatever it might be.

³⁷ The two answers are neutral; when faced with these alternatives, people would prefer to choose one of them rather than express a more discriminating opinion.

Table 2.2: Vulnerability and propensity to break rules

How willing would you be to accept one of the following situations in order to obtain what you most want in life...³⁸

Positive percent (much and very much) Base: total sample (854)	Percent
To disobey rules	28
To get married to a person I do not love	3
To lie about something	8
To leave my parents and brothers for a long period of time	35
To leave for good the person I most love	7

Source: IMAS, 2003

The table above evidences that the various indicators have different abilities to discriminate. The “strong”³⁹ indicators of rule-breaking are related to intimate life, such as being dishonest towards the persons one loves by leaving them for good (6,5%), or by getting married to someone one does not love (3,1%). The other three indicators are rather weak, although lying about something seems to be the least discriminating (8,1%). Leaving relatives for a long period of time or breaking the rules are the most discriminating indicators as there are more positive answers to these questions (35,1% and 27,8%).

Overall, counting the number of those who answered “much” and “very much” created an index of the propensity to break rules and social norms. The results show that no one accepted all five indicators, only 1 percent accepted four indicators, 5 percent accepted 3 indicators, 14 percent accepted 2 indicators, 36 percent accepted one indicator and 45 percent rejected all indicators.

In order to determine vulnerability to trafficking, we combined the indicator expressing the first condition (propensity to accept a person’s offer of work abroad) with the index of propensity to break rules. We found that there is a high risk of being trafficked for those young women who might accept a job from an intermediary, (no matter whether that person is trustworthy or not, as this might depend on the victim’s subjective assessment or the trafficker’s ability to manage others’ impressions of him/her) and who are willing to choose at least 2 inappropriate means in order to achieve important goals. We found that there is a moderate risk of being trafficked for young women willing to accept a job from an intermediary and who chose only one illegitimate means to achieve an objective. Finally, there is a low risk of being trafficked for women who either would not accept a job offer or who would not choose any illegitimate means to achieve important goals. The distribution of risk among the three groups is as follows:

High risk	9%
Moderate risk	15%
Low risk	76%

In our analysis, we will consider only the group defined as being at high risk. Even though this group might be over-inclusive, for the purpose of an information campaign it is better to have some non-vulnerable women targeted rather than not targeting enough vulnerable women.

³⁸ Strong indicators are bold.

³⁹ Strong and weak refers here to the percentage of acceptance. If one indicator is accepted by a small percentage, it is statistically considered a strong indicator.

The following analysis will attempt to compare the vulnerable (high risk) group with the average population, in terms of their answers to some questions. The purpose of this is to describe the vulnerable group as portraying relevant characteristics that might be used in an information campaign. We have tried to answer questions such as who are the vulnerable girls in terms of their values, attitudes, and behaviour. What is their family environment like?

2.3.3 Appraisal of vulnerability factors

2.3.3.1 Age and gender

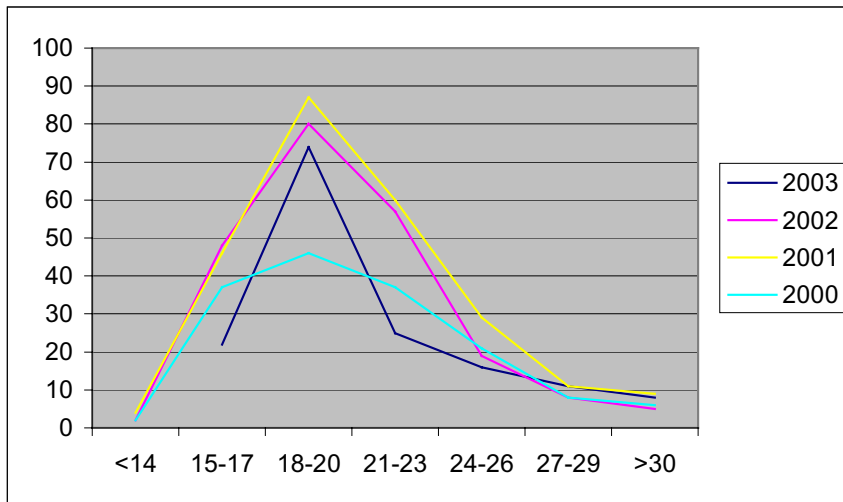
The segmentation of the migration labour market depends on both its demand for low human capital workers and gender specific sectors. It is already a fact that male migrants are mostly employed in the construction or agricultural market and women for nursing, domestic work and in the entertainment sector. Official channels or authorised institutions mostly initiate selection procedures for the first of the previously mentioned labour areas. The last one however is mostly promoted through unofficial channels, misleading ads, "ghost firms". As vulnerable girls do not usually have access to official channels, they will mainly resort either to risky alternatives to get a job or look for a job in the entertainment sector where they can easier be accepted. Surely, the criteria here emphasise less the language knowledge and the medium education requirement and more the physical aspect of the intending migrant and the age criteria; "the younger the better."

Vulnerable girls tend to come from single-parent families and they are aged between 15-25, but with a low risk for the extreme values of the interval (i.e. aged 15, 16, 24, and 25).

Although the figure below cannot account for the whole traffic phenomenon as it refers only to the victims assisted by IOM, one can clearly see the persistence of the same age patterns during the four years considered. One explanation for this might be that it is at this age when women are most likely to resort to innovative strategies such as migration, trusting their individual capacities and not being restrained by family responsibilities. The figures might also indicate that the traffic market is demand driven, the recruiters targeting mainly a certain age category that increases their financial benefits. Other studies have indicated racial characteristics as discriminatory factors on the trafficking market.⁴⁰

⁴⁰ idem 30

Figure 2.2: Distribution by age categories of assisted victims of trafficking



Source IOM

2.3.3.2 Independence and risk tolerance

Describing the vulnerable group in terms of values and attitudes evidences that these **girls are more independent, rather experimental, and prefer incertitude and risk**. It is clear that they do not feel close to the family and do not believe in the family as the most important matter in one’s life. They also do not value education as a means to succeed and they think that more money can justify any job. We have previously showed that vulnerable girls have a high propensity to break rules. These, together with the willingness to choose illegitimate solutions for achieving their goals emphasise the possibility that these girls resort to risky alternatives for leaving the country.

METHODOLOGICAL NOTE: In all tables below the column “all sample” describes the opinions of an average girl aged 15-25, while the column “vulnerable group” describes the opinions of a vulnerable girl aged 15-25 according to the definition of vulnerability. Comparing the figures in the two columns leads to actually comparing a vulnerable girl with an average girl within the same age category.

Table 2.3: Risk aversion and risk acceptance for vulnerable group
Would you ordinarily refer to yourself as a person who ...

	All sample	Vulnerable group
Base: total sample (854)		
Likes adventure and incertitude	26	38
Is rather cautious and conservative	70	61
NA	4	2
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: IMAS, 2003

Vulnerable girls trust their ability to succeed on their own. If leaving abroad, they think that the

only things necessary to succeed are language proficiency or having enough money to rent a flat. Even those stating that it would be good to live with some acquaintances there, count on their own ability to find a job, as they are aware that relatives will not always be willing to help.

Table 2.4: Independence and vulnerability

**To what extent do you agree with the following statements...
percentage for agreement**

Base: total sample (854)	All sample	Vulnerable group
A young girl my age should manage on her own	49	64
Young people should not depend too much on their parents	64	78
It does not matter what you do for work if you can earn a lot of money	16	19
While young, it is good to experiment with as many things as possible	76	89

How difficult do you think it is for a girl like you to succeed in life?

Base: total sample (854)	All sample	Vulnerable group
Very easy/easy	19	26
Difficult/very difficult	79	74

Among the qualities you have, which ones do you think will really help you succeed in life?

(Multiple answers)	All sample	Vulnerable group
My education	65	53
The fact that I am hard working and serious	65	70

Source IMAS

"It is not so perfect there, as relatives do not always help you. (...) They should have enough money to leave and a place to go. When you get there, you only need a place to sleep and something to eat; if you have these, everything is very easy. You do not really need somebody to help you. You can go and look for yourself; you only need to find some job offers."[girl, A.. Pascani]

"[...] by myself I would see to my own business, so I am not afraid. All I need is to be determined and to trust myself. If you are scared however, anything can happen to you." [girl, M. Bucuresti]

"It is our first experience as an adult. We have always lived with our parents. When they are near us they help us whereas when you live abroad you are on your own. It is a kind of test for you."[girl, O. Sighisoara]

Risk taking is fundamental in a hostile environment. The more hostile and disruptive living conditions are, the higher the young women's availability to resort to risky life strategies. We further present below a collection of quotations emphasising the vulnerable girls' attitudes and

values as well as their rationales for choosing to look for a job abroad.

Social innovators. Risk acceptance and independence

“When leaving one has to be prepared to face all sorts of events; one has to take all the risks if wishing to succeed.”(15-18, Iasi)
“Trusting oneself; only this way one can face life and fear nothing.” (15-18 Bucharest)
“While young I can easily take risks; only now do I have this possibility because later I will have responsibilities, a family; after having a child, I cannot take any risks.” (19-25, Bucharest)
“You are by yourself there; it is all a matter of fate. When you get there, you realise that you are alone and you know nothing around you; at first it is difficult to see that you really have no one there, you trust no one, and no one is to be trusted for help.”(19-25, Iasi)

Source: Mercury

A general wish to make money and have success characterises the group of vulnerable girls. The vulnerable girls are more likely to wish for things related to improving their financial situation and success in life. Further questions enforce this conclusion. A job and professional career seem to be important means to achieve this objective, should “a golden” opportunity never come up (33 percent for all sample and 40 percent for vulnerable group).

Table 2.5: Goals in life and vulnerability

If any one of your dreams could come true, which would it be?

(Most frequent answers ...)

	All sample	Vulnerable group
Base: total sample (854)		
I would like to be appreciated for my moral qualities	36	32
I would like to have enough money to buy all that I want	34	37
I would like to be appreciated for my intelligence	17	12
Success in my life	1	5
Health	2	0
To be happy	1	3

What do you most wish for in life?

	All sample	Vulnerable group
Base: total sample (854)		
Job, career	33	40
Family, love	11	8
Happiness	13	18
Health	14	8

Source: IMAS, 2003

There is a greater number of these girls who wish to be happy, as compared with the average 15-25 year old Romanian girl (18 percent for the vulnerable group and only 13 percent for all sample). Vulnerable girls seem to be more optimistic than the average girl about their success in

life and they count more on their hard working style (70 percent) and less on education (53 percent).

It seems that vulnerable girls are more likely to fear death (28 percent as compared to 22 percent) and professional failure (14 percent as compared to 19 percent). Also, the fact that the most unpleasant event that has happened to them at this point in their life usually refers to emotional stress (31 percent) might be a sign of the hostile environment in which they live, whether the family or community environment.

Apparently, the family that should have been an important protection factor against the vulnerability to traffic has actually offered the appropriate circumstances for the girls' wish to resort to rapid and risky migration strategies. The fact that they wish to be happy and their fearing of emotional stress and death may reveal the lack of a supportive family environment. This has also engendered their willingness to count on their own abilities to succeed and to be suspicious of the relatives' help.

2.3.3.3 Education and success on the labour market

Education should be considered an important individual factor influencing vulnerability. As a socialisation institution, its purpose is twofold: first it shapes the first professional abilities necessary in a competitive labour market; second it is a control institution imposing specific rules and norms, contributing to people's social integration and enticing the forming of group affiliation. In this context, it is obvious that the higher the degree of education and the longer the period spent in school the more it constitutes a protection factor for vulnerability to trafficking.

The vulnerable girls view education as a useless strategy for succeeding in life. Focus group discussions with this category revealed that studying is not seen as a means of achieving a higher position in Romania. They find it hopeless to try to get a job based on their previous university training because an important criterion for the employers is past experience. Moreover, should the girls with a university degree try to get a job, they encounter problems other than mere lack of experience; they usually need to know the right person who can help them get hired or who has the money to pay to get them hired. As first experiences on the labour market in Romania are for many of them traumatic, working abroad is likely to be more attractive.

"Well, she is firstly interested in the money she can make there. I met people here who could not find a job in spite of their university degree. I heard that no matter the profession you are trained for, be it a lawyer or a notary, you either need a lot of money or a relationship with the right person if you want to get a job. You also hear how much money others make abroad..."[girl, R. Bucuresti]

"Some girls have only graduated from high school or have recently finished a professional school so they can only work in a shop or factory where they are poorly paid. Therefore they try to find a contract abroad and go there to work..." [girl, A Sighisoara]

This might reveal a part of the corruption problem endemic to Romania. Rarely are vulnerable girls hired and when they are, their salaries are unsatisfying. The younger girls who have not

yet graduated from high school or those with a baccalaureate diploma also find it difficult to get hired as the Romanian labour market has a high job deficit. The wages for the jobs they would be able to perform are awfully low, which leads the girls to consider that working in the country is not worth it if they want to have a better future and be able to manage by themselves.

This pessimistic view regarding the spending of time and money for studying might be a factor in the girls' decisions to interrupt their studies in order to get a job abroad even though it might be below their training. Young people feel frustrated to see that their study efforts have been in vain, when somebody performing a low wage job abroad makes a whole lot of money.

"In Romania you need a diploma in order to find a job whereas you can always work abroad even though you are only 15 or 16 years old. If you have a relative there or if you know somebody there they will definitely help you."[girl, R. Pascani]

"Well, what is the point of university when after you invest money for studying; doors are shut right in your face? You need to have a lot of patience if you really want to get a job here and you need to try in various places. It is different if you know someone abroad and my guess is that everybody does..."[girl, D. Pascani]

It seems that families with vulnerable girls vary in some respects. Data show that the parents of these girls are paying attention to their daughters' education, but there are some discrepancies in terms of the usual amount of time spent with children. Some are spending between 3-6 hours a day (45%), while others spend 10 hours or more (15%), which probably creates a sense of dependence and a restrictive environment.

The main reasons indicated for vulnerable girls not attending classes were because their families push them to work for domestic purposes (24%) or because these families think that education is not worthwhile (9%). These families with vulnerable girls appeared to rank education lower than other families with vulnerable girls who gave reasons such as the children being too tired (13%) or not having done their homework (15%). As reasons for their not attending school it seems that within the group of vulnerable girls there is a large sub-category of parents who ignore education and their children's performance in school. As compared with the average household, there are more families with vulnerable girls who neglect going to school except for parents' meetings (38%), if at all (18%).

Table 2.6: Parents watching vulnerable girls' education

How much time do you usually spend with your child/children (children aged between 15 and 18 years) every day? (hours)

Base: total sample (854)		All sample	Vulnerable group
Valid	0-2 hours	9	8
	3-6 hours	36	45
	7-10 hours	23	12
	10 hours+	8	15

Why does your child sometimes skip classes/not go to school? (multiple answers)

	All sample	Vulnerable group
I send him / her to work, to bring money for the family	8	24
He / she did not do his / her homework	4	13
We consider him / her too tired to go	3	15
School (education) serves for nothing nowadays	2	9

During the last school year how often have you been to school to ask about your child's situation?

	All sample	Vulnerable group
Base: total sample (854)		
Only for the parents meetings	30	38
Never	10	14

Source: IMAS, 2003

Previous traffic case studies supported the same findings. On the one hand, when imposing a highly restrictive environment, parents have often contributed to the girls' decision to interrupt school. On the other hand, there are cases when family members compel the girl to work instead of going to school.

"What grade were you in when you interrupted school?"

I was in the eleventh form and I only attended school during the first semester.

What happened then?

My parents forbade me to go out [...] I started to skip classes... Hang around in bars...

[...] It was their fault because I knew they would not allow me. So, I would not go to school."[Anne, Pitesti]

"Why have you decided to interrupt school?"

After secondary school my grandfather did not allow me to attend the graduation exam session. He said there was no need for me to go to school and that I would make more money if toiling the land."[Bianca, Pitesti]

Source ICCV

Focus groups revealed parents viewing education as a useless alternative for succeeding in life. It was deemed to be worthless in terms of appropriate strategy for obtaining a job. This leads to seeing any possible investment in achieving a higher level of knowledge as a waste of time and money. Parents of vulnerable girls think that if a girl finds a job here, it is likely that the salary will be below her expectations or that the job will not correspond with her training. This does not necessarily mean that all parents of vulnerable girls would advise their children not to go to school or to disregard their studies, but the pessimistic view is certainly creating a higher incentive for them to leave and to seek other possibilities for success.

"There are no jobs here. Girls having a baccalaureate diploma and those graduating from high school or from college will still have no jobs."[parent, L. Bucuresti]

"Salaries are awfully low even for those who have a university degree." [parent, E. Bucuresti]

"My elder daughter graduated from the journalism university. Three years ago while working at a newspaper named Adevarul in Cluj, she had a 2 000 000 lei salary and we still had to help her (...). It is unacceptable that her studying and hard work were not enough for her to be able to provide for herself here". [parent, M. Sighisoara]

2.3.3.4 Family environment

It is apparent that in families with vulnerable girls, there are different views about the education of boys and girls. This might give a sense of gender discrimination although the data do not support this.⁴¹ However it is obvious from the data that the parents of vulnerable girls pay little attention to the girls' intimate problems. There is a higher probability that these parents do not know whether their daughter has a boyfriend or not. There also seems to be a lack of communication between the parents and daughters regarding the girls' intimate problems. More families with vulnerable girls provided answers such as "we don't talk with our daughter about her problems" (39 percent as compared with 23 percent for average families) or "we seldom or never discuss sexual issues or intimate problems" (23 percent as compared to 13 percent for average families). It also appears that parents impose no specific restrictions on the whereabouts of their vulnerable daughters (e.g. bars, discos, restaurants). This might also evidence parents neglecting.

Table 2.7: Parents-children relationship and vulnerability

Do you believe that...

Base: total sample (854)	All sample	Vulnerable group
Boys and girls should be similarly educated	54	49
Boys and girls should be differently educated	44	49
NA	2	2
Total	100	100

How often do you or your husband talk to your daughter/daughters about her/their intimate life (e.g. problems related to her sexual relations)

Base: total sample (854)	All sample	Vulnerable group
Very seldom / never	13	23
Seldom	27	28
Often	42	39
Very often	17	9
Total	100	100

Source: IMAS, 2003

The lack of communication between parents and their vulnerable daughters is confirmed by the

⁴¹ The survey did not include indicators testing the gender discrimination hypothesis; the indicator here ("boys and girls should be differently educated") is rather weak for such a conclusion but it does reveal a difference in parents' expectations for the two gender categories.

interviews with the young women respondents. It appears that they are more prone than their average cohorts to talk to a friend about something important rather than to their parents and relatives (30 percent of the vulnerable girls, 16 percent average girls). This split from family is a factor that might diminish the parental control and which also feeds the sense of isolation and lack of affection that the girls feel.

It is rather difficult to assess the parents' caring attitude from the focus groups statements. When asked what their daughters should do in order to avoid being trapped in a trafficking network, the parents of vulnerable girls mainly expressed their wish that their girl be good, honest, serious, hard working, and cautious. This might lead to the conclusion that these parents care about their children's well being abroad. We should not ignore, however, that this question easily generates desirable answers. A more appropriate measure of the parents' caring attitude would be their refusal to let their daughter resort to a risky migration strategy or their wish that she remains at home if no viable secure means of leaving is possible.

"If I were not able to ask the help of a sister or of a daughter-in-law whom I could trust, I would not let my daughter live in Italy or Spain. I would by no means ask the help of a friend I once had a coffee with or smoked a cigarette with because she might very well promise to help my kid and later let her in the street. I would not count on anybody. (...) I would only trust a very close friend, somebody who helped me in the past or whom I helped and who cannot refuse me now. Otherwise, I would never send her abroad. I would tell her: "Bad as it may seem to you, you should stay here near your mother until everything is better." [parent, E. Pascani]

Questions about family abuse and domestic violence are always a sensitive issue to put in questionnaires. However, the small figures and intensity or frequency of these events could be interpreted as under-reported or purposely downgraded. In families with vulnerable girls there are signs of abuse, even though they are not immediately obvious; there are reported arguments between husband and wife (48%), reported arguments about the children's school performance (44%), and some verbal offences (8%). Physical violence appears to be significantly more intense in families with vulnerable girls (7% of the parents of vulnerable girls report to have physically abused their children in comparison with only 2.2% of the average parents). The data also indicate that there is a higher probability that vulnerable girls come from single-parent families (8%).

When comparing the figures on family abuse and violence as reflected in the interviews with vulnerable girls, it seems that the findings are consistent with the parents' reports. Even though this is a sensitive issue to talk about with the interviewer, which actually makes one suspect under-reporting, there are differences in the experiences of vulnerable girls as compared with the average 15-25 year old girls living with their families. In almost all listed examples of family abuse and domestic violence, the number of vulnerable girls answering „yes“ was almost double the average percentages. This means that they live in hostile family environments, which might explain their sense of isolation and strong desire to move. This lack of integration can make them even more vulnerable when evil people try to take advantage of their situation.

Table 2.8: Domestic violence and vulnerability (parents perspective)

How often...		All sample	Vulnerable group
Do you have an argument with your wife / husband?	Seldom/very seldom	66	64
	Often/very often	18	16
You had an argument with your child(ren) because they obtained some bad marks / unsatisfactory results at school	Seldom/very seldom	76	80
	Often/very often	17	13
You had a serious argument with your adult children because they don't have a job	Seldom/very seldom	58	44
	Often/very often	6	10
You beat or physically punish your child(ren) for some reason	Seldom/very seldom	93	92
	Often/very often	2	7
You offended your child(ren) when you did not agree with something he / she said	Seldom/very seldom	93	93
	Often/very often	3	4

Source: IMAS, 2003

A case study with a returned victim of trafficking will better illustrate the domestic environment contributing to traffic vulnerability. The intense emotional stress and physical abuse increase the young women's availability to accept risky alternatives that might allow them to escape the harsh conditions at home and to manage by themselves.

"I left home because my parents imposed me some very restrictive conditions; I was forbidden to go out with boys. [...] I was not allowed to meet boys or to go to disco... It was like a routine programme: school-back home [...]"

What happened when you were little girl?

Well, my father used to beat my mother.

[...] Was he also hitting you?

Yes. He would come drunk at home all the time. [...] I remember he hanged me on the hallstand. [...] He left me there until a neighbour came and helped me down. I could have died there. [...] I think was 6 or 7 years old by then." [Anne, Pitesti]

Source ICCV

Family environment in an important push factor when considering the girls' decision to migrate. However, it is impossible to evaluate its prediction capability while ignoring other relevant environmental factors. Migration is a gradual decision often reached only after other alternatives have proved to be unsuccessful. The short-term solutions such as leaving home or staying at a friend's house are usually the first trials of escaping a hostile environment. Should this alternative prove to be viable we may assume that there is a lower possibility that these girls become trapped in a traffic network. Nonetheless, as some of them leave home at an early age,

their possibilities of success are low; the fact that they interrupt studies and the lack of professional experience places them in another hostile environment, which may finally become a stronger push factor for a risky migration strategy.

Table 2.9: Domestic violence and vulnerability (children perspective)

Has one of the following events ever happened to you? Percentage of positive answers

Base: total sample (854)	All sample	Vulnerable group
Having to leave home because your parents were having a serious argument or hitting each other	8	11
Having to leave home because your parents were having an argument with you / were hitting you	6	8
Having to miss school for more than a week because your parents wanted you to work at home	2	5
Having to leave the home region by yourself for a long period of time (for example 2 weeks or more) without your parents' agreement	3	6
Having to live at a friend' s house or with another relative because you did not want to stay with your parents anymore	3	6
Having to witness your parents' arguments / fights	19	29

Source IMAS, 2003

2.3.3.5 Material capital and subjective poverty

The lack of money is generally considered one of the most important push factors for migration. Nevertheless, empirical data show that intending migrants do not usually have a very low financial status. It is interesting to note that in terms of an objective measurement of income there is no difference between families with vulnerable girls and the average household. This means that the hypothesis of an objectively poor environment as a characteristic of vulnerability should be rejected. The only significant difference in objective measurement of income is the sources of income. Here it seems that vulnerable girls come from households where the main source of income is a pension (34 percent of vulnerable girls compared with 25 percent of average household). That might be more indicative of the family structure; it is likely that there are more vulnerable girls from families with an elder or retired person.

The subjective measurement of wealth does differ between the average family and the families of vulnerable girls. It seems that the parents of vulnerable girls are more likely to perceive their current financial situation as unsatisfactory (30 percent as compared with 21.5 percent).

In terms of basic consumption behaviour, data support the hypothesis that the families of vulnerable girls are not extremely poor but they do have a difficult time maintaining a decent standard of living. One can see, for instance, that more families of vulnerable girls reported a shortage of money for daily shopping (40 percent as compared with 32 percent) and were unable to afford to buy children what they want (40 percent as compared with 35 percent).

However, they could afford basic goods and sometimes bought clothes from a second-hand shop. When compared with the families of non-vulnerable girls, there was a significant difference in the number of families with vulnerable girls that reported not having enough money for food (42 percent as compared with 36 percent) or having to buy things on credit (59 percent as compared with 51 percent).

Table 2.10: Income and vulnerability

Including all of these sources, could you please estimate the total value of your household income in April? (thousand lei)

	All sample	Vulnerable group
Mean per capita (thousand lei)	1,288	1,290
Mean	4,904	4,865
25% of income group	2,100	2,500
50% of income group	4,000	4,000
75% of income group	7,000	6,000

How satisfied are you with your current financial situation?

	All sample	Vulnerable group
Base: total sample (854)		
Not satisfied at all	22	30
Not very satisfied	47	43
Quite satisfied	29	24
Very satisfied	2	3

Source: IMAS, 2003

Like their parents, vulnerable girls perceive the family financial situation as rather poor. As we could see in the objective measures above, there was no statistical difference between the money that households with vulnerable girls make in one month and the average household's figures, which means that it is more of an aspiration for higher standards than objective poverty, which differs between the two.

When asked to evaluate the financial situation of their family more vulnerable girls considered it was "quite bad" (18 percent in comparison with the average girls which was at 10 percent). Given their independence and sense of doing things on one's own, the vulnerable ones more often think that they should make more money to help their family (35 percent vulnerable girls versus 27 percent all sample).

While the vulnerable girls live with their families, some also have office mates and a job environment that influence their lives. However, it seems that they have jobs they do not like and they are not satisfied with the money they get.⁴² This might explain their strong wish to seek a job abroad. The main reasons are related to the job itself and the money they earn (9 percent are not satisfied with the job in comparison with 3 percent of the average girls). They

⁴² One of the main push factors for intending migrants is based on economic reasons, Massey et al. (1993).

are, however, pleased with the physical conditions of their work, their colleagues and their employer.

Table 2.11: Job satisfaction and vulnerability

For the girls who have a job ... how satisfied are you with the following aspects of your job?

		All sample	Vulnerable group
The physical conditions of your work	Very unsatisfied/unsatisfied	3	4
	Satisfied/very satisfied	10	13
The money / salary you are given	Very unsatisfied/unsatisfied	7	14
	Satisfied/very satisfied	6	3
The relations with your colleagues	Very unsatisfied/unsatisfied	2	3
	Satisfied/very satisfied	11	12
The relations with your boss / employer	Very unsatisfied/unsatisfied	8	4
	Satisfied/very satisfied	11	13
The job you have	Very unsatisfied/unsatisfied	9	9
	Satisfied/very satisfied	10	8

Source: IMAS, 2003

2.3.3.6 Social integration

There are different amounts of social integration between the vulnerable and non-vulnerable girls. This refers e.g. to having a boyfriend or a circle of friends to go out with and with whom the girls share similar values; there is no statistical difference between the two groups. Communicating and having fun are the most important things among the group of friends. There is a significant difference, however, in terms of the softer aspects of social integration.

There are more vulnerable girls who reported having felt abandoned by the people around them (50 percent vulnerable, 38 percent average) or that life is not worth living (50 percent vulnerable, 30 percent all sample). Given that the percentages are higher for this category, this might be a factor of instability and vulnerability. It is interesting to note here that vulnerable girls do not have a very close relationship with the Church they belong to. As compared with their average counterparts, more vulnerable girls reported not having a religious confessor (55 percent vulnerable, 39 percent all sample).

Table 2.12: Social and emotional environment and vulnerability

Base: total sample (854)	All sample	Vulnerable group
Do you have a boyfriend?	53	56
During the last year have you ever felt abandoned by the people around you?	38	50
During the last year have you ever felt that life is not worth living?	30	50
Is there a group of friends or colleagues you are a part of?	87	91
Is there a priest you usually go to for confession?	61	45

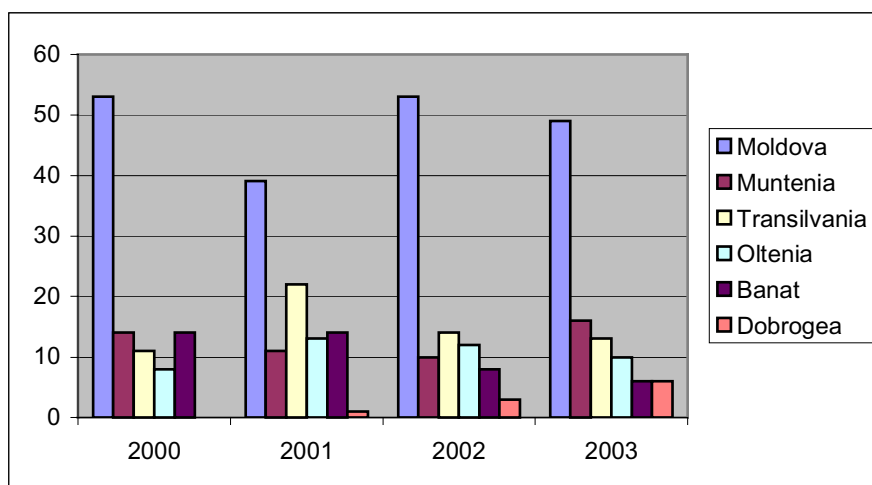
Source: IMAS, 2003

There is a high probability for young Roma women to be vulnerable to trafficking. Roma ethnics experience a very low degree of integration in the society. Also, unemployment and interrupted studies account for a significant increase in the vulnerability factors. These groups are socially isolated and opportunities to better their situation are scarce due to the structural characteristics of the subject society. The patterns of segregation associated with these groups are likely to remain stable in the future due to both individual factors -ethnic origin and education- and structural characteristics such as 10% of unemployment. Those having a job usually work in a private company.

2.3.3.7 Regional profile

In terms of regional profile, most of the vulnerable girls come from Moldova and Transylvania regions. The Moldovan County is exemplary for its poverty niches (especially the Eastern part); the living conditions are harsh and the lack of opportunities constrains people -especially the elders- to adopt survival strategies, hardly succeeding to make both ends meet. The younger population would rather resort to inner or international migration. The figure below shows the high discrepancies between Moldova and the other regions.

Figure 2.3: Cases assisted by IOM by region of origin



Source IOM

The common perception on trafficking origins would indicate young women residing in rural areas as the most vulnerable category to traffic situations. Data from IOM plainly reject this “conventional wisdom”. The 25 Romanian victims assisted by IOM Pristina during February 2000 to February 2001 were from the urban area or from the capital city.⁴³ The primary data of this research indicated similar patterns. Vulnerable girls are mainly coming from medium-sized towns with 30-100,000 inhabitants. These urban areas are characterised by a lower degree of social control than small communities (cities under 30 000 inhabitants or villages). Also opportunities of success are here submitted to more severe competition rules. By contrast, in smaller communities as well as in certain villages, breaking community norms is less likely. Various sanctions discourage life strategies not accepted by the community. A case study conducted in Bosanci⁴⁴ in 2000 indicates that in communities with migration history, the social networks bridging the origin and the destination sectors constitute a prevention factor against traffic. Intending migrants only resort to safe channels while the community back home closely supervises the successes or failures of their acquaintances.

“It has never happened that any of the girls here in Bosanci be deceived and forced to prostitute abroad... It is all well organised... Those who left headed for the Bosanci villagers there. Girls who leave are by no means alone there, which is good...We know here the troubles and the joys of those there and they know when we have problems here, when somebody dies or gets married... They get in touch with their family all the time.”[pastor Bosanci]

Source ICCV

2.3.4 Migration and vulnerability

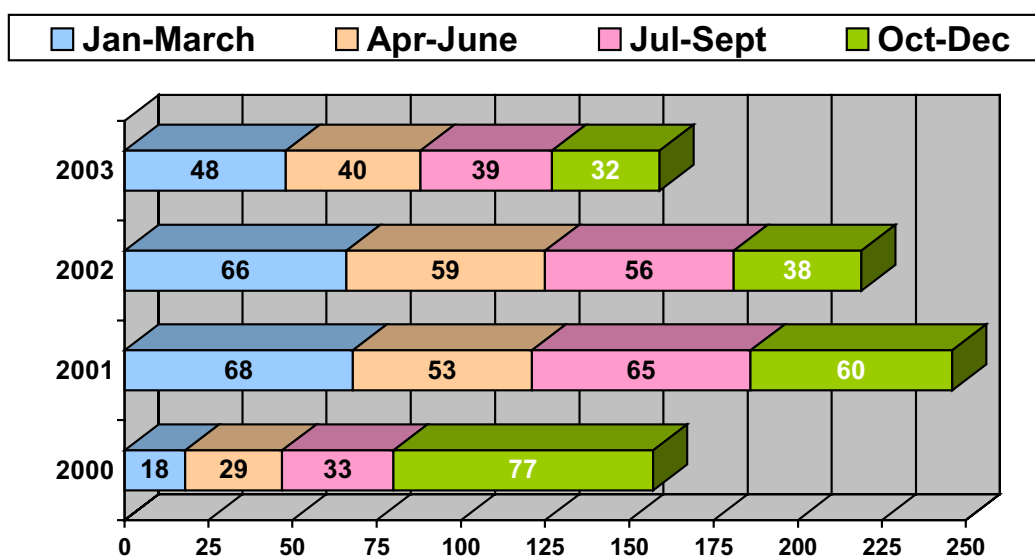
The same push factors are operating in the case of trafficked women as in the case of migrant workers. Most women being trapped in a traffic network have no access to official channels of obtaining a job overseas due to their low human capital. Restrictive conditions for obtaining a job abroad generally push intending migrants to resort to informal networks for emigrating,

⁴³ Trafficking in migrants, Quarterly Bulletin, IOM No 23, April 2001.

⁴⁴ Romanian village with a high migration potential.

which makes them more vulnerable to traffic situations. The number of Romanian victims of trafficking is likely to drop as soon as more legal opportunities to work abroad will be available. The figure below shows that number of assisted victims has already started to decrease after a climax in 2001. This might be a result of the lifting of the visa restrictions at the beginning of 2002.

Figure 2.4: Lifting of visa restrictions



Source IOM

2.3.4.1 Risky migration schemes

The choosing of a formal or informal network to act as an intermediary for their migration strategy is also related to the vulnerable group's attitude towards risks or to their trusting behaviour. Sometimes trusting is not an exclusive condition; the girl might make a rational choice while balancing the costs of staying in the country against those involved if leaving. Should the former be too high in comparison to the latter vulnerable women are very likely to ignore the risks even when they are aware of them.

There is a general tendency among vulnerable girls to avoid official channels to find a job. Instead, they call on friends, acquaintances (31 percent), and relatives (11 percent) for help. From the table below it seems that there is high probability for vulnerable women not to use the labour office, job advertisements or even direct contact with employers, but rather to use informal connections and recommendations from other people (11 percent prefer to ask a relative for help, 31 percent to ask help from a friend in comparison with the 8 percent and 24 percent non-vulnerable girls who would do the same thing). This general tendency might be risky for these girls as they might be offered a job abroad from a trafficker or recruiter.

Table 2.13: Strategies to find a job and vulnerability

What do you generally think is the best thing to do when you want to find a job?

Base: total sample (854)	All sample	Vulnerable group
To read the job offers in the newspaper	13	14
To go to the labour office	24	18
To ask a relative for help	8	11
To go straight to the employer and ask him to help you	13	14
To go to a labour agency	10	11
To ask help from one of the people I know / one of my friends	24	31

Source: IMAS, 2003

Focus groups also supported the conclusion that vulnerable girls tend to resort more often to the help of a relative or acquaintance in order to go abroad. They showed that these girls would rather use informal networks for migrating rather than the services of an institution or an agency. Media reports on trafficking or previous migration experiences in the family are partly responsible for the vulnerable women's lack of trust in firms. They have either seen media reports accusing firms of trafficking in human beings or they have heard of someone who was tricked by the very firm he/she negotiated the labour contract with.

"One cannot always trust agencies as many bad things are related to their activity. It is useless to deny it, I have seen it on TV."[girl, Sighisoara]

"My father resorted to an agency for leaving. He signed the contract and worked in Germany for 6 months. When he came back the firm disregarded the provisions specified in the contract and did not pay him the entire amount of money. Moreover, the family should have been given the minimum salary each month and we did not get this money. We sued the firm but it was later ruined so we lost the money..."[girl, O. Sighisoara]

"I have friends who went to their friends abroad; they helped them; they sent them money to have a passport made and to have enough resources for leaving." [girl, A. Pascani]

"I would leave if I knew someone who lives there and who comes to Romania for a while; I would leave with her/him when she/he goes back. This way we would be certain that we are in good hands."[girl, R. Pascani]

"I went to a travel agency but I was asked for too much money and I did not actually trust them. I was supposed to be hired as a dealer in a casino but they checked my hands and legs to see how I looked. I did not like this attitude and I gave up (...). We have some family friends who left for Germany many years ago; they come and visit us twice a year and they suggested that we should go there."[girl, R Sighisoara]

Interviewed women consider those who left for jobs abroad as models of success and as trustworthy sources of information. The people most girls expect help from are not recent acquaintances but rather relatives or friends they trust, which lowers the possibility that they might think they are part of a trafficking network. They are willing to accept a job offer coming from these people. Their leaving through this informal network is also considered an easier way to have lodging and food for the period before they find a job. The Ministry of Labour and Social Solidarity is hardly deemed a viable alternative for leaving. This might either be a consequence of a lack of information or of a preference to resort to informal channels due to the age, language, study, and experience criteria required to legally performing certain jobs abroad.

As compared to the average girls, vulnerable girls would prefer to stay abroad than to come back (34 percent). Even though a majority of them would rather come back, there is a higher probability in the case of vulnerable girls that they will emigrate for good. They would also prefer to use a contact abroad in order to find a job in a foreign country (41 percent). They prefer to use personal connections rather than formal channels in order to get what they want.

Table 2.14: Migration and job seeking strategies and vulnerability

If you left to work abroad...

Base: respondents who would leave to work abroad (647)	All sample	Vulnerable group
Would you think of staying there for good?	21	34
Would you work for a while and then come back?	73	62

If you were to go abroad, whom would you prefer to ask for help?

Base: respondents who would leave to work abroad (647)	All sample	Vulnerable group
A person living in Romania	38	29
A person living abroad	27	41
A contracting firm	21	22
It does not matter	10	7

Source: IMAS, 2003

Unlike the survey, the focus groups revealed a preference for circulatory migration. This might be a result of the fact that some of the interviewed persons did not come from an abusive family, or of the intention to leave to make money and buy a house here in Romania, or of their wish to help their family.

"They might stay there for a longer period but in the end they would come back because the money they make there means much more back in Romania. They want to have a better life here and they go abroad only so as to make some money."[girl, A. Pascani]

"I would not like to go abroad because my family is here. (...) I would go however, but only to work for a while and come back. I would not stay there. Maybe I would find it satisfying. I have a cousin who leaves to Spain, to Greece; she travelled a lot but she never stayed there. Life is different here and all the family is here."[girl, A. Sighisoara]

When asked about the institutions or other actors the youth should appeal to if wanting to leave, parents named: the Ministry of Labour and Social Solidarity; a labour mediating agency deemed to be trustworthy due to other migrants' success stories; and one of their relatives or acquaintances. Parents know that the last of these alternatives can be deceiving but they strongly believe they have the capacity to differentiate between a trustworthy person and a possible recruiter. We would like to emphasise again that this attitude is risky and raises the vulnerability of the girls as it is related to the parents' subjective evaluation or to the recruiter's ability to manage other's impressions of him/her.

The empirical data we have presented up to this moment clearly show that the vulnerable group favours an intermediary to leave the country in the person of a relative or an acquaintance. Parents trust the same mean. The development of migration networks is usually seen as a positive factor. Mostly, when these ties include family or friends they are beneficial for the girls' arrival in a completely new environment offering housing and employment. However, it is a fact that many of the young women resorting to such a mean for leaving become vulnerable to trafficking. The girls' or the parents' ability to consider such a network as being secure is often unreliable.

One of the most important factors increasing the girls/migrants' vulnerability is their resorting to illegal migration strategies⁴⁵. It seems to be a strong association between this and the restrictive migration policies. The more restrictive the migration policies the more will the strength of such networks increase⁴⁶ as well as the intending migrant propensity to resort to such an alternative for leaving. The underground market will create a prolific environment for the exploitation of migrants, whose lack of money and indebtedness to the trafficker adding to their being under physical or psychological menace restrain their possibilities of escape. In addition to the consequences of prohibitive legislation on the thriving of migration networks in general and of trafficking networks in particular, there is another view suggesting that it is the inappropriate and lax anti-trafficking legislation as well as the porous borders that create facilitating conditions for this "business."⁴⁷ The debate on which approach explains in the most comprehensible manner the emergence of the black migration market has not yet reached a satisfactory conclusion. However, it should not be ignored that one or both of this factors are among the resorts of the illegitimate forms of migration generating an endangering environment for the mobile population.

2.3.4.2 Migration prerequisites

In order to assess the girls' level of knowledge and information about travelling abroad, the questionnaire included some "true/false" questions. It tested the young women's knowledge about leaving the country, the types of documents one needs, and the legal conditions of travelling and staying abroad. By large, everyone knew that crossing the border requires a passport. However most of the girls thought that a passport could only be issued to adults (60 percent all sample, 50 percent vulnerable group). Vulnerable girls were a little bit more informed on this matter. Thinking that only adults are entitled to a passport might put some girls at high risk as many traffickers justify illegally crossing the border by stating that a person under 18 cannot hold a passport.

⁴⁵ Koser, K.: *Asylum Policies, Traffic and Vulnerability*, IOM, 2000

⁴⁶ Massey, S,D, et al. 1993

⁴⁷ Salt, J.: *Trafficking and Human Smuggling. An European Perspective*, IOM, 2000

Table 2.15: Knowledge of migration issues and vulnerability

Now I will read you a few statements. Please tell me whether you think they are true or false?

		All sample	Vulnerable group
One needs a passport in order to cross the Romanian border	TRUE	99	99
	FALSE	1	1
Only Romanian citizens over 18 can have a passport	TRUE	43	38
	FALSE	50	60
Romanian citizens need a visa in order to travel to the European states (with the exception of Great Britain)	TRUE	50	50
	FALSE	38	45
One can legally remain as a tourist in one of the European countries for a six month period	TRUE	27	29
	FALSE	45	46
One needs a labour contract in order to legally work in a foreign country.	TRUE	89	90
	FALSE	6	3

Source: IMAS, 2003

The majority of Romanian girls think they need a visa to get to an EU country, but again, the vulnerable girls are a bit more informed on this matter. There is good knowledge of the legal conditions for working abroad, 90 percent being aware of the fact that one needs a labour contract in order to legally work in a foreign country, but poor information about the legal period for staying abroad as a tourist. 46 percent of the vulnerable girls consider that one can legally remain as a tourist in one of the European countries for a six-months period. By and large, vulnerable girls are better informed about the conditions of travelling, which might be a protection factor. It is clear that their intense desire to go to foreign countries made them search for more information. Nonetheless, not all vulnerable girls have the same level of information, which exposes them to even higher risks.

2.3.4.3 Migration plans and experiences

As for migration plans and experiences, most of the answers revealed a strong desire to seek work in a foreign country (73%). It is in a foreign country where they envision themselves succeeding. They would even prefer to go abroad if faced with a similar job offer in Romania (76%). The main reason they would choose the job abroad is related to money.

Table 2.16: Migration abroad and vulnerability

Where do you think it is easier for a young girl like you to succeed in life?

	All sample	Vulnerable group
Base: total sample (854)		
Here, in this county	23	6
In another county of Romania	30	18
Somewhere abroad	39	73

If you were to choose between a job here in Romania and a job in a European country, which one would you choose ?

	All sample	Vulnerable group
Base: total sample (854)		
The job in Romania	42	11
The job abroad	45	76
It depends on the job (not to be read)	11	11

Source: IMAS, 2003

Girls participating in the focus group discussions also specified money as a main reason for choosing to leave. The job deficit in the labour market, the worthlessness of investing in education, the low salaries, the hopeless attitude regarding the possibility of having a better life and future in Romania, all lead to perceiving almost any foreign country as offering more opportunities. It seems that for the vulnerable girls, the magic of abroad as a land of "milk and honey" is still a pull factor.

"One can make three times more money than here. A year's money here can easily be earned there during one month."[girl, C. Bucuresti]

"I think it is for the money that they leave. They have awfully low salaries therefore they choose to leave. There might be young people who would like to go to college but they do not have money to. Everything is expensive here and the payments are low. It is only normal for them to leave when they first get the chance. They borrow some money, have a passport made, see to all other things they might need and then they leave. When they come back, they might come with some money. Anyway it depends on how they manage there; it is even better for them to have relatives there."[girl, A. Pascani]

"Some girls have only graduated from high school or from a professional school. They can get a job in a shop or factory but they will have low salaries. Thus, they sign a labour contract and go to work abroad. Those who want, stay there for good, but the ones who do not get used to living there come back. With the money they made there they buy a flat."[girl, A. Sighisoara]

The most favoured destinations for working abroad are Italy (17 percent), Germany (14 percent), France (10 percent), and the USA (15 percent). It is likely that these vulnerable girls would prefer any country, so long as it is abroad (14 percent). The specified destinations are the usual destinations Romanian young people dream of and some of them are actual favourite

destinations for some regions of the country.⁴⁸ The fact that they would accept any other country is another indicator of their wish to go abroad, which might be harmful to their ability to safely choose and analyse situations of recruitment.

It seems that the difference between vulnerable girls and non-vulnerable girls looking for a job abroad is that the former are more oriented to low skilled jobs, which means that either they want to leave very soon and do not complete their education or they completed school and do not wish for more than the degree they have. A successful migration strategy is influenced by the nature of the job abroad: the lower the human capital required for performing a certain job the higher the probability that the migration strategy fails and the migrant become trapped in a traffic network. It is more likely that vulnerable girls already have a connection abroad (84 percent), one that might serve as model of success (94 percent). His or her story could be considered a pull factor for migration. It is not just an acquaintance working abroad, but someone who the vulnerable girls view as a successful migrant.

Any job abroad is seen as satisfying. It is not what they do abroad that is important but rather the money they can make. Their preference for low wage jobs might be explained by the fact that they are aware of the possibilities of working abroad. The naming of a few jobs requiring higher skills is mainly because they associate these jobs with the possibility of earning a lot of money. However, it might also be a result of the fact that among the vulnerable girls, some are not very well informed about the labour market abroad. Both of these are factors that raise their vulnerability to trafficking if offered a job abroad. Anything is seen as better than staying in Romania and they often leave without any arrangements, assuming the risks involved.

"I do not believe they really know [what job they will have abroad]. I know many cases [...]. They leave without any arrangements and they try to find something there. It is all right like this too."[girl, A. Pascani]

"If one is desperate and needs money one is willing to do any job. Well maybe I would not work as a dancing girl or something similar, but I would do any decent job that will not make me feel ashamed."[girl, D. Sighisoara]

Parents are aware about the jobs their daughters might perform abroad. They mainly named low wage jobs such as babysitters, nurses, and waitresses. However some parents seem to have higher expectations from their girls if they leave; they would like them to be journalists, public notaries, or vets. This might be the result of a preference for naming jobs involving a higher status, or because the interviewed parents have not paid much attention to the subject of leaving. Information about what a girl should do in order to better manage abroad is rather scarce. Parents indicate knowing the language as a primary condition.

Another push factor is the parents' desire that their girls leave to work abroad. The family might persuade the girl to migrate by constantly telling her about how other girls have managed to make money abroad. Not only abusive family environments influence the girls' decisions to leave. It is also very likely that parents convince their daughters to leave because they think migration is a viable strategy for succeeding.

⁴⁸ Diminescu, Lazaroiu 2001

"Even though I know very well that I can face the same dangers here as abroad, I am afraid to leave. For years, my mother has been telling me to go and work abroad as a babysitter but I do not want to go. (...) My mother is always telling me: Look, I have some colleagues who went abroad so as to make some money. When they returned home to their parents, they were very pleased. They might not be so satisfied but they phone their parents and complain..."[girl, A. Sighisoara]

It is most likely that vulnerable girls have already been contacted by someone from abroad (42%) and that they have decided (52%) or are about to make a positive decision in the short term to go abroad (33%).

Table 2.17: Migration experience and vulnerability

Has someone abroad proposed that you go to work abroad too?

Base: respondents who have a close friend / relative who left to work abroad (619)	All sample	Vulnerable group
Yes	28	42
No	72	58

If "yes", have you considered accepting or rejecting the job offer?

Base: respondents who had a proposal to go to work abroad (174)	All sample	Vulnerable group
I thought about accepting it	42	52
I thought about rejecting it	35	16
I thought it over but I have not yet reached a conclusion	21	33

Source: IMAS, 2003

The parents who were interviewed during the focus groups stated three main reasons for girls leaving to work abroad: first there is a strong tendency to blame the system's deficiencies; second is the girls' desire to prove that they can manage by themselves; and third is the youth's irresponsibility or naivety. It is the victim who is usually blamed when migration for work turns into failed circulatory migration and girls are recruited for prostitution. We will further analyse these considerations.

Parents of vulnerable girls view Romania as a country where there is no possibility of succeeding. The lack of jobs, the low salaries, the view of education as a useless strategy for achieving a high status and a good revenue, the requirement that young people have experience for the job they apply for, the extreme poverty leading to highly pessimistic visions of Romania as a country where people are starving, have all been identified as factors leading to the girls' decision to seek a job abroad.

Moreover, foreign countries are perceived as places where all these scarcities are absent, as places where the youth have more opportunities for succeeding. All of these might be reasons for the parents deeming the decision to work abroad as an appropriate solution for escaping the hardships in Romania. It is likely that parents encourage their children to leave, either because of a feeling of deprivation (frustration) or because they perceive others who left and returned with money as models of success.

"There are almost no possibilities for a young woman to succeed in this town. There are few companies here and the salaries are extremely low, especially for those girls without a university degree. Even those who have graduated from college find it difficult to get a job here." [parent, I. Sighisoara]

"My daughter knows some girls who went abroad and worked there for about 6 months up to a period of 1 year. Twenty years would not have been enough for them to earn here the amount of money they made there after 1 year." [parent, L. Bucuresti]

"It is because of the lack of money and because they cannot find a job here that they leave. They have no experience, so nobody hires them. They are not paid enough so they move on, trying to solve their problems abroad". [parent, E. Pascani]

The hopeless attitude which regards Romania as a country where youth cannot possibly have a better future as well as the perception of the country as an insecure environment leads to nostalgic statements about the ex-communist regime. Parents explaining the necessity of girls having to leave easily resort to the ordinary pattern of blaming the state for the scarcities in Romania.

"It is unacceptable that the youths wish to go and work abroad in whatever domain they are hired, disregarding their training here and the profession they would like to have. It is intolerable that they have to go there and nurse for others. The state should get involved in this situation and provide some jobs in the country for all girls, disregarding their level of education. Why should they find it necessary to go abroad in order to manage by themselves and to be able to support a family? (...) 30, 25 or 27 years ago when we got married, one had the possibility of getting a job; one could make it through the day and even make plans for the other months. Now, one cannot even make both ends meet so it is normal for the young people to wish to leave. They realise they have no job so no possibility to contribute with some money for the household's daily necessities. (...) This is the mere truth; the youngsters leave because the state does not provide jobs for them in the country where they were born and where they studied." [parent, M. Sighisoara]

Parents consider that the girls' wish to be independent and to manage on their own might be another reason for their decision to emigrate. This supports our previous statement about the vulnerable group values and attitudes independence and self-providing ranking high on the girls' value scale.

"They want to prove that they manage on their own abroad. Here they kind of depend on us, and they want to prove to us that they can provide for themselves. We tell them they will not be able to manage abroad but they would reply: "Yes I would!". [parent, E. Sighisoara]

When referring to trafficking situations, parents mainly blame the victim. Their failed migration is deemed to be caused mainly by the girl's irresponsible actions, by her refusal to listen to her parents or her considering the wrong persons as models of success. It is because of her credulity and lack of experience that she fails to avoid the recruiter.

"They are easily tricked, they copy the other's behaviour and they do not listen to their parents. I am aware of a few cases when parents tried hard to convince them they were wrong but they just wouldn't understand. They leave without the parents' permission and only later, when they come back, do they realise that they were wrong." [parent, M. Pascani]

In terms of experience and contact with a foreign country, data show that there is no difference between vulnerable and non-vulnerable girls. They have the same level of experience, no matter their purpose in travelling abroad.

Table 2.18: Migration experience and vulnerability

Have you ever been abroad? (Multiple answers)	All sample	Vulnerable group
Yes, for work	2	2
Yes, for study	1	2
Yes, for tourism	7	9
Yes, to visit relatives	3	4
No	87	78

Source: IMAS, 2003

The socialisation of children within the family environment is very important for the decisions they will make once they grow up. That is why it is worth studying what the parents of the vulnerable girls consider good or bad for their children in terms of the decisions they make. It seems that vulnerable girls are not encouraged to stay but rather, are encouraged to leave their place of origin and not just their family but also their region and country.

One can see more parents of vulnerable girls encouraging them to find a job abroad (48 percent) or to get married abroad (34 percent) and discouraging their stay in the region (45 percent) or locality (78 percent). There is also a culture of mobility within the families of vulnerable girls, which might function as a model or even as a push. It is interesting to note, however, that when compared with the average household, families with vulnerable girls are more inclined to say that children should study (25 percent as compared with 19 percent) and take care of their health (9 percent as compared with 5 percent).

Table 2.19: Mobility culture and vulnerability

Which one is better for your daughter?...		All sample	Vulnerable group
Find a job in this very region	It would be good for her to do this	55	44
	It would not be good for her to do this	38	45
Complete her education	It would be good for her to do this	84	85
	It would not be good for her to do this	8	3
Find a job in another region of Romania	It would be good for her to do this	43	38
	It would not be good for her to do this	49	52
Find a job abroad	It would be good for her to do this	37	48
	It would not be good for her to do this	47	44
Get married in Romania.	It would be good for her to do this	55	46
	It would not be good for her to do this	32	34
Get married abroad	It would be good for her to do this	19	34
	It would not be good for her to do this	67	48
Stay with us here	It would be good for her to do this	29	18
	It would not be good for her to do this	62	78

Source: IMAS, 2003

2.3.4.4 Success migration stories and vulnerability

Having relatives who have worked abroad could have a significant effect on the girls' decision to migrate. Successful migration experiences contribute to the forming of positive expectations related to the Western countries acting as a pull factor. The hypothesis of a family connected

with vulnerability having a culture of mobility is supported by data concerning the household's history of migration. For instance it is more likely, in households with vulnerable girls, that one member of the household has worked abroad since 1990 (21 percent for vulnerable group, and 13 percent for the average). Even where there is no statistical difference in terms of the rough experience of moving to another region, there are differences in the intensity of such movements. For example, there are more households with vulnerable girls that have moved 4 times or more (18 percent versus 5 percent). Also, if we analyse the data from the point of view of migration plans, we can observe that households with vulnerable girls are more prone to move to a different region or country in the next five years than the average household.

Previous mobility experience, as well as having a relative who resides in a foreign country, might be important factors for parents accepting the idea of working abroad as an appropriate alternative for their girls. Focus groups revealed that they would resort to kinship networks to provide a safe trip and lodging abroad. This might then be considered a protection factor for the girl intending to leave. However, parents who constantly indicate leaving as the best possibility for their daughter to succeed and to make some money so that she might manage on her own may increase their daughter's vulnerability as the girl may feel obliged to listen to her parents' advice. The simple exposure of the girls to successful migration stories is not necessarily a factor raising their vulnerability to traffic. Nevertheless, it can have a negative influence when combined with the other factors.

"I have a cousin in Germany who has two kids. Should my daughter go abroad, she would go as a babysitter there; we would not resort to a risky alternative." [parent, I. Sighisoara]

Most commonly models of success are among the close acquaintances of the vulnerable girls. Migration success stories act as pull factors, shaping positive social representations of foreign destinations. They disseminate socially innovative strategies and have a direct impact on the individuals' choice to accept risky alternatives. A rationale for their attitude is not necessarily associated with a de facto decreasing of the risks involved. The event serves as a justification for their decision to work abroad. We could call this process a "make believe" strategy as it only reduces the risks at the psychological level.

"He (her brother) graduated from the Polytechnic University and obtained a good job (overseas); he has a high salary, he has bought a house and now wants to get married." [15-18 years old, Bucharest]

"She is very well paid in Germany; my friend's sister is in a hotel and she cleans with a kind of brush the cobwebs; then she cleans the dust with the vacuum. That is all she does and for this only, she is well paid. Then she watches TV and has nothing else to do. Should she feel ashamed? I guess not." [19-25 years old, Iasi]

Source Mercury

2.3.5 Information on trafficking in women

2.3.5.1 Common perceptions about migration risks and trafficking in women

It seems that there are insignificant differences between the target group and the average sample households with respect to their awareness of trafficking in human beings when

referring only to forced labour or to the scarcity of wages. However, data reveal that the parents of vulnerable girls are more aware of cases of trafficking in women. The main source of information seems to be the media, but this is not different when compared with the average household in the sample. There is a higher percentage of parents of vulnerable girls who have a better understanding of trafficking in women (79 percent for vulnerable, 75 percent for all sample). When asked about the causes of becoming victims of trafficking, most of the parents of vulnerable girls tended to look at the whole system, blaming poverty, lack of money (56 percent for vulnerable, 51 percent for all sample) or jobs. There was also a higher number however, when compared with the average household, who blamed the victim (10 percent for vulnerable, 6 percent for all sample).

Table 2.20: Awareness and opinions about trafficking in women

Why do you think these trafficked girls ended up in this situation?	Parents perspective		Girls perspective	
	All sample	Vulnerable group	All sample	Vulnerable group
Base: total sample (854)				
Poverty, lack of money	51	56	41	38
Education, family problems	15	9	7	4
Naivety, trust in strangers	11	10	17	20
Stupidity, irresponsibility	6	10	4	3
They wanted to	3	2	2	2

Which of the following statements best explains the idea of trafficking in women?	Parents perspective		Girls perspective	
	All sample	Vulnerable group	All sample	Vulnerable group
Base: total sample (854)				
Women who are prostitutes abroad	6	8	3	6
Woman who are in the contraband business	2	2	2	3
Women sold abroad and forced to become prostitutes	75	79	84	84
Women who go abroad to work	7	4	7	7

Source: IMAS, 2003

In order to reveal the parents' awareness of the risks involved in the youth's decisions to work abroad, we referred to the migration strategy as involving a three-stage process: the period preceding the journey involving the finding of intermediating actors; the travelling period; and the arrival in the destination country. Parents of the vulnerable girls are mainly aware of the risks involved in the first and last of these three periods. It is at these times that they consider the girls as being vulnerable to traffickers, easy to trick and unable to control the disrupting events. Among the problems the youth might face if they decide to leave, parents identified: aggression, kidnapping, rape, forced prostitution, and the breaking of the contract by the illegitimate firm the girl resorted to. There is a lower awareness of the risks that might appear

during the journey. Within this period, parents are mainly afraid of an accident that might endanger the girl's life.

"There is a risk that she is promised to be hired as a waitress in a bar or in a restaurant when she is actually being sold for prostitution." [parent, E. Pascani]

"I am afraid of those firms that promise to provide contracts for working abroad as nurses, waitresses or even at a striptease when they actually recruit girls for prostitution. They have not become prostitutes of their own free will. That is what I am afraid of." [parent, A. Bucuresti]

"She might be lied to, recruited and forced to do something against her will. She might not have the possibility to provide for herself unless she finds a job (...). I think there is a high risk for a girl to take a train or a bus and to seek a job abroad. One never knows where you have really arrived, how people around you are and what you may find there." [parent, M. Sighisoara]

There is a contrast between the awareness of trafficking of parents of vulnerable girls and their children. As discussed earlier, the parents of vulnerable girls are more aware of trafficking in human beings than the average parents. But in the case of vulnerable girls, data show the opposite. Vulnerable girls reported less awareness than average girls about trafficking in human beings. There is no difference between the two regarding their awareness in trafficking in women. However one should be careful in interpreting these answers because it is very likely that the vulnerable girls, having a strong desire to seek work abroad, would rather deny cases of trafficking of human beings in order to maintain a positive image of working abroad. The perception of reasons as to why some women become victims of trafficking is not different between vulnerable girls and the average sample. It seems that the media and schools have been very effective in the last 2 years in warning of cases of trafficking. Again, in contrast with their parents, vulnerable girls are more likely than the average to provide wrong definitions of trafficking in women. 6 percent defined trafficked women as "women who become prostitutes abroad" and 3 percent as "women who are in the contraband business" (3 percent and 2 percent of the average girls mentioned the same definition).

It is interesting to note however that the focus group findings indicate that vulnerable girls are very informed about the risks of leaving abroad. The same set of questions referring to the three stages of leaving as were posed to the parents were used to interview the vulnerable women. Just as in the case of the parents, they are more aware of the risks in the period preceding the departure and upon arrival in the destination country than they are regarding the problems that might arise during the journey. The risks identified during the interviews are: being lied to by those intermediating the leaving; being kidnapped and taken to a destination other than that they have chosen; being sold and forced to become prostitutes; being held against their will while having their passports taken by those they work for; getting paid below their expectations; and being tricked by the very acquaintances they have trusted. During the journey, they are mostly afraid of accidents. The fact that they know of the risks involved if resorting to an informal network for leaving might be a protection factor. It is interesting to note that although they know of the risks they might face if they leave the country, the girls still want to leave by resorting to the same channels and means. It is possible that they willingly avoid these issues in order to stick to their earlier decision to leave.

"She might not even have her passport anymore. It might be taken from her when she gets there. Somebody else hires her and holds her passport. She will by no means be allowed to keep it". [girl, A.Pascani]

"There is a risk that you will be forced to do something they want. (...) Although you have lost your money while travelling, you do not need to resort to any job when you get there. It is different however, if you realise that they have taken all your money and they forced you to work for them. You have no other alternative unless you manage to escape. I have seen it on TV. It has never happened to me. I have seen quite a lot of cases. They would not give them food and water and they were physically aggressed. They took their money and IDs. They were locked in a room and forbidden to return home." [girl, O. Sighisoara]

"Misinformed means that a person living abroad promised you that you will be taken there and you believed her/him. You suddenly realise that you arrived at a totally different place from the promised one because you have been lied to". [girl, M. Bucuresti]

"I cannot understand this. How is it possible to buy a ticket to go to a certain country and to realise that you have arrived at a totally different place? I cannot imagine the risks involved; maybe it is just a matter related to the IDs." [girl, O. Sighisoara]

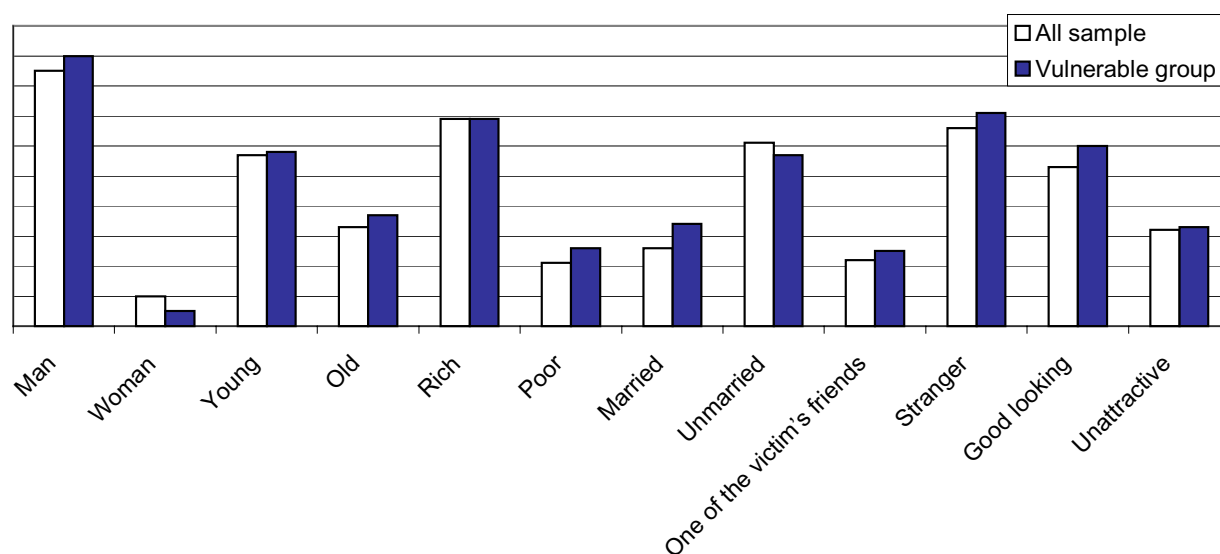
"She might be followed. Although she planned on doing a specific job abroad, they might force her to work at something else, to have a totally different job. Should she wish to come back they will not allow her, especially if they make good money on her account. They are afraid the police might find out and their business there will be ruined." [girl, P. Pascani]

2.3.5.2 Stereotype of the trafficker

Another important aspect for this section is related to the common representations of the trafficker. It is interesting to see how young women and especially vulnerable girls perceive the profile of the trafficker on different dimensions. Our hypothesis is that the trafficker or recruiter could be of one kind or another as he/she will purposely try to reveal only those characteristics appreciated as trustworthy. If a vulnerable girl believes that the trafficker is mostly of one kind then the appearance of a different type of person will deceive her more easily. For instance, if most of the vulnerable girls believe that a trafficker is a male then they are at high risk when a female recruiter proposes a job abroad. Therefore the more balanced the portrait, the less the risk of becoming a victim of stereotypes.

It seems that the trafficker is perceived most often as a young, rich, unmarried, good-looking, male stranger. Vulnerable girls, however, sometimes perceive the trafficker differently than the average girls. They believe he or she is poor (26%) and married (36%). They also have a higher tendency to believe that the trafficker is a good-looking male (60% V, 53.3% A).

Figure 2.5: Perceived profile of the trafficker



Source: IMAS, 2003

Lately the traffic networks have become more and more flexible managing to adapt to various situations while changing faces in conformity with the different routes, depending on the agents available. Their decentralised nature allows them to rapidly respond to low enforcement and possible competitors.⁴⁹ Also, it would be a mistake to consider trafficking in women as being related only to organised crime. Surely, most of the traffic networks do belong to international criminal syndicates. However, criminal groups and individual entrepreneurs might also be important agents⁵⁰.

The trafficker may equally be a young handsome boy, the "boyfriend scenario"⁵¹, and a woman who can easily be trustworthy especially because the gender biased perception. It is actually a fact that previous trafficked women become traffickers in order to escape from forced prostitution.⁵² The profile of the trafficker depends on the characteristics of the victim some of them using apparently legal means, such as marriage agencies, travelling or modelling agencies. Others resort to more informal means; the girl is contacted and offered help by a relative, a friend or other acquaintance and enticed with attracting stories about the opportunities abroad.⁵³

2.3.5.3 Official's representations on trafficking in women

Officials' perspective on the trafficking phenomenon is essential in analysing the feasibility of integration practices. Their attitudes towards migration issues as well as their awareness on trafficking in women contribute to shaping communities' beliefs about these phenomena especially in the case of small rural areas.

⁴⁹ van Impe, K.: The Need for a Multidisciplinary Approach towards Human Trafficking, IOM 2000

⁵⁰ Skeldon, R.: Trafficking: A Perspective from Asia, IOM 2000

⁵¹ Popov J. (2002), in Zimic, S.: Where in the Puzzle: Trafficking from, to and through Slovenia, IOM 2003

⁵² Trafficking in Migrants, Focus on the Balkans, autumn 2000

⁵³ Lazariou, S.: Trafficking in women. A sociological perspective, in: Sociologie Romaneasca 2/2000

The numbers in the table below show that officials mainly indicate structural deficits as main causes of traffic. This perspective completes our previous assertions regarding the main factors contributing to increased levels of vulnerability.

Table 2.21: Why do you think these girls have gone through this situation?

<i>Base: total sample (202)</i>	Abs.	Percent
Living conditions / poverty	53	26,2
Lack of money / material needs	43	21,3
Lack of education	40	19,8
Lack of information / ignorance	18	8,9
Other	40	20

Source IMAS 2003

Returned victims of traffic are socially labelled. Officials who were aware about the existence in their community of young women who have been forced to prostitute overseas but who returned later, declared that the general attitude towards victims of trafficking was negative. Most frequent answers described people's behaviour as reluctant, marginalising, indifferent, and contemptuous.

When asked to define trafficking in women most of the respondents have chosen the correct option (86,6 percent). Although the percentage of officials choosing an erroneous explanation or expressing their incertitude is significantly lower, 13 percent, it should not be ignored. At this level, misunderstanding trafficking in women could generate abuses and further stigmatisation of the victim.

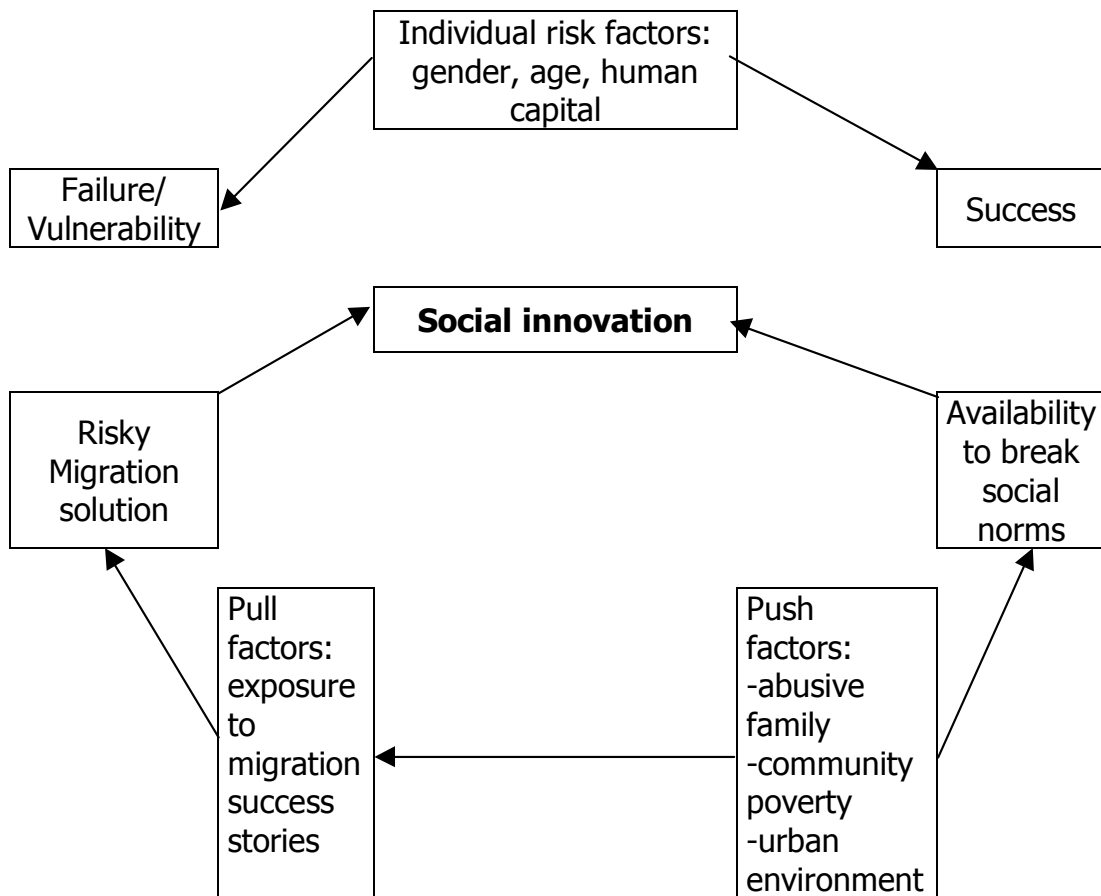
Table 2.22:

Which of the following statements do you see as explaining best the idea of trafficking human beings?

<i>Base: total sample (202)</i>	Abs.	Percent
Women who become prostitutes abroad	12	5,9
Women who are in the contraband business	1	0,5
Women who have been sold abroad and forced to become prostitutes	175	86,6
Women who go to work abroad	9	4,5
NA	5	2,5

Source: IMAS, 2003

2.3.6 Conclusions



The scheme above is trying to conclude on the main findings of this study. Trafficking in women is just a side effect of migration. When people strongly want to leave their country, because they feel they have no opportunities at home, when finding new opportunities across the border is not an easy thing to do (lacking institutional channels or restrictive legislation on migration issues), they have a chance to be caught in the greed hands of traffickers. Migration is about push and pull factors, but these factors can act in various ways. When push factors are strong it is likely that individuals will choose any possible mean to leave their community/family. Abusive parents, poor environments could lead young women to accept any job offer no matter of the risks involved.

Pull factors can also interact with people desire to migrate in strange ways. Exposure to success stories of migration is sometimes deceiving new migrants. They tend to judge mostly the outcome (successful return, rich friends building house or buying a fancy car) and do not bother to question the whole route of migration. All together, young women take the risk and think that "couldn't be worse than now". They could be considered social innovators because in fact they are looking for solutions to escape a hostile environment. The solutions are not always in accordance with what society defines as legitimate means, but they are still solutions and sometimes very innovative ones.

Some social innovators succeed, some fail. It is not just a matter of luck. Why do male migrants have better chances to win than women migrants? It could be that there is a gender discriminative setting and also that women are more vulnerable than men. They could be kidnapped or forced to slavery and they usually do not have the power to resist. They are sometimes socialised to accept hardship and male dominance. Data evidences that there is a culture of mobility: young people are encouraged to find their ways outside their community or even the country no matter how they will achieve their goals.

Now we come to individual factors. It is not only gender that makes people vulnerable to trafficking in human beings. It is also the age. Young women are more inexperienced in dealing with difficult social encounters. They sometimes trust people they should not; they sometimes believe new stories they never heard before. Youth is also related to various phases of our life. Women above 25 are less likely to become victims as they might have their own families (children and husbands), which is an indicator of strong social integration. Education and other cultural acquisitions through socialisation play an important role in determining failure or success. More educated women are able to better discriminate between different signals conveyed by the environment. They can better understand risk and they can better protect themselves using institutions and formal channels. They might have enough information to estimate chances and recognise deceivers.

All in all push and pull factors are basically determining the decision to migrate. Individual characteristics are crucial for changing a usual cycle of migration (leave and return) in an interrupted circulatory migration. Still, social and environmental factors can interfere with all this characteristics of an individual so that they can bring about success or failure. Socialisation and education can prove to be strong factors to act upon in order to prevent trafficking in women.

2.4 Case study 2: MOLDOVA

After the enlargement of the European Union and the establishment of new European borders in the Eastern part of the continent, Moldova will become direct neighbour of the EU in 2007. At present Moldova fails to meet the expectations of EU countries that want stable, secure and prosperous neighbours on their Eastern borders. Moreover, it is a concern for the EU because of its poorly secured borders and unsettled separatist conflict in Transnistria (the region located between the Nistru river and the Ukrainian border) – a region over which the Moldovan government has no control. One of the direct consequences of insufficient border control is the current dimension of illegal migration and trafficking in human beings and goods. International reports draw attention to the fact that this phenomenon has reached enormous proportions in the region and along with Romania, it is a source and a target for illegal migration.

In view of the EU enlargement one of the most controversially discussed questions is whether there will be a massive migration of labour force from Eastern Europe. Fears of labour migration existed also during the previous enlargements. Experts, however, note that –as history shows– such fears have generally been unfounded.

Although most of the concerns over labour migration refer to new member states, the related concern is that immigrants from third countries might pass through new member states on their way to Western Europe. Since Moldova will border the EU after Romania's accession, it will play a special role in the labour migration to Europe, as estimates indicate that over half a million Moldovans already work illegally in Europe, having an effect on the EU labour market. The causes of the massive migration from Moldova however, are not only due to Moldovans seeking work abroad, but also to a demand in Western European markets for low-skilled or relatively cheap high-skilled labour.

The present section aims at assessing potential consequences of EU enlargement for Moldova's labour force and trafficking in women, based on studies and reports investigating this topic. The paper provides an overview of Moldova's relation with Romania, as candidate country to the EU and as bordering country to the West, which frames the need for protection of Moldovan citizens in view of potential negative effects of the EU enlargement. It outlines the cooperation between the EU and Moldova in the context of the European Neighbourhood Policy. Furthermore, the paper will describe the current legal framework with regard to migration as well as Moldova's present interstate agreements on labour migration. Finally, it will provide information on the phenomenon of mass emigration from Moldova and on recent trends of labour migration. In the last part, it will look into the problem of illegal migration and trafficking in women.

2.4.1 Moldova's Relation with Romania

The disappearance in the 1990s, of the iron curtain resulted in new migratory movements in Europe. Citizens of the EU candidate countries (later in April 2001 – Bulgarians, and in January 2002 - Romanians) obtained the right to a visa-free entry to the EU. At the same time, citizens of the future neighbours of the EU have, until recently, been able to travel to Central Europe without major difficulty due to a policy of good relationships with neighbouring countries pursued by the governments of Central European countries. Furthermore, the promotion of a form of minorities' protection played a key role in the interregional relations. One measure of

protecting the minorities refers to issuing citizenship to people in neighbouring countries of Eastern Europe. For instance, Romania issues citizenship to those citizens of Moldova, who can provide documentary evidence that their parents or grandparents were Romanian citizens.⁵⁴

The procedure of issuing citizenship by Romania to Moldovans was suspended for a while due to certain EU accession requirements in 2002, and renewed in the summer of 2003. The EU urged Romania to ensure higher security of its borders, including the introduction of passports. To this end, Romania allocated one million US\$ to facilitate issuing passports for certain categories of Moldovan citizens. Almost 30,000 citizens benefited from these measures: students in Romania, inhabitants of the areas along the border, people with low incomes etc. According to unofficial data, some 300,000 - 600,000 Moldovans have been granted Romanian citizenship in recent years, while many Moldovans who live in Transnistria hold the Ukrainian or Russian citizenship.⁵⁵ In 2003, a new law was adopted which allows Moldovans to hold dual citizenship. The pursuit of a Romanian passport is reinforced by the fear that the Romanian-Moldovan border will be impenetrable after the enlargement of the European Union in 2007, implying a new division of the continent between the new united Europe and the states that remain outside of it. While the fear of many in the new EU member states relates to being treated as second-class European citizens is deepened by the restrictions regarding labour migration, one of the main psychological and social issues perceived by states outside the EU will be the feeling of isolation. For Moldova, this relates to a new separation from the natural space of Latin/Romanian influence and European culture. Thus, in order not to let this fear materialise, Moldova will have to implement proper emigration policies and border controls. Most importantly, it will have to solve the Transnistrian conflict and establish further control at its Eastern borders. As soon as Romania enters the EU, Moldovan citizens will need not only international passports, but also visas, invitations, medical insurance and a certain amount of currency for the trip. Considerable efforts will have to be made in order to obtain the status of an EU accession country. Unless this has been reached, it can not even be expected that the border crossing regime with Romania will become simple again.

2.4.2 Relations between the European Union and Moldova

The accession of ten new member states in May 2004 has changed the EU's political map considerably, offering new ground for intensified relations between the EU and its neighbours. In this context, the European Neighbourhood Policy (ENP) has been launched by the EU, allowing the neighbours as well to benefit from the recent EU enlargement. The ENP has been designed to provide the most appropriate framework for a partnership, and as the EU stresses, it should be seen as distinct from the question of possible EU accession. Moldova agreed to this approach, as shown in the *Concept for the Integration of the Republic of Moldova into the European Union*, presented in September 2003. In the latter, Moldova welcomed the European Neighbourhood Policy (ENP), while at the same time expressing the wish to be included in the Stabilisation and Association Process (SAP) covering the countries of the Western Balkans. In

⁵⁴ The main part of Moldova, namely the area between the rivers Prut and Nistru, was part of Romania between 1918 and 1940 and 1940-1944. Between 1944 and 1991, when it gained independence, Moldova was part of the Soviet Union. 65% of the country's population are Romanians, but some prefer to call themselves and their language Moldovan.

⁵⁵ <http://www.rferl.org/newsline/2003/05/4-See/see-300503.asp>, http://www.dw-world.de/english/0,3367,1433_A_1003818_1_A,00.html

March 2004, after the EU - Moldova Co-operation Council, Moldova recognised the importance of the Neighbourhood Policy as a way to come closer to the EU and as an instrument for Moldova's internal reform process.

At present, the Partnership and Cooperation Agreement (PCA) forms the legal basis for the EU - Moldova relations. PCA was signed in November 1994 and entered into force in July 1998. Areas of particular interest in the context of this partnership are: the development of political institutions based on the values – democracy, the rule of law, human rights - underlined in the Agreement, regional stability and co-operation in justice and home affairs, economic and social reforms that will create new opportunities for development and modernisation as well as for the further liberalisation of trade and gradual participation in the Internal Market.

Since 1991, the EU has provided assistance to Moldova amounting in total to €253 million.

Table 2.23: Community assistance to Moldova (in million €)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2003	Total
Tacis Action Programme	1,0	9,0*		10,0	9,0	13,1*		14,7*		14,8 + 1,5		25,0*	98,1
Small Projects Programme						4,9		4,8		4,7			14,4
Cross-border Cooperation Programme						2,0	2,7	1,3	0,7	4,0	3	3,7	17,4
Macro-Financial Assistance		27,0**		25,0	20,0	15,0						15,0	102,0
Food Security Programme										5,5		10,4	15,9
Humanitarian Assistance									3,9	0,8	0,88		5,5
Total	1,0	36,0	0	35,0	29,0	35,0	2,7	20,8	4,6	31,3	3,8	54,1	253,3

Note: *Financial planning is biannual; **Grant

Source: Commission Staff Working Paper (ENP) Country Report – Moldova, 2004

The 2003 TACIS action programme for Moldova (€25 million) focuses on the following areas: institutional, legal and administrative support, promotion of private sector development, and addressing the social consequences of transition. In addition, the TACIS regional programmes cover cross border cooperation, justice and home affairs, customs and border infrastructures, energy and environment. A new National Indicative Programme (NIP) is currently being developed for 2004-2005.⁵⁶

The Neighbourhood Programmes (2004-2006) are based on the existing funding instruments, TACIS CBC, INTERREG and Phare CBC. Two neighbourhood Programmes will involve Moldova: a cross-border programme with Romania and the Regional/Transnational CADSES programme. The budget foreseen for Moldova amounts to €10 million (TACIS CBC) over the period 2004-2006.⁵⁷ For the period beyond 2006, the European Commission is examining the possibilities of

⁵⁶ Commission Staff Working Paper (ENP) Country Report – Moldova, May 2004

⁵⁷ idem

creating a new Neighbourhood Instrument to further reinforce the co-operation with the neighbouring states.

2.4.3 Legal Framework of Migration

Experts in the field of migration note that the current state of migration in Moldova and its regulatory frame do not meet the necessary requirements. The current legal framework does not ensure full respect for the rights of migrants. The number of Moldovans leaving the country has reached lately enormous proportions which has become one of the main concerns of the Moldovan Government.⁵⁸ Until recently, the migration policy was regulated by the law on migration from 1990, which was adopted after the collapse of the Soviet Union. This law served more the purposes of the regulation of immigration and repatriation issues rather than of emigration and did not cover all significant areas. Therefore, it did not represent a sufficiently comprehensive approach to the management of migration and regulation of labour migration processes. The idea of bringing together migration-related issues within a single state authority led to the establishment of a central governmental specialised institution, the Migration State Service (MSS), that replaced the Department of Migration within the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection in 2001. The results after one year of operation of this institution are rather positive. In March 2002, Moldova signed a cooperation agreement with the International Organisation for Migration; in July 2002 – the Protocol of Intentions with Kuwait.

In order to correctly assess the real situation and to establish priorities in solving the problems related to migration, the Parliament adopted a decree on a "Migration Policy Concept" in October 2002 and the Law on Migration in December 2002.⁵⁹ The "Migration Policy Concept" sets out principles and objectives with regard to migration processes and the competencies of administrative bodies involved. In addition, it lays out the basic rules on emigration and immigration matters, foreigners' evidence and control, combating illegal migration and traffic in human beings, and protecting the rights of migrants. One of the most important provisions relates to the necessity for the creation of a specialised state structure which would result in setting up the Migration Department, derived from the Migration State Service (MSS). According to Munteanu, the General Director of MSS, the Migration Department will allow for improving the regulation of migrational processes, securing the state borders, creating a database on all categories of migrants, ensuring the supervision of foreign citizens and stateless people on the territory of the country, easing the registration and supervision procedures of these categories, forecasting the migrational waves, preventing and combating the illegal migration and unlawful trafficking in human beings.

2.4.4 Interstate Agreements on Labour Migration

The new social-economic and political realities forces the state to take a special attitude with regard to the migrational problems of the population and to cooperate with the countries where the Moldovan migrants work. This refers to the establishment of annual workers quotas, legalisation of the labour migrants and the insurance of migrant's social protection. In trying to control the emigration for work purposes and to protect the migrants' rights, the Moldovan Migration Department set up an "Agency for Labour Migration and Foreign Relations" which

⁵⁸ Against this background, one major goal during the past three years has been to improve the migration management and policy.

⁵⁹ SIDA: Migration Assessment, Moldova 2004

deals with emigration. The Agency is monitoring the labour markets of other states and seeks to develop agreements with foreign organisations, institutions and enterprises with regard to the temporary employment of Moldovan citizens. The Agency is in charge of selecting the applicants for the job in question on the basis of the employer's demand and rendering informational and legal assistance. A database system has been developed by the Agency, where applicants who search for a job abroad can be registered. The database is consulted when employers in other countries announce open positions for Moldovans. In this context, good results have been achieved with Italy. The Italian Government adopted in 2002 a new law on immigration, the so-called "Bossi-Finni" law responding to immigration trends. In Italy there has been an increase in demand for non-EU immigrant workers in the last few years to fill unskilled and semiskilled positions in firms, particularly in the North-East of Italy. These jobs are low-paid and the number of Italians willing to take them was insufficient. In addition, the falling birth rate and the ageing of population has created many reasons to consider foreign labour as beneficial if Italy is to sustain generous social security benefits. Thus, the law foresees that Italy form a cooperative scheme with countries that export large numbers of workers. Since Moldova was among the leading countries with a positive image of its labour migrants, it had been offered a quota of 500 workers per year to be legally employed.⁶⁰ Furthermore, Italy launched a series of regional bilateral cooperation agreements with Moldova, which allowed to employ workers in addition to the 500 persons quota:

- Operation agreement between the State Migration Service and the Regional Employment Agency on Employment in Lombardia region, Italy;
- Operation agreement between the State Migration Service and the Vocational Training School "Ente Scuola Edile", Parma, Italy;
- Cooperation agreement between the State Migration Service and the "Solidarieta" company, Milan, Italy.

Thus, about 400 Moldovan nurses obtained legally jobs in Italy according to the Moldova-Lombardia agreement.⁶¹ 60 Moldovan workers graduated from training courses in the building industry in July 2002 to qualify for jobs in the Italian city of Parma.

It has recently been reported that the Government of Italy will provide 1500 work places for Moldovan nationals for the current year. The offered work places will be geographically distributed in accordance with the offers of Italian employers. The Department of Migration, being in charge of the selection of candidates and the distribution of jobs, will organise training and language courses for the accepted applicants. The Governments of both countries intend to combat the illegal migration of Moldovan workers this way.⁶²

However, Moldova has not yet concluded bilateral agreements with the most targeted countries for immigration such as Portugal, Spain and Greece.

⁶⁰ MSS News Bulletin, June 2002

⁶¹ MSS News Bulletin, December 2002

⁶² (/www.protv.md/) ;(<http://accente.com.md/index.php?nr=116&cat=social>)

2.4.5 Background of Labour Migration from Moldova

The mass emigration of the labour force from Moldova is related to the problems of social stratifications, the state of the economy, decrease in production, high rate of unemployment, the population's poverty and consequently, deteriorated living standards. These negative phenomena appeared after the collapse of the Soviet Union and have been caused by the long period of transition, inefficiently implemented reforms, including the lack of steps to secure social protection and the failure to create working places. All of these problems are exacerbated by the problem of separatism in Transnistria.

The UNDP asserts that the transition includes a combination of political, institutional, economic and social processes that, if undertaken in an uncoordinated and inconsequential fashion, can considerably delay the reform process and have a negative impact upon human development and the living conditions of the population. Thus, at the beginning of 2000, the Gross Domestic Product was 40% of that of 1990. Real wages have decreased by 71%, resulting in a low purchasing capacity. Moldova has the lowest average salary among the CIS countries, which is \$30 per month, while the minimum consumer's budget is \$65. 80% of the population lives below poverty line.⁶³ Unemployment constitutes officially 1-2% of all engaged. The real rate, however, is 20-25%. According to data provided by the "Department of Statistics and Sociology", the economically active population of the Republic of Moldova has reduced from 1,809,000 in 1998 to 1,617,000 in 2001. In 2002, the economically active population of Moldova registered a soft subtraction of -0.1% (in comparison with 2001) and was estimated at 1,615,000. The employed population in the last few years is decreasing (in 1993: the active population was about 1,688,000, in the year 2001: it was 1,499,000). In 2002, the number of employed persons was estimated at 1,005,000. The proportion of female workers (51.4%) exceeds that of male workers (the same proportion is to be seen in the distribution of women and men in the total number of population). Around 60.8% of people working live in the rural zone. There are still some differences between the unemployment level in urban (10.4%) and rural (2.6%) areas, the level of urban unemployment being 4 times higher.⁶⁴

2.4.5.1 Labour Migration and Remittances

According to the Migration State Service information, 2,800 Moldovan citizens, solicited employment abroad at the Department of Migration in 2003, 769 (27,47%) of them being women.

From the total number of the citizens who solicited employment abroad, 786 (28,08%) have higher education; 2,014 persons (71,92%) secondary professional education. From the total number of solicitors, 76,2% (2,134 persons) are servants, while 22,1% (618) are workers. The data base of the Migration Department contains information of about 5,000 applicants wishing to work abroad.

⁶³ Country Assessment UNDP, Moldova 2000

⁶⁴ Mandacanu, A.: Women economic and Social Rights in Moldova, 2003

Table 2.24: Moldovan citizens applying for work abroad (2003)

Age	Persons	Men		Women	
			<i>in %</i>		<i>in %</i>
Up to 24	727	513	<i>70,58</i>	214	<i>29,41</i>
25-30	356	294	<i>82,6</i>	62	<i>17,39</i>
31-36	401	289	<i>72,0</i>	112	<i>27,98</i>
37-42	403	293	<i>72,72</i>	110	<i>27,27</i>
43-48	381	286	<i>75</i>	95	<i>25</i>
49-54	466	303	<i>65</i>	163	<i>35</i>
55-60	66	53	<i>80</i>	13	<i>20</i>
Total	2800	2031	<i>73,53</i>	769	<i>27,47</i>

Source; Migration State Service of Moldova

In 2003, there were 193 work contracts of migrants who were employed in 6 countries, registered at the Migration Department.

Table 2.25: Registered labour migrants (2003)

Italy	77
Israel	40
Cyprus	39
Japan	24
Slovenia	12
Spain	1
Total	193

Source: Migration State Service of Moldova

According to the statistics, from 1993–2003 the majority of Moldovan citizens were legally employed in Israel. The total number of the employed workers in the reported period being of 5,963 persons.

During this period, 245 individual work contracts signed by Moldovan citizens with employers in the Russian Federation and 136 contracts with Italy were registered at the Migration Department.

Labour migration represents a short-term solution to unemployment. However, it is important for Moldova, given that it results in remittances and other benefits contributing to the alleviation of poverty. Migration of labour force is considered to have beneficial effects not only on the households of migrant, but also on the economy as a whole, as investment is being stimulated. According to the remittance data of the International Monetary Fund, Moldova was among the top fifteen countries with the highest total remittances received as a percentage of the GDP in 2001⁶⁵.

⁶⁵ The remittance data presented are from IMF (International Monetary Fund), 2003, Balance of Payments Statistics Yearbook 2002 (Washington, DC, IMF Publications Services).

Table 2.26: Remittances from Moldovan migrants, 2002

Total remittances (in millions \$)	GDP (in millions \$)	Total population	Total remittances as percentage of GDP	Total remittances per capita
223.1	1,479.4	4,431,570	15.1	50.34

Source: International Monetary Fund

According to recent estimations of the National Bank migrant workers sent back home \$ 360,000,000 in 2003. Remittances of around 1 billion dollars are estimated for the current year.

A study conducted recently by the "Alliance of Micro-finance from Moldova" (AMM) indicates that the income of the families with migrant members increased six times, from 279 lei (\$25) to 1,745 (\$150) lei per person.⁶⁶ However, the benefits for Moldova are more than financial. In social terms, the eventual effect of labour migration is positive. It may have begun as a negative phenomenon – a symptom of poverty – but in the future, it will strengthen the democratisation of Moldova, increase international ties, and help integrate the country in Europe. This might supposedly happen if Moldovan citizens return home to Moldova. The returnee citizens will bring home an international experience, new ideas, and transnational connections created while abroad.

The negative effects, however, that labour migration might cause should also not be underestimated. The demographic situation in the country is being affected as well as the stability and security of the state. As a result of emigration of large parts of the population, the labour is deprived of an adequate labour force. It is expensive and time-consuming to replace construction workers, teachers, doctors, engineers and other categories of qualified specialists who left their working places.

The development of a viable economy is what experts see as a solution to the problem. According to this view, the exodus of qualified workers can only be stemmed if there is adequate demand for employment, if growth of private enterprise is stimulated, and if social protection for the population is provided. These are essential prerequisites for reducing labour migration.

2.4.5.2 Labour Migration Trends

The IOM distinguishes three broad categories of migration: traditional permanent migration, long-term temporary migration and short-term labour migration, the latter includes seasonal work, casual work and cross-border commuting. Looking at the current trends of migration from Moldova, it can be stated that there is a rather circular character, referring more to the second and third category of IOM classification. Surveys show that Moldovan migrants maintain ties to their families at home and return home at least once or even several times over a period of time. The destination countries targeted are normally countries with a segmentation of labour which plays an ever-increasing role in driving migration. In many developed countries, people are unwilling to perform work that is low-wage, low-prestige, seasonal, or physically demanding. Unfortunately, most policies in the destination countries do not recognise this fact. The result is an increased illegal migration even at a higher level than legal migration. Indeed, as C. Boswell states, illegal employment is essentially a product of two factors: legislation which restricts

⁶⁶ <http://www.reporter.md/ro/>

possibilities for legal labour migration, and the incentives of employers to circumvent the costs of employing legal labour.⁶⁷

Today most Moldovan migrant workers are employed in hard, low-paid and low-skilled sectors. Migrant workers are carrying out some 40 types of activities, while only 27.3% work in jobs according to their qualification.⁶⁸ Almost 70% state that their employment has nothing to do with their profession. The main fields of employment are construction, agricultural works, transportation, mining, household services and the sex industry. Seasonal trends are remarkable and the migration volume rises by 30-40% during the period of planting and harvesting in agriculture.

The decision of Moldovan migrants to leave the country in search for a job does not imply the intention to settle in another country. Instead, the most important factor that decides on destination is the availability of employment opportunities. In some cases however, migrant workers have preferences based on other factors. They may prefer countries with which Moldova has a no-visa regime (e.g. Russian Federation, CIS countries). Alternatively, they may prefer neighbouring countries (e.g. Ukraine, Romania), or countries that are easy to reach by passing through an intermediary country (e.g. Greece via Bulgaria). Finally, there is also a preference for countries attracting migrants with high wages and economic development, (e.g. USA and Germany). In 2000, 1,273 immigrants were admitted to the U.S..⁶⁹ An example of migration due to cultural ties is Turkey and Gagauzia, the Southern part of Moldova. Gagauz people share with Turkey a related culture and language. Israel is another destination where migrants can easily find an illegal job due to networks of natives from Moldova. However, the most important labour market which attracts the greatest part of work migrants from Moldova remains that of the Russian Federation, for which Moldova served as an important supplier of labour during the soviet times. The AMM study affirms that the country of destination depends much on the family's welfare. The poorest people go to Moscow, while rather wealthy people leave for Western Europe. According to the same study the employment abroad varies, depending on the county of destination - in Russia, Moldovans are solicited more for construction work, while in Italy for domestic work.

Emigration to the countries outside the EECA and Baltic Regions by country 1998-2000 (Persons and percents)

Table 2.27

Country	1998		1999		2000	
	Persons	%	Persons	%	Persons	%
Canada	32	0.9	100	2.4	71	1.8
Germany	1,406	37.8	1,258	30.7	1,396	35.9
Israel	784	21.1	1,338	32.6	1,110	28.6
USA	1,350	36.3	1,241	30.2	1,115	28.7
Others	145	3.9	168	4.1	193	5.0
Total	3,717	100	4,105	100	3,885	100

Source: IOM 2002 -Migration Trends in the EECA: Republic of Moldova

⁶⁷ Boswell C., Straubhaar Th. : The illegal employment of foreigners in Europe, 2004

⁶⁸ Sleptsova, Labour Migration in Europe: Special Focus on the Republic of Moldova, 2003

⁶⁹ http://www.gcir.org/about_immigration/world_map/alphabetical_list_of_countries.htm

2.4.5.3 Feminisation of Migration

Research in the field of migration indicates that a new trend has occurred in both voluntary and forced migration - the «feminisation» of migration - that reflects the growing involvement of women in movements around the world. The question is what is the essence of this trend and is it a rather positive or negative phenomenon. While trying to answer this question, one should look at the living and working conditions of women in the destination countries and at the impact of feminised migration on the host countries.

According to the available data on emigration from Moldova, more than 20,000 women of childbearing age leave Moldova every year.⁷⁰ For instance, up to 70% of women from villages of the Gagauzia region are believed to have left for Turkey, but also for Italy, Spain, and Portugal.⁷¹ Women working abroad are mostly active in the caring services such as nursing, domestic work, entertainment, etc. Domestic work is particularly difficult to regulate. Unlike industrial, agricultural or other service-sector work where most men find employment, domestic work cannot be easily monitored with regard to abuse. Feminisation of migration has affected Moldova to a very great extent, since women make about 65% (650,000 from 1,000,000) of the total estimated number of migrants from Moldova. While looking at the causes of the feminised migration in Moldova, it becomes evident that mainly poverty and lack of opportunities led to the development of this trend. The roots should be sought in the challenges of the transition period in Moldova, which impacted both men and women. The situation of women however, is worse than that of men. This reflects the women's low economic activity rate and insignificant representation in the public and political life. Women's current involvement in governmental bodies is very low, only 15 women (15%) out of 101 are Members of Parliament. The only exception is in small private businesses where women have become increasingly active.⁷² The number of women living in poverty is disproportionate to the number of men. In Moldova 68% of the unemployed are women, despite having the same level of training as men. And while employed their salaries in the national economy constitute just 60-70% of that of men.⁷³ Moreover, the current legislation does not provide for the protection of basic women's economic rights, often making women subject to discrimination. In addition to full-time jobs of about 40 hours per week, women have to carry out also a huge volume of unpaid housework. In comparison with women in Western Europe, Moldovan women work with an average of 20 hours more per week. The difference can be explained by the fact that most of the services (such as washing-machines or kitchen aids) needed in households are not accessible, which produce additional work for women. The heavy working load affects the women's health and therefore productivity. Women, more frequently than men, have the additional economic burden of caring for children. The high volume of work not only reduces the amount of women's free time which is two times lower than that of men, but it also affects the professional progress and the development of qualifications. As a result, on the labour market women are pushed out of the jobs which require high education, skills and intellectual work, leaving them with unstable and legally unprotected work.

The negative impact of the transition period affected seriously the relations in families and led to an increase in domestic and sexual violence, alcohol abuse, etc. The birth-rate is causing further

⁷⁰ International women's rights action watch, November 2003

⁷¹ UNDP Report 2003

⁷² Trafficking in Human Beings in South Eastern Europe, UNICEF 2002

⁷³ Common National Assessment, UNDP 2000

concern. In 2002 and 2003 there were twice as many deaths as births.⁷⁴ This is because most of the women of 30-45 years are either migrating or restricting themselves to one child because of poverty. Survival is one of the biggest issues for Moldovan families. The scarce employment opportunities make women go abroad to work illegally, without social protection or insurance, leaving their children with the elderly parents, relatives or neighbours. The negative effect on children as a result of the mothers leaving results in an increased vulnerability of these children who are prone to becoming victims of trafficking themselves, which is a new trend in the phenomenon of trafficking.⁷⁵ The IOM indicates that the number of children of female migrants or victims of trafficking who are being raised without parents or by their extended families or placed in institutions, is growing continuously. Profiles of women victims of trafficking from Moldova clearly indicate that the number of women being mothers is the highest one.⁷⁶

Obviously, for Moldova the new trend of feminisation of migration does not represent a positive factor, since it reflects the negative developments in the society. Especially given that a great number of women is involved in prostitution and trafficking, consequently increasing the danger for many children to be trafficked. The considerable problem of trafficking in women has even grown due to the fact that until recently the Government and the civil society institutions have failed to promote and implement an active policy that ensures equal opportunities for both women and men to participate in the social-economic and family life.

In order to ensure equality between women and men the National Plan Promotion of the human gender in the society for the years 2003-2005 has been set up. It aims at implementing a perspective of gender equality and democratic participation of women in all domains of life, giving at the same time the possibility of establishing a dialog between the parties involved to adopt appropriate measures. Alternatives to going abroad must be developed within Moldova, in order to curb the trafficking phenomenon. A positive development in this regard worth mentioning, is the launching of the project "Employment opportunities and professional training" of March 2004. Its purpose is to assist the victims of trafficking by learning a new profession, which will be implemented by IOM in collaboration with the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection and the State Migration Service. According to Jana Costachi, the co-ordinator of the project, 300 girls will benefit from the assistance, of which the 80 best performing girls will get credits amounting to 1000 Euro for two years, to start their own businesses. The project is financed by the Government of Ireland and will be simultaneously implemented in three states: Moldova, Ukraine and Albania, which are the most affected countries by trafficking in human beings according to experts' opinion.

It has been recognised that continued and expanded support for income-generating projects is urgently needed. Such projects should include a balanced approach for both urban and rural workers. Moreover, it is crucial to establish a network of supportive business development services. Unless Moldovan women and girls have access to sustainable, income-generating opportunities in Moldova (or out of Moldova, as legitimate migrant workers or through migration programs), they will most probably remain vulnerable to various forms of trafficking.⁷⁷

⁷⁴ International women's rights action watch, November 2003

⁷⁵ 2003 Update-Trafficking in Human Beings in South Eastern Europe. UNICEF, UNOHCHR, OSCE/ODIHR,

⁷⁶ According to UNICEF, UNOHCHR, OSCE/ODIHR information 46% of Moldovan women victims of trafficking are mothers at the moment of trafficking.

⁷⁷ Counter-Trafficking Regional Clearing Point: First Annual Report on Victims of Trafficking in South Eastern Europe, 2003

2.4.5.4 Illegal Migration and Trafficking in Moldova

Illegal Migration

According to a national scale opinion poll conducted in 2001 by the "Centre for Strategic Studies and Reform", 42% of the respondents were in favour of emigration. In the following two years, the migrational propensity increased according to official polls, which indicate that 80% of the population would like to go abroad. Almost 90% of young people aged 18-29 would leave if they had the opportunity.⁷⁸ Only 9% of young people wished to stay in Moldova.⁷⁹ Official statistics indicate that there are 234,000 Moldovans working abroad either legally or illegally. Unofficial estimations vary between 600,000 and 1,000,000 people working abroad. While it is clear that the data of the official statistics do not reflect the reality, the "Moldovan Migration State Service" disagrees with this figure of 1 million. The Service argues that 820,000 passports had been granted all together, 100,000 of them were issued to minors. 120,000 passports had been granted to civil servants, who by virtue of their position cannot work abroad. 90,000 persons are staying legally abroad: either studying, working or holding a staying permit. The "Moldovan Migration State Service" suggested that 600 000 would be a more realistic figure.⁸⁰

However, the number of those who leave the country is continuously increasing according to data provided by the "Border Guard Troops" of Moldova: 44,056 persons left the country in 2000, 59,666 in 2001 and 103,968 in 2002. The number of expelled persons increases as well: in 2000, there were 1,735 expelled persons, in 2001, 2,716, and 1,356 persons during the first semester of 2002. The figures above demonstrate a weak regulatory mechanism regarding migratory processes. This fact can be explained by the insignificant role the state plays in the management of migrational waves. As a response to the uncontrollable movements of workers from Moldova towards the EU states, the authorities of these countries started to introduce restrictive visa policies, strict employment procedures and tightened border controls that would supposedly contribute to decreasing the number of illegal migrants. The measures undertaken by the foreign authorities are understandable, however, they do not always represent a good solution to the problem. On the contrary, often it does result in cutting across traditional routes and patterns of labour migration. Employment agencies, smugglers and traffickers of human beings thus increase their opportunities and trigger unauthorised migration for those migrants who have no access to legal means. According to an ILO study, recent data on trafficked victims suggest that nationals of EU candidate countries having access to Europe with a three months tourist visa, are less likely to being trafficked.⁸¹

Around 90% of the total estimated number of Moldovan migrants abroad are considered to stay illegally. While it is difficult to estimate how many of the 90% were subject to trafficking, one fact seems evident which is that migrants appear to be more interested in irregular methods of leaving than in regular. As the Director of the Centre for Prevention of Trafficking in Women, Jana Costachi, stated in an interview, a lot of Moldovan people who intended to go abroad and for this purpose called the hotlines for information, turned out to be not even interested in legal ways of work emigration, easily accepting the offers of traffickers. The problem is that a great proportion of migrants, despite the numerous recent awareness-raising campaigns, are still not

⁷⁸ Trafficking in Human beings in South Eastern Europe. UNICEF, UNOHCHR, OSCE/ODIHR, Belgrade, 2002.

⁷⁹ Scanlan. S.: Irregular Labour Markets in West Europe; ILO 2002

⁸⁰ Munteanu, V.: Tu si Migratia, Information bulletin of the Migration State Service, December 2002

⁸¹ Scanlan, S.: Irregular Labour Markets in West Europe; ILO 2002

aware of the danger implicated in illegal migration, finding themselves trafficked and thus in a system of a contemporary form of "slavery".

Leaving the country is expensive and not every migrant can afford to pay high fees of 1500 - 3000 US\$ for travel documents.⁸² Recruiters and smugglers make use of this situation, exploiting the economic and legal vulnerability of migrants by offering travel services and entry into Western Europe. The recruitment takes place usually in form of tourist agencies or as physical persons (relatives, friends, acquaintances, neighbours, etc.) approaching the potential victims directly. Up to 200 unlicensed firms which operate in the field of employment abroad are currently active in Moldova. Only 35 firms operate with a licence. These 35 firms hired during the years 2000-2001 less than 2,000 persons, according to the Migration State Service data.⁸³ Looking at the total estimated number of emigrants (235,000 official Moldovan statistics against 1,000,000 unofficial data) compared with the official statistics for legally employed, the dimension of illegal migration is becoming obvious.

The mass media activities contribute to a great extent to the development of illegal migration in Moldova. As the Director of the Moldovan State Migration Service pointed out, everybody in Moldova knows the places from where minibuses with "tourists" from Moldova go abroad, published in different advertisements about employment abroad. Thus, in the context of combating migrational waves, only licensed firms should be allowed to publish in the newspapers.

Trafficking from Moldova

Because of the irregular nature of migration from Moldova, many migrants looking for jobs outside the country may be trafficked for forced labour, domestic service, sex trade or child labour as well as for trafficking in organs. Evidence of the above mentioned forms of trafficking in persons exists in Moldova, but there is a serious lack of reliable data. Cases of trafficking in organs in Turkey have been reported lately, but they remain largely undocumented. The growing and most serious form of trafficking in persons from Moldova is, however, the trafficking in women for the purpose of sexual exploitation. The majority of recent research has focused on these cases.⁸⁴ According to latest data of the Regional Clearing Point (RCP), some cases researched include dual exploitation of women for forced labour and sexual exploitation.⁸⁵ This change in the pattern of the phenomenon of trafficking may be considered a new trick of the traffickers, trying to render prevention, investigation and prosecution more difficult.

According to a qualitative study conducted by the Moldovan Centre of Sociological, Political and Psychological Analysis and Investigations (CIVIS), based on interviews with 24 women who had been victims of trafficking, almost every interviewee stated that she found out about the type of occupation only after she had already left the country. The interviewees specified the following circumstances:

- Met the owner, who told them that they were his property
- Being abroad they noticed the process of buying and selling

⁸² Munteanu, V.: Tu si Migratia, Information bulletin of the State Migration Service, December 2002

⁸³ idem

⁸⁴ Minnesota Advocates for Human Rights: Trafficking in Women from Moldova and Ukraine, December 2000

⁸⁵ idem 17

- Had been sent to work since first days of their arrival at the destination
- Noticed the illegal way of travelling abroad
- Met trafficked girls who knew what job they would practice
- Were threatened with violence in case of insubordination
- Their passports were taken away

This first type of trafficked women were trapped and misled, having no idea of their destination and the kind of work to be performed.

The second group are persons who were partially told the truth but were later forced to do work to which they initially did not agree. For victims of both group one and group two, the free movement and the ability to change the situation are very limited because of threats, debt bondage and the confiscation of travel documents.

The third group are persons who were informed about the type of job and working conditions, but are misled with regard to their benefits and gains. Many women understand the dangers of trafficking, but without any economic opportunities in Moldova they have no other choice than to leave. Trafficking in people is an economic issue — for both the traffickers and the victims. To the interviewees, the possibility of making money abroad outweighs by far the potential dangers of trafficking.⁸⁶

⁸⁶ Study- Report: Ce spun 24 femei traficate?, CIVIS 2002

2.5 Case study 3: BULGARIA⁸⁷

According to a United Nations statistic, Bulgaria is the leading country in Eastern Europe in sustained unemployment of women. An estimated 450 000 young Bulgarian women are likely to take risky jobs abroad. Furthermore, the state support for families is decreasing, in particular regarding single mothers. Among female headed households which make up 21.4% of households in Bulgaria, poverty is increasing. 64.9% of these households live in absolute poverty.

Bulgaria is mainly a country of origin, however, due to its location, it is as well a country of transit and destination. Bulgarian women are trafficked to Greece, Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium, Spain, Austria, Poland, France, Turkey, Italy and Cyprus. According to the annual report 2002 on trafficking in human beings of the German BKA criminal agency⁸⁸, Bulgarian women represent the second largest group of victims of trafficking identified in Germany after women from Lithuania. There is as well accordingly an increase in alleged criminals involved in trafficking in Germany of which the number of women traffickers is growing (821 suspected criminals of which 198 were women – representing 24,6%. Out of 198 women, 20 women were Bulgarian nationals). Further estimates relate to the coercive and violent treatment of women trafficked and forced into prostitution. The highest figure relates to Bulgarian victims (64%) in Germany who indicate that they have been treated in a particularly violent way.

Most of the data – which vary considerably – refer to Bulgarian women working as prostitutes in Bulgaria and abroad. These data range from 2500 (Anti-Trafficking Task Force within the Ministry of the Interior) up to 15000 Bulgarian prostitutes only in France (numbers quoted by a foreign journalist).⁸⁹ However, as regards the figures there is no distinction made between prostitutes and trafficked women.

The Regional Clearing Point Report comes to the conclusion, that 48% of trafficked Bulgarian women identified and assisted in 2002 in the SEE region were minors. Furthermore, 10 – 15% of the victims are mothers.

In Bulgaria in comparison with other countries in the region, prostitution itself is not illegal. Subject to prosecution are persons who procure, organise and distribute paid sex services of women or children. The prostitution market in Bulgaria is divided into three categories of which the first group relates to women working in the streets and highways, dependent on their pimps, and who earn very little money. 70% of these women are from the Roma and Turk minority. The second group works in bars and motels and the third in hotels. The women can obtain an official license as “companions” thus legalising their situation. However, these licenses are very expensive and there are only few “escort services” registered to date in Bulgaria.

As already mentioned earlier, Bulgaria made extensive efforts to draft a comprehensive legal framework for combating trafficking in human beings. The anti-trafficking bill is giving legal guidelines for the obligations of the National Committee to Combat Trafficking and its local units, and thus applies to all the state Ministries and agencies that are members of the

⁸⁷ Data mainly based on 16 and 17

⁸⁸ BKA: Lagebild Menschenhandel 2002

⁸⁹ idem 16

Committee. Given that it foresees strategies and concrete obligations for every Ministry, it became integral part of the legal system and has more a binding character than a plan of action.

The National Committee, chaired by a deputy Prime Minister, is composed of representatives of all relevant Ministries, the Supreme Court of Cassation, the Prosecutor General, the National Investigative Service as well as of representatives of Bulgarian NGOs and international organisations active in this area.

The Committee is i.a. in charge of a variety of tasks including (i) the co-ordination of relevant actors, (ii) administering the implementation of state policy and determining strategies, (iii) drafting an annual national programme for prevention and support of victims, (iv) conducting research and collecting necessary data, (v) carrying out information and awareness-raising campaigns, (vi) developing training curricula for officials and (vii) supervising the activities of the local committees.

As far as specific legislation is concerned, a new section in the Criminal Code on trafficking in persons deals with penalties, which states e.g. that a common act of trafficking is punishable by imprisonment of 1 to 8 years and a fine of up to 8000 levas (equivalent to about US\$ 4760). In 1997, the decree for witness protection was adopted which stipulates that victims are not obliged to sign the interrogation reports in police stations, take part in confrontations, or be put in contact with any persons involved in the crime. It furthermore foresees that security measures should be provided to the victim. However, such measures can at the current stage not be implemented given that supplementary provisions are still missing in the Criminal Procedures Code.

Finally, the Bulgarian Law on Combating the Illegal Trafficking in Human Beings, which entered into force in May 2003, includes a variety of measures to assist and support the victims. The law foresees measures such as setting up shelters for temporary housing for victims, full support by government agencies, assistance by Bulgarian diplomatic posts abroad to victims identified in another country, confidential treatment of the victim's situation, involvement of the State Agency for Child Protection, separate premises for children and special protection to victims (including a long-term stay in the country, prolonged stay in the shelters as well as special protection under the Criminal Procedures Code).

Despite considerable efforts undertaken by Bulgarian authorities to fight against trafficking in human beings, the legislative frame still contains important gaps with regard to the victim's protection as well as to the general situation of the victims. As described above, there is no efficient witness protection programme and, as far as foreign victims are concerned, if a victim is not willing to co-operate for detecting the perpetrators, it may not be granted temporary residency permits for long-term stay in Bulgaria. Furthermore, it is being reported that there is a serious lack of space in shelters.

However, it seems difficult to make an assessment of needs in Bulgaria given that there is a considerable lack of reliable information on trafficked women in general, on successes or failures of reintegration measures as well as on data of convicted criminals.

2.6 Overview of Trafficking in Moldova, Romania and Bulgaria

As mentioned above, Moldova, Romania and Bulgaria are primary countries of origin of the victims. While no official statistics exist, those from the "Regional Clearing Point Report 2003" indicate the following minimum number of trafficked victims who were identified and assisted within the period between 2000 and April/June 2003:

Table 2.28

	2000	2001	2002	April 2003	Total
Moldova	319	382	329	101	1,131
Romania	163	261	243	111	778
Bulgaria	46	96	164	46	352

Source: Regional Clearing Point Report 2003

The total minimum number of victims of trafficking who were identified and assisted by IOM within the countries of South Eastern Europe from 2000 to 2003 amounts to 5,203. Moldova, Romania and Bulgaria comprise 46% (2,261) of the total number of identified and assisted trafficked victims between January 2000 and April/June 2003. Victims from Moldova make 23%, from Romania 16% and from Bulgaria 7%. The Report underlines that based on statements provided by victims, non-governmental organisations and international organisations, it is evident that the actual number of victims is significantly higher than the number of victims identified and assisted.

The annual number of trafficked Moldovan and Romanian victims constitutes throughout the period from 2000 to the first quarter of 2003 a consistent proportion of the total number of victims. By contrast, the annual number of trafficked Bulgarians decreased significantly between January 2002 and June 2003.

The table below indicates the destination and transit countries where the victims from Moldova, Romania and Bulgaria were identified from 2000 to April/June 2003:

Table 2.29

Destination Countries/Entity	2000			2001			2002			2003		
	MD	RO	BG	MD	RO	BG	MD	RO	BG	MD (Apr)	RO (Mai)	BG (Jun)
Albania	68	34	2	27	30	4	9	16	-	1	2	1
Austria	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
Belgium	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	3	-	-	2
Bosnia-Herzeg.	92	41	-	71	78	-	76	52	-	6	2	-
Bulgaria	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
Croatia	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	1	-	-
Cambodia	-	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cyprus	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
France	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14	-	-	16
Germany	-	-	-	-	1	22	-	2	25	1	4	2
Great Britain	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
Greece	1	-	-	-	1	-	3	-	-	-	1	-
Holland	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	4	-	-	1

Italy	12	12	1	15	9	2	12	20	12	-	41	-
Israel	-	-	-	3	-	-	5	-	-	1	-	-
Lebanon	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-
Kosovo	76	21	10	87	36	6	32	19	6	10	7	3
FYROM	67	30	4	150	68	10	82	72	4	25	41	7
Pakistan	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-
Poland	-	-	-	-	-	4	3	5	1	-	-	-
Romania	-	-	-	1	-	-	10	-	-	2	-	-
Russia	-	-	-	-	-	-	30	-	-	7	-	-
Spain	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	2	-	-	2	2
Switzerland	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
United Arab Emirates	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
Serbia & Montenegro	-	-	-	17	-	-	33	-	-	10	-	-
Turkey	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	0
Unspecified destination	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	75	-
Total	316	144	17	378	237	61	308	210	78	86	112	25

Source: Regional Clearing Point Report 2003

As shown above the majority of victims are primarily identified in Bosnia-Herzegovina, FYROM and Kosovo. Although there seems to be no overall decrease in the scope of trafficking in human beings in the region, there has been a decrease in the estimated number of victims identified and assisted. Since the last quarter of 2002, the number of identified and assisted victims started to decrease significantly in all South Eastern European transit and destination countries/entity, with the exception of FYROM. Foreign victims⁹⁰ identified and referred for assistance in Albania, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Kosovo, Montenegro and Serbia in the first 5 months of 2003 only represent 20% of the total number of foreign victims identified in these countries/entity in the course of 2002. The data from the IOM Kosovo Counter-trafficking Unit also indicate that the number of repatriated victims from Moldova, Romania and Bulgaria during the period of 2000 to 2002 from Kosovo decreased:

Table 2.30

	2000	2001	2002	Total
Moldova	72	71	32	175
Romania	20	36	19	75
Bulgaria	10	10	4	24

Source IOM Kosovo-Return and Reintegration Project-Situation, Report, February 2000 to May 2003

Counter-trafficking experts suggest that there is no actual decrease in the trafficked persons. Rather, it appears that trafficking in human beings has basically "moved underground", to render the identification of victims and prosecution of traffickers more difficult. Traffickers operate in a more sophisticated way, especially by obtaining legal travel and labour documents

⁹⁰ Foreign victims are mainly identified by law enforcement units within South Eastern Europe's transit and destination countries/entity. Most Romanian, Moldovan, Bulgarian women and girls are identified during targeted raids against suspected trafficking establishments. These victims most often return to their home countries under voluntary organised return programs (87% of the total number of assisted cases).

for persons working as waitresses and cooks during the day, but who are forced into prostitution at night. Traffickers in places like Kosovo have started to pay the women just enough money to further complicate identification of victims by law enforcement authorities.

In Bulgaria and Romania women and girls are often trafficked within the country for temporary periods prior to their transfer abroad. Even if there is an increased number of nationals being identified, operations on the local market are more difficult to uncover. Police operations have led to the identification of few victims during raids. Bulgaria is the only country of origin to identify a substantial number of national victims. Out of 82 Bulgarian victims identified between September 2002 and May 2003, 90% were minors, showing a clear trend towards an increase in internal trafficking in minors⁹¹.

⁹¹ idem 17

Table 2.31: VICTIM PROFILES

		Republic of Moldova	Romania	Bulgaria
Age	18-24 years old	58%	The majority of victims	1/3 of the cases
Level of education	Minors Primary/ secondary school High school	30% at the time of trafficking 50% 2001/ 33% 2002-2003 3%-2001 / 11% 2002-2003	over 20% 66% 41%-2000/ 33%-2001 24%-2002/ 12%- 2003	Half of the assisted victims Low level of education na
Reasons for leaving	Low income Unemployment	Low wages Scarce employment 89%	Low income Unemployment	Wish for better life Unemployment
Methods of recruitment	Direct contacts Responses to newspapers False job promises False travel schemes	60% Na 65% 16%	50% 50%	59% 4%
Marital status	Single Married Separated or divorced Mothers	65% 15% 15% 42-48%	Na Na Na 10%,	Most of the victims
Place of origin	Capital/City Southern part of the country Northern part of the country	26% Chisinau and Municipality 18% Cahul 9% Balti; 7% Ungheni; 6% Transnistria and others	13% Muntenia (Bucharest/ centr. part) 15%Transilvania 10% Oltenia- southeast part 50% Moldova northeast part	Sofia, Varna, Burgas, Plovdiv and Vidin Southern areas border, the fYR of Macedonia, Greece and Turkey
Transportation routes	Seized documentation Without proper documentation Crossing the border through Crossing border illegally	29% 23%	Transported by middlemen (Romanian, Yugoslav or Austrian nationals) Illegally through unofficial border entry points	Through fYR of Macedonia and Greece or Romania and/or Serbia to Hungary and Western Europe

Sources: Regional Clearing Point Report 2003

Section 3: Conclusions

As we mentioned several times in the study it is very difficult to obtain reliable data and coherent information on trafficking in women and girls. This is not only due to the lack of data given the clandestine nature of trafficking activities, but also to the fact that data change considerably according to the viewpoints taken. Dissent prevails when it comes to basic concepts. To return to the example given in the beginning of the study, where is the borderline between, on the one hand, trafficking for the purpose of sexual exploitation, implying coercion, threats and violence and, on the other hand, prostitution on a 'voluntary' basis? Various studies on women in the sex business and their health indicate that a majority of women have serious health problems – physical, psychological and mental, as a result of trauma - and are exposed to life-threatening risks.⁹² Many women who have been trafficked stay – once they paid their debts – in prostitution, feeling unworthy of any other activity. Thus, a lot of questions with regard to fundamental issues remain open, adding to the difficulty of designing appropriate responses.

Women victims of trafficking are recruited among the poorest countries of Europe. Moldova continues to have one of the lowest incomes per capita in Europe and ranks second lowest (before Tajikistan) among all East European and NIS economies in the UNDP's human development index (108th out of 175 countries listed). As described in the part on Bulgaria, given the high unemployment figures, affecting in particular women, 450 000 young Bulgarians would be prepared to take a risk in finding a job abroad. Women are thus doubled victimised, first living in an environment with few options for individual development, and second, simply by being women with less opportunities than men. A further burden arises from the fact that most societies in South Eastern Europe are male-dominated, leaving the women with additional responsibilities regarding the household and children. And finally, the majority of women and girls is recruited from the most disadvantaged and marginalised parts of the society, which is often a minority group such as the Roma and Turks. Poverty and discrimination against women leaves many women with no other choice than to migrate – generally without access to informal safe migration networks - which paves the way to traffickers who benefit from their misery. This brings us back to the question the possible implications of EU-enlargement on migration and consequently on trafficking in women and girls.

EU-Enlargement, Migration and Trafficking in Women

The key finding of existing empirical research on East-West migration potential that future flows after the accession of CEECs will probably be relatively small. This holds true even in the scenario under which free movement were to be introduced directly after enlargement. The findings on potential flows apply primarily to the countries which already joined the EU and it is still an open question if SEE countries will show a similar emigration pattern. Moreover, irregular migration to and through EU countries is expected to increase slightly in the period immediately following EU enlargement. It is assumed that, due to the possibility to move freely on EU territory but the simultaneous restrictions to access the labour markets, the likelihood of citizens from the new member states to illegally enter employment in the initial member states will rise.

Given the already observed growing involvement of women from Eastern Europe in short-term income seeking mobility on the EU territory, it could also be expected that migrant women will be over-represented among undocumented circular migrants. Three factors lead to the assumption of increasing gendered "migration pressure" from Eastern Europe in the context of enlargement.

⁹² idem 12 referring to J.G. Raymond: Health Effects of Prostitution (Coalition Against Trafficking in Women, 1998).

First, the fact that, despite rising unemployment rates in most of the EU countries the demand for the undocumented work of foreign-born women is considerable and growing. This raises expectations about opportunities in the EU, potentially making women more susceptible to recruitment. Second, the "feminisation of poverty", as said above, is an important push factor for the migration of women in search of employment. Third, one can observe new migration behaviour regarding the motivation of women to "install into mobility". Particularly in the SEE countries the migration of women is increasingly motivated by economic reasons.

The ways in which EU enlargement will impact on trafficking in women from the acceding countries is difficult to predict. Some of the already observed patterns, particularly regarding trafficking victims from countries of the first accession wave, do however allow us to make some general projections. First, an apparent reduction of trafficking has been observed among women from accession countries immediately after the lifting of visa requirements. This suggests that liberalising the entry conditions enabled potential victims to devise mobility strategies while at the same time avoiding the previous risks of trafficking. Second, in the case of Romania – for which visa requirements were lifted only in 2001 – the possibility to enter freely the Schengen area induced initially an apparent rise in the number of victims (see Figure 2.4), followed however by a clear decline. A similar hump-shape (rise followed by decline) of the perceived number of victims is very likely to be the effect of EU accession for Bulgaria and Romania. It remains nonetheless open how large the trafficking flows will be in the medium run. The rationale for expecting that they will persist at rather non-negligible levels is related to the existent migration pressure and the still restricted access to EU labour markets even after accession. Under such circumstances, since women lack access to informal migration networks their vulnerability to becoming dependent on traffickers will not cease.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are a result of what we would consider priority areas, and thus do not represent an exhaustive and recapitulatory list of all issues raised in this study.

A Legal Provisions

Anti-Discrimination

Women's empowerment is one of the basic pre-requisites to improve the overall situation of women and girls and thus fight against trafficking. Women's basic rights continue to be inadequately protected in most countries of SEE. The rights of minority groups are also not respected or implemented in an adequate way. Thus, girls and women from minority groups are particularly prone to being discriminated and consequently to becoming victims of trafficking.

To the governments of Romania, Moldova and Bulgaria:

- Anti-discrimination legislation with regard to women's and minorities' rights should be reviewed to ensure that it complies with international standards;
- Such legislation should be implemented in a rigorous manner;
- Positive discrimination measures should be introduced to foster an adequate participation of women and minority groups in all areas of societal activities.

Impunity

Impunity represents a core problem of combating trafficking in human beings. In the majority of the cases, perpetrators go unpunished. Victims of trafficking often refuse to co-operate with the authorities for different reasons: (i) they are ill-treated by law enforcement officials, (ii) once identified, they do not want to relive their traumatising situation by reporting the experience to the police, given that they would be deported sooner or later anyway, (iii) they fear retaliation by the traffickers against themselves or their families. In addition, in many countries, there is no effective victim protection.

In this context, legislation at the national level and (recently) at the EU level proposes as an incentive for co-operation the issuing of a residence permit to the victim. However, the fact that a residence permit should be (or is in the case of Bulgaria) conditional, is highly questionable from a human rights perspective. Many NGOs are of the opinion that it is unacceptable to put the victim under further pressure. A residence permit should thus be issued automatically to alleviate the situation of the victim.

On 29 April 2004, an EU "Council Directive on the residence permit issued to third-country nationals who are victims of trafficking in human beings or who have been the subject of an action to facilitate illegal immigration, who co-operate with the competent authorities"⁹³ (Council Directive 2004/81/EC) was adopted. In the explanatory statement of its original proposal, it is argued "Victims may remain underground or be swiftly deported, but either way they do not disclose the invaluable information they have gained from their situation and what they have seen and heard. Yet this is precisely the sort of information the authorities responsible for investigating and prosecuting such crimes need to obtain in order to be able to combat them effectively. If the victims can be persuaded to co-operate with the authorities it may be possible to extract the

⁹³ idem 25

*different pieces of information in their possession (names, addresses, organisation, etc.). The more this co-operation serves the interests of the victim, the better they will be as a source of information. It is therefore necessary to offer incentives to victims to co-operate, and the incentives must be tailored to their concerns.*⁹⁴ According to the final Directive, victims would have a reflection period to consider co-operation and, depending on national law, they would receive free legal aid and translation service, where appropriate. Further provisions such as offering reintegration measures, medical treatment and psychological assistance as well as issuing prolonged residence permits under certain conditions are covered by the Directive. It will now be largely up to the member states of the EU to implement this Directive in the best possible way for the victims.

To the member states of the EU, and to all parties (especially NGOs) in the EU - in particular, in Germany - that give advice in the procedure of adopting legislation in accordance with the Directive:

- The Directive should be implemented in the EU in a way that maximises benefits for victims, taking full account of their human rights;

To the governments of SEE:

- There is an urgent need to ensure the protection of the victims in the countries in SEE, implementing effective victim protection programmes.

Another issue which we did not treat in the study – due to a lack of relevant literature - but would like to mention at this stage is the demand side of sexual services. The question is to which extent should clients who knowingly use the services of trafficked prostitutes be prosecuted. In this matter, the Minister of Justice of Bavaria recently announced to submit a legislative proposal to the Federal Council of Germany.⁹⁵

B Migration Policies of the EU Member States

The postponement of the free movement of workers for up to 7 years after EU accession is likely to merely defer the migration flows and to maintain uncertainty about their scale. As shown in the study, restrictive migration policies are likely to adversely affect the high propensity of Eastern European women to search employment in the EU: given the existent demand for their work, they are trapped into informal types of mobility. Some EU countries already recognised the need to regularise existent informal flows of circular migrants and/or to develop bilateral agreements for temporary employment of East European citizens. The existent data on how the quotas agreed were filled⁹⁶ - e.g. between Italy and Moldova or between Italy, Spain, Portugal and Romania – demonstrate the disproportionate ratio of women migrants making use of these policy instruments. Such quotas will also provide more reliable information on the propensity to emigrate in case of free movement.

To the member states of the EU:

- Current migration policies of individual EU member states should be reviewed in view of introducing more consistent options for the legal employment of East European migrants –

⁹⁴ Proposal for a Council Directive, COM (2002) 71 final, 11/02/2002

⁹⁵ Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung, 28 May 2004, p. 4

⁹⁶ A thorough, gender-differentiating analysis of migrants making use of such temporary employment programmes is provided by Hars (2003) for the case of Hungary.

e.g. in forms of quotas for specific sectors – which is considered to be a useful policy making strategy particularly for the pre-accession period of Romania and Bulgaria and regarding the high migration pressure in Moldova.

C The Needs of Children

The situation with regard to the children affected of trafficking needs to be urgently addressed. There is a clear trend that clients are more and more interested in “virgins”, thus asking for children between 12 – 14 years. Children mainly come from a very poor and/or abusive environment or from orphanages. They are either sold by their own families, kidnapped or lured by traffickers. Sometimes, they are the children of women who have been trafficked and enter the same chain themselves, given that there is nobody who takes care of them, or they are trying to escape a violent environment. It has been reported that Roma children begging in the streets in France were picked up, deported and brought back to their families who had initially sold them. There are basically no reliable data on the phenomenon of trafficking in children available. According to different estimates, hundreds of thousands of children are trafficked for the purpose of begging, sexual exploitation, cheap work and removal of organs. To sum up, there should be an overall strategy on how to protect and assist children in order to enable them to have a new start and develop in a healthy way.

To the EU member states, international and regional organisations, and all other parties concerned:

- There is an urgent need to commission studies on the situation and needs of trafficked children in order to being able to evaluate the overall situation;

To the EU member states and governments of SEE:

- There is an urgent need for especially trained personnel at law enforcement authorities;

To the EU member states, governments of SEE, international and regional organisations, and to the NGOs active in the region:

- There is an urgent need for projects creating children-specific support and reintegration centres, offering shelter, accommodation, medical and psychological support.

D Prevention

Ongoing considerable efforts should be made with awareness-raising campaigns, in particular with regard to rural areas and small-/medium-sized cities. Criminal networks are changing their *modus operandi* such as operating with female recruiters or offering flight tickets and tourist visas to Western Europe (instead of bus travels via the Balkan countries). Attention must be drawn to such new trends as quickly as possible.

To the governments of SEE, in particular to Romania, Moldova and Bulgaria, international and regional organisations as well as NGOs active in the region:

- Campaigns exposing the new trends should be launched;
- Such campaigns should be reinforced in rural areas and small-/medium-sized cities;

- Further campaigns should treat the issue of women's rights;

To the EU members states, international and regional organisations, and all other interested parties:

- Apart from campaigns, there is an urgent need for research and studies on a variety of issues comprising data collection, country-specific reports with regard to sociological aspects, children in general (as mentioned above), the demand side of sexual exploitation.

E Victim's Assistance and Reintegration

From a human rights perspective, major focus should be directed at the support, rehabilitation and reintegration of victims. The reintegration of victims refers to a wide range of services that aim at taking care of the victim's immediate, mid-term and long-term needs. Such reintegration comprises short- and long-term shelter, medical examination, medical treatment, short-term and long-term psychological treatment, family counselling, legal advice, education, profiling of victims with regard to their skills and interests, vocational training accordingly as well as support when searching for a job or setting up a business.

A quick fix can thus not be the goal of reintegration measures, there should rather be a case-by-case assessment on the basis of which long-term solutions should be sought.

These considerable tasks are currently carried out to a large extent by international organisations and NGOs.

An NGO that is reported to work in a very successful way in Romania is "Reaching Out". The philosophy of Reaching Out is to solve problems in a sustainable way and to give priority to the protection of the victims' rights. The well being of the victim is considered above the interests of all other persons, organisations and governmental agencies. *"Reaching Out aims to empower women and girls, and to restore or maintain their ability to build an independent life by conferring respect, dignity and acceptance on each individual victim. Women and girls can stay in the shelter as long as it is necessary for them to start an independent life. They have access to services that are tailored according to their individual needs, developmental stage and the different environments from which they come"*⁹⁷. According to an evaluation of their work, since 1998, 74 women have stayed in the shelter. The majority of these women does now work, others have a scholarship to study or to finish school. Only 5 women have returned to sex work.

It should, however, be mentioned, that the victim may not always be interested in taking part in a reintegration programme. Many women victims of trafficking do not turn to organisations that offer rehabilitation and reintegration programmes, in particular not to those which launched large returning programme campaigns, given their families and community members could suspect that they were trafficked. Therewith, they are trying to avoid stigmatisation. Another reason for not participating in reintegration programmes is simply that they would like to leave the country, which initially did not offer them any future perspective, again as soon as possible.

Against this background, organisations engaged in reintegration programmes need to operate with the highest degree of confidentiality and should be able to offer a real alternative to the search of a job abroad.

⁹⁷ idem 16

To the governments of Romania, Moldova and Bulgaria, international and regional organisations, and NGOs active in the area:

- Except for data concerning the work of Reaching Out, there is in general a lack of information on the effectiveness of reintegration programmes. Thus, there should be an evaluation of reintegration programmes in the countries of the region;
- Reintegration programmes should be monitored;
- There is an urgent need for more space in shelters (relating in particular to Bulgaria);
- There is as well need for more space in shelters for internally trafficked victims (this relates especially to Romania);
- There is an important need for children specific shelters, including long-term accommodation and support;
- Moreover, there is considerable lack of long-term psychological and psychiatric treatment (referring particularly to Moldova).

There is further great need for:

- An assessment of labour market data in each country (for this study: Romania, Moldova and Bulgaria) in order to propose education and vocational training to women according to the demand;
- Small business start-up loans for individual women to become entrepreneurs.

As far as health related issues are concerned, there is generally no medical treatment with regard to HIV/AIDS available. Testing should be voluntary and the treatment free of charge.

To the EU member states:

- As recently stated by the UN in the context of the latest worldwide figures on the spreading of HIV/AIDS, there should be reinforced effort by Western industrialised countries to help fight against the infection and disease. There is an urgent need for long-term medical treatment free of charge for affected persons, in particular as far as Moldova is concerned.

In the long run reintegration of trafficking victims can only work successfully if common efforts are made by EU member states, SEE governments, international and regional organisations in co-operation with NGOs.

F Networking

To the government of Germany, and other interested parties in Germany:

According to German local NGOs⁹⁸, it would be highly desirable to receive funds for organising regular meetings with local and international NGOs active in the countries of origin of the women in order to exchange views and reinforce co-operation.

⁹⁸ According to members of the „Bundesweiter Koordinierungskreis gegen Frauenhandel und Gewalt an Frauen im Migrationsprozess e. V.“ (KOK)

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Annex 1: Internet links dealing i.a. with “Trafficking”

Organisation for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE)
<http://www.osce.org/>

Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR)
<http://www.osce.org/odihr/>

Council of Europe (COE)
<http://www.coe.int>

Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ)
<http://www.gtz.de/traffickinginwomen>

European Union (EU)
<http://europa.eu.int/>

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)
<http://www.unhcr.ch/>

International Child Development Centre (UNICEF)
<http://www.unicef.org/>

United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM)
<http://www.unifem.org/>

International Labour Organisation (ILO)
<http://www.ilo.org/>

World Health Organisation (WHO)
<http://www.who.int/home-page/>

United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UNHABITAT)
<http://www.unhabitat.org>

International Human Rights Law Group
http://www.hrlawgroup.org/initiatives/trafficking_persons/

European Council on Refugees and Exiles
<http://www.ecre.org/research/smuggle.shtml>

Foundation against Trafficking in Women (STV)
<http://www.bayswan.org/FoundTraf.html>

Coalition to Abolish Slavery and Trafficking (CAST)
<http://www.trafficked-women.org>

Coalition against Trafficking in Women
<http://www.uri.edu/artsci/wms/hughes/pubvio.htm>

Global Alliance against Traffic in Women (GAATW)
<http://www.inet.co.th/org/gaatw>

End Child Prostitution and Trafficking / Child Wise
www.ecpat.org

International Criminal Police Organisation (Interpol)
<http://www.interpol.com/>

European Law Enforcement Organisation (Europol)
<http://www.europol.eu.int/>

International Organisation for Migration (IOM)
<http://www.iom.int/>

The Protection Project
<http://www.protectionproject.org>

Antislavery International
<http://www.antislavery.org>

abolish - Anti-Slavery Portal
<http://www.iabolish.com/>

Free the Slaves
<http://www.freetheslaves.net>

Organisation for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE)
Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR)
Legal database
www.legislationline.org

Human Rights Watch
www.hrw.org/women

Annex 2: Governmental Programmes, International Organisations, and NGOs engaged in Combating Trafficking in Romania, Moldova and Bulgaria

GOVERNMENT OF ROMANIA

Project/activities	Focus of Activities	Timeframe	Donor	Cooperating partners	Implementing partners
MINISTRY OF INTERIOR / ORGANISED CRIME AND DRUGS GENERAL DEPARTMENT					
Legal Framework	Legal framework to meet the European standards: Act no. 678 on the prevention and countering trafficking; Organised Crime Act was adopted (Act no 39) stating the conditions for an offence to be classed as organised crime and the means to fight organised crime.	2001 January 2003	Romanian Government, SECI, EU, USAID	Stability Pact Task Force on Trafficking	
National Action Plan	Taking steps to set up 9 shelters for the victims of trafficking. 5 locations that have already being identified.	ongoing		Ministry of Administration and Interior	
Project Reflex Romania	Liaison officers network established to build up effective mechanism to support co-operation with law enforcement agencies from abroad and to store a large volume of data and intelligence regarding trafficking.	2002-2003	UK		
Regional and International Co-operation	Co-operation with SECI Centre; International co-operation: Signing of bi-lateral and tri-lateral agreements with Hungary, Holland, Austria, Czech Rep. and Moldova establishing a joint form for the passover of information on individual cases.	ongoing			

MINISTRY OF INTERIOR/INSTITUTE FOR CRIME PREVENTION				
Prevention	National prevention plan for combating trafficking has been developed for all countries. In each county there is a focal point in charge of implementing prevention projects: education programme, media campaign, statistical database.	May 2002	MI, MJ	
Raising awareness	Develop different brochures for different target groups: journalists, police, teachers etc.	March 2003	MLSP Department of Labour	IOM, MLSP Dept of Labour, Profamilia
Capacity building	Training for females aged 15-25 in schools and universities.	planned		Partner for Change
AGENCY FOR CHILD PROTECTION				
Assistance for children	Providing psychological support for children who are identified as victims of trafficking; Follow up on reintegration process until person is 18.	2001		IAS, NGOs
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION				
Co-operation	Participating on the National Committee and deputy chair for working sub-group for prevention and raising awareness.			
Raising awareness	Training of didactic staff; Elaboration of Trafficking in Women curricula for schools; Methodology Guidelines for Teachers; Implementation of a prevention programme for youth in schools.			La Strada

INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS IN ROMANIA

Project/activities	Focus of Activities	Timeframe	Donor	Cooperating partners	Implementing partners
INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATION FOR MIGRATION (IOM)					
Prevention	People are Priceless-nation-wide mass media information campaign on dangers of trafficking.	2003	Norwegian Government, MFA	Tempo Advertising Agency	
	Educational campaign Participation of School in the Prevention and Combat of Trafficking in Human Beings: 32 workshops (ToT) and distribution of information material all over the country.		ME		
	Educational campaign in summer camps Stop Trafficking in Human Beings: dissemination of information material in 11 camps (500 students and teachers)			National Agency for School Camps and Tourism, ARDOR	
	Education campaign with teachers and inspectors of religion: dissemination of the new methodological manual specially designed for teachers of religion; 2 workshops on methodology and training for trainers for selected teachers in 13 counties.	March 2003	Italian Government, MI	ME, Patriarchy of the Romanian Orthodox Church	
	Information seminars on the involvement of the church in the prevention and combat of human trafficking; Awareness raising seminars on prevention for clergy.	June - October 2002 March - April 2003	Patriarchy of the Romanian Orthodox Church	Media, local NGOs	Local NGOs
Assistance	Direct Assistance to victims of trafficking; Agreement of Co-operation with MI on the functioning of a Centre for temporary protection; Providing medical assistance and expert	2003	US State Department, Bureau for Population, Refugees and		Estuar Foundation (2001- 2002) and Church and Society

	counselling for returned victims of trafficking; Expanding local NGO network to provide assistance for victims of trafficking. Pre-arrival assistance to victims; Post-arrival assistance: first night reception; gynaecological and STI examinations; general practitioner assistance; STD treatment; HIV/AIDS tests; psychosocial diagnosis; social and psychosocial counselling; group therapy; psychiatric support; other medical services. Systematic actions to secure assisted voluntary return and reintegration of trafficking victims.	2002	Italian Government, MI	Migration		
Research Co-operation and Co-ordination	Nation-wide study on the Vulnerability to trafficking in humans of the young female population in Romania developed by Life Quality Research Institute, Centre for Urban and Rural Sociology and Mercury Research and Marketing Consultants. Media monitoring daily monitoring of 50 Romanian media outlets on topics relating to trafficking in human beings and migration in general.	March 2001			MI, Border Police, Crime squad	
Law Reform	Contribution and lobby for the drafting of the Law on trafficking in human beings techniques and methodology.					
UNITED NATIONS CHILDRENS FUND (UNICEF)						
Research and assessment	Research and assessment of awareness raising campaigns focusing prevention of trafficking in children.	March- April 2003			Local NGOs	UNICEF in co-operation with Columbia University NY

Child Trafficking policy development, prevention and intervention to protect the rights of victims of trafficking	Promote mechanisms to provide special protection measures for children victims of trafficking and victims of violence: Training seminar for media representatives; National Conference on Romanian policy in child trafficking; Training rural policemen on issues of trafficking in human beings; Develop training materials.	2003	Pending availability of funding		Inter-ministerial Committee, Centre for Legal Studies, NGO Network
HIV/AIDS prevention among especially vulnerable young people	Health education programme with emphasis on healthy life styles. Mobile teams offer counselling to commercial sex workers in Bucharest.	2002-2004			Local NGO ARAS
UNAIDS - Joint United Nations Programmes on HIV/AIDS					
Trafficking prevention, capacity building for local NGOs, support for legislation development	Support for the ARAS programme on HIV/AIDS prevention among sex workers in Bucharest; Legislation review and change to create environment to allow expansion of HIV/STI prevention among sex workers.	since 1999			ARAS
UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (UNDP)					
International co-operation, law enforcement	Regional project (14 countries) to create law enforcement best practice manual and training for border police; Regional hotline project agreed by government	2003 planned	Pending availability of funds		CIDCR

SOUTHEAST EUROPE CO-OPERATIVE INITIATIVE (SECI)					
International co-operation, law enforcement	Establishing the Regional Task Force on Trafficking in Human Beings.	ongoing			MIs and local police from SECI countries
	Regional meetings: 12-13 March 2001 Skopje, 9-10 July 2001 Tessononiki. Regional Law Enforcement cooperation and strategies.	ongoing			
Victims assistance, international co-operation and law enforcement	Joint training session for police and NGOs.	September 2001		IOM	SECI, NGOs
	Memorandum of understanding between IOM Headquarters and SECI Centre.	early 2001		IOM	SECI, NGOs
UN HIGH COMMISSIONER FOR REFUGEES (UNHCR)					
Comprehensive migration strategy	Within the framework of the EU Twinning Project with Denmark and Sweden, UNHCR contributes substantively to the elaboration of a comprehensive migration strategy (which will i.a. deal with legal and irregular migration, including asylum, prevention of trafficking in human beings, integration policies for third country nationals etc.).	ongoing			
INTERNATIONAL LABOR ORGANIZATION (ILO)					
Improvement in job placement standards	Training of the staff in criminal prosecution authorities and labour inspectors: to exercise better control over private employment agencies and to more easily recognise the activities of traffickers in the recruitment sector	October 2003 - March 2004		Sector Project against Trafficking in Women (GTZ/BMZ)	

NGO'S IN ROMANIA

Project/activities	Focus of Activities	Timeframe	Donor	Cooperating partners	Implementing partners
CENTRE FOR LEGAL RESOURCES					
Information campaign	Organised a seminar for NGOs and government in order to present new law.	2002			
Monitoring and Implementing the Law Project	Legal assistance and representation will be provided to all victims of trafficking. Committee composed of lawyers and legal consultants will monitor the activities and will prepare reports.	planned		IOM, MI	
Training / Capacity building	Training for judicial staff (police officers, judges, professors, prosecutors) will be organised 6 months after the monitoring project take place in order to have gaps identified.	planned			
Review Committee Group	Review Committee Group to review UNDP's regional manual project.	March 2003		UNDP	
THE ROMANIAN ASSOCIATION AGAINST AIDS (ARAS)					
Prevention and raising awareness	HIV/AIDS prevention programme among vulnerable groups; Health prevention for commercial sex workers in Bucharest.	2000 ongoing	USAID, Soros Foundation		

PARTNERSHIP FOR EQUALITY CENTRE			
Prevention	Implementing prevention programme in 8 Placement Centres; Education of institutionalised girls in order to reduce their vulnerability in front of trafficking.	January – November 2003	
NETWORK OF LOCAL NGOs – FAMNET			
Prevention, raising awareness, assistance to trafficked persons	FAMNET coalition of 15 local NGOs working on the issue of trafficking; Prevention campaign; Hotline for the victims of trafficking; Web side for the involved organisations.	March 2002	USAID
PARTNERS FOR CHANGE			
Prevention	Organise conference on prevention of trafficking and how to best assist victims.	March 2003	UNICEF, Ecumenical Association of Churches in Romania (AID Rom)
	Implementing prevention programme in several vocational schools; Training stipends for young women at risks.	2002	IREX
	Editing and publishing anti-trafficking manual for trainers (teachers, medical staff, police officers, priests, social assistants, the media, NGOs) in Romanian and English.	2003	Partners for Change, UNICEF, AID Rom
			Local NGOs

REACHING OUT					
Assistance to the victims of trafficking	Long-term shelter – working with victims of trafficking for a period of at least 1 year offering: a) counselling; b) life-skills and vocational training; c) job placement assistance; d) medical assistance; e) education and accommodation; f) tailoring shop.	March 1999 – ongoing 2003 2004	FAMNET, different regional networks, NGOs Sector Project against Trafficking in Women (GTZ/BMZ)		
Awareness raising and prevention campaign	Trafficking awareness and prevention campaign, designed by the beneficiaries, implemented throughout Romania; Part of the preparations for the campaign was undercover surveillance and recording of trafficking activities.	ongoing			
Networking	Part of the several different networks: informal regional network @net, LIFT; Initiated the development of the NGOs network in Macedonia, similar to FAMNET.	ongoing June-Aug 2003			
Regional Co-operation and Training	Co-operation with FBI and SECI to bring girls to give testimonies for multi-national trial process against trafficking; Work with FBI and Romanian law enforcement agencies to develop training material and conduct training classes for law enforcement officers and prosecutors.	2002 – 2003 2003		SECI, FBI, law enforcement agencies	

CENTRE FOR SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Prevention	Prevention programme for teenagers in rural areas of Gagauzia –peer counselling; Provide educational and informative programmes about trafficking in human Beings, international and Moldovan law, international and Moldovan organisations involved in anti - trafficking activities; Self-esteem building for young women/girls, promoting school complexion; Providing information on the legal migration procedure.	February – June 2003	IOM, EU	Gender Centre
SOCIETY FOR CHILDREN AND PARENTS (SCOP)				
Assistance for the victims of trafficking	Development of a shelter for victims in Timis County, providing: counselling, medical assistance, education and accommodation	July 2004 – July 2004	Sector Project against Trafficking in Women (GTZ/BMZ)	
Networking	Creating a county service network	July 2004 – July 2004	GTZ	
Training	Organising training for relevant professional groups dealing with trafficking	July 2004 – July 2004	GTZ	
SAVE THE CHILDREN FUND				
Assistance for the victims of trafficking	Providing social reintegration programmes, social assistance and vocational training.	May 2002 ongoing	ISCA (International Save the Children Alliance)	Directorate for Combating Organised Crime (MI), IOM
Professional training	Professional training for policemen who are investigating child trafficking cases.	May 2002 ongoing	ISCA	Directorate for Combating Organised Crime (MI), IOM
Prevention campaign	Prevention activities carried out in schools, public campaign.	ongoing	ISCA	

Regional research	Regional research on child trafficking to extend existing services for rehabilitation of children victims of trafficking.	October 2002 – October 2003	Open Society Foundation, Global March Against Child Labour	NGOs in the SEE region	
ENACT (networking)	"ENACT" – Programme for the establishment of a European Network Against Child Trafficking (focused on: information, coordination, trainings).	December 2002 – December 2003	EC (co-ordinated by SCF Italy)	SCF Spain, SCF UK, SCF Denmark, SCF Programme in Bulgaria.	

GOVERNMENT OF MOLDOVA

Project/activities	Focus of Activities	Timeframe	Donor	Cooperating partners	Implementing partners
GOVERNMENT OF MOLDOVA					
National Committee to combat Trafficking in Human Beings	Development of national anti-trafficking strategy; Implementation of the National Plan of Action.	2001-ongoing		IOs, NGOs	
Secretary of the National Committee to Combat Trafficking in Human Beings	Monitoring the activities of the ministries with regard to trafficking.	ongoing		IOs, NGOs	
Parliament	Adoption of the new Criminal and Criminal Procedure Codes.				
Centre for Drafting of Legislation	Preparing draft laws for the ratification of the UN Convention against Trans-border Organised Crime, its two supplementary protocols and the Criminal Law Convention on Corruption.			Inter-ministerial working group Centre for Drafting of Legislation	
MINISTRY OF INTERNAL AFFAIRS AND GENERAL INSPECTORATE OF THE POLICE					
Anti-trafficking Unit	Establishment of the anti-trafficking units.	May 2002			
International Co-operation	Participation in a wide range of seminars, training sessions, etc; chairing the sub working group on Prevention and Awareness Raising. Co-operation with SECI Centre and SPTF; Nomination of liaison officer in SECI Centre; Participation in Operation Mirage.	2002 - 2003 ongoing 2003			NGOs, IOs SECI

Raising the Awareness of the Specialised Police Officers	Training of specialists and recruits; Developing training modules for the Police Academy and the Police Training Unit.	2003		Stability Pact	La Strada, Police Academy
MINISTRY OF LABOUR AND SOCIAL PROTECTION					
Social Rehabilitation of Victims	Chairing the working sub-group on assistance and social rehabilitation of victims of trafficking.	September 2000			
Vocational Training	Possibilities for vocational training and job opportunities for victims.	ongoing		IOM, MLSP Dept of Labour	
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION					
Co-operation	Participating on the National Committee and deputy chair for working sub-group for prevention and raising awareness.				
Raising Awareness	Training of didactic staff; Elaboration of Trafficking in Women curricula for schools; Methodology Guidelines for Teachers; Implementation of a prevention programme for youth in schools.				La Strada
MINISTRY OF JUSTICE					
Legislative Framework	Chair of the working sub-group on legislative framework and its enforcement; Adoption and entry into force of the criminal code, June 12, 2003; Preparing amendments for the criminal code in advance of its pending revision; Preparing amendment for the criminal code for children regarding age of liability.	September 2002 - ongoing			MFA, MI, MJ, ME, ML

INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS IN MOLDOVA

Project/activities	Focus of Activities	Timeframe	Donor	Cooperating partners	Implementing partners
INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATION FOR MIGRATION (IOM)					
Raising Awareness	Media campaign: Workshops for Journalists; Information campaign on TV, Radio, Press You Are Not a Commodity; TV programme Contra-Traffic; Anti-trafficking Radio Programme; National radio programme Traffic STOP; Press monitoring.	2001-2003	US State Department, Local press, State TV, Makler, NOBA - Group	US State Department, Local press, State TV, Makler, NOBA - Group	Redactia sapt. "Florile Dalbe" Connectus/RUSSIA USA
	Street Awareness Campaign: information material has been prepared and distributed.	2001-2002	IOM		ADV-Prime Studio, La Strada
	Theatre Play: The Seventh Kafana performed in capital and rural areas of Moldova.	2001-2003	IOM, SDC		Coliseum Art Centre
Social Assistance Programme	Victim Rehabilitation Centre Recovery and Repatriation: Pre-arrival assistance to victims; Post-arrival assistance: first night reception; Gynaecological and STI examinations; General practitioner assistance; HIV/AIDS tests; Psychological diagnosis; Social and psychosocial counselling; Group therapy; Psychiatric support; Other medical services.	September 2001 - 2003	IOM, SDC, US Bureau of Population, Refugees and Migration, EU	MH, MLSP, MIA, La Strada	IOM

Reintegration Programme	Vocational training; Apprenticeship Programme Comprehensive package; Income generating projects; Job insertion/reinsertion.	2001-2003	IOM, EU	MLSP, Island of Hope, Romexpress, Voc. Schools, NGOs, Ten Plus	IOM, Art Elegant, Compasiune, ICS
Law enforcement	Drafting best Practice Manual on Counter Trafficking Investigation for Moldovan Law Enforcement Officers and Prosecutors developing law enforcement training module; Supporting law enforcement and judiciary structures to prosecute crimes of trafficking in women more effectively.	2002-2003	SIDA	MLSP, Anti-trafficking Units, General Prosecutors Office	IOM
Co-operation and Co-ordination	Networking visits to transit and destination countries: legislation and its implementation, investigation procedures and prosecution, co-operation between law enforcement, victims of trafficking and NGOs.	2002	IOM	MIA, MFA, MJ, GPO, DBC, Parliament	
Training and equipment	Seminars on investigation techniques and methodology; Technical equipment provision: creation of operational database of persons involved in the recruitment and other stages of trafficking.	2002 - 2003	IOM	MIA (Dept combating organised crime and corruption)	
UNITED NATIONS CHILDRENS FUND (UNICEF)					
Co-ordination on child trafficking	Establishment of a Working Group on Child Trafficking to identify current programmes and initiatives. Mapping all ongoing and planned activities with a view to co-ordinate implementation of different projects.	August 2002 - ongoing			IOs, NGOs

Co-ordination with Government on Anti-Trafficking	Participation in three working groups on prevention, protection and prosecution, established under the framework of the National Working Group on Trafficking in Human Beings.	2002 - ongoing			
Life-skills education for prevention of youth unemployment and trafficking, pilot programme for boarding schools	The project specifically targets children and young people from institutions at high risk of unemployment and trafficking, after they graduate from boarding schools. 7 boarding schools are involved in the pilot project. Main activities include: Long-term training of trainers (Educators) in life skills education (LSE), LSE activities for students, a summer school on LSE for students of 7th, 8th and 9th grade and, the development of a Facilitators Guide on LSE.	2003			Centre for info and documentation on child rights, Youth Employment Centre STAR, ME Dept. Youth Services
Child Friendly Centre for Child Victims of Trafficking	Establishment of a separate Child Friendly Centre for the rehabilitation and social reintegration of child victims of trafficking. The centre will benefit from all the services currently provided by the IOM Rehabilitation Centre for adult victims whilst in addition providing a separate location and specialised services for children victims. Staff working with children will also receive specialised training.	2003			UNICEF, IOM, OSCE
AMICUL Centre for psychosocial assistance to children and families	Provision of specialised multidisciplinary psychosocial services for children and families at risk of abuse and neglect. The Centre will also provide long-term support services to children victims of trafficking and their families.	2003-2005			National Centre for the Prevention of Child Abuse

Capacity building of professionals working with children victims of trafficking	Specialised training to all psychosocial workers working in projects assisting children victims of trafficking.	2003				UNICEF, OSCE
HIV/AIDS prevention among especially vulnerable young people	Peer education activities to inform adolescents and young people on HIV/AIDS prevention. Main activities include training of trainer for peer educators and a theatre forum.	2002 - ongoing				CIDCR
Research	Research and assessment of the awareness raising campaigns focusing on prevention of trafficking in children.	March - April 2003			Local NGOs	UNICEF in co-operation with Columbia University NY
UNITED NATIONS POPULATION FUND (UNFPA)						
Reproductive Health	Support for the National Programme for Family Planning and Protection of Reproductive Health	2001-2003				UNFPA
ORGANISATION FOR SECURITY AND CO-OPERATION IN EUROPE (OSCE)						
Technical Co-ordination of Anti-Trafficking Responses	Co-ordination & information-sharing on anti-trafficking issues in co-operation with NGOs and IOs; Maintenance of an up-dated electronic database on anti-trafficking projects.	2002-ongoing				IOs, NGOs
Assistance to the Government	Monitoring and advocacy for the development of a comprehensive national multidisciplinary anti-trafficking strategy.	2001 ongoing			OSCE	SP, IOs IOs

Legislation Review Project	Technical assistance in drafting anti-trafficking provisions for the criminal code and criminal procedure code.	2001-2003	OSCE/ODIHR, US Govt	CoE	OSCE/ODIHR, ABACELLI, IOM
Quick impact actions: direct assistance for victims of trafficking	Direct assistance for trafficked persons: Humanitarian aid for victims and their children; University Scholarships; Scholarships for vocational training; Emergency Support including psychological counselling, legal assistance, etc.	December 2002 - September 2003	OSCE		La Strada
Strengthening protection and assistance for victims of trafficking, adults and children	Capacity and institution building project: Development of victim-witness protection measures; Development of national referral mechanisms to protect and assist victims of trafficking (adults and children).	2003-2005	OSCE	Moldovan Government, NGOs, IOs	OSCE, NGOs, national institutions
Anti-trafficking training module for police	Pilot training seminars on anti-trafficking for police recruits at the Police Academy (piloting of the SPTF/ICMPD Training Module for Police); Seminars for the anti-trafficking unit.	2003	OSCE/ODIHR	MI, ICMPD, IOM	La Strada
Anti-trafficking training module for judiciary	Pilot training seminar on anti-trafficking for judiciary (piloting of the SPTF/ICMPD Training Module for Judiciary).	2003	OSCE, IOM	SP, ICMPD IOM, Moldova Supreme Court	Judicial Training Centre

NGO'S IN MOLDOVA

SAVE THE CHILDREN FUND					
Project/activities	Focus of Activities	Timeframe	Donor	Cooperating partners	Implementing partners
Prevention and awareness raising	International Conference "Poorness, Migrations, Slavery" and national seminars; Educational and informative materials on trafficking- posters-calendars , fans; monthly page in the newspaper for children and youth "Florile Dalbe" (White Flowers) Publishing, in Romanian, Don Oreste's book: histories of different victims assisted by Association Papa Giovanni XXIII.	2003 one edition in 2003 September 2002- December 2003 one edition in 2003	TACIS LIEN, US Embassy, French Embassy	State Chancellery Telerradio Moldova Assoc. Papa Giov. XXIII International Social Service Italy CONNECT US/RUSSIA USA	Hebdomadal Magazine "Florile Dalbe"
Training	Training for teachers and parents from villages' schools; Training for social assistants; Professional training and employment of alleged victims (25 persons from Hirbovat village, Anenii Noi).	2003 July 2002 – December 2003	TACIS LIEN, US Embassy, French Embassy		
Psychosocial reintegrated of repatriated victims	Assisted repatriation of trafficked victims; Assistance for victims internally trafficked; Emergency assistance, rehabilitation services for children, urgent medical treatment, urgent psychological support; Long-term assistance, medical and physical rehabilitation, long-term psychological conciliation; educational and professional opportunities; familiar reintegration, long term accommodation for minor orphans; Final reintegration (reintegration in schools, employment, reintegration in families); "Good mothers school" – conciliation for family reintegration (beneficiaries – mother victims).	May 2001 – December 2003 April 2003 – April 2004	TACIS LIEN, US Embassy CONNECT US/RUSSIA USA	Assoc. Papa Giov. XXIII International Social Service Italy	

LA STRADA

<p>Prevention and Education Campaign</p>	<p>Lectures on trafficking prevention for various target groups: groups at risks, professional groups, initiative groups; Regional seminar "Traffic in Women – Resolution Perspective"; Developing and disseminating informational and educational materials; Anti-trafficking disco-parties "Depends on You"; Anti-trafficking drawing contests "Stop Traffic in Women"; Music Caravans "Stop Traffic in Women"; Youth forums and student debates on counter-trafficking.</p>	<p>April 2002</p>	<p>ME (Youth and Sport Dept), National Education Centre, "Pro Didactica", NGOs, OSCE, UNICEF, IOM, Peace Corps, youth leaders</p>		
<p>Prevention and raising awareness</p>	<p>National Toll Free Hotline to prevent trafficking (with possibility to start rescue process); Support for rescue/repatriation and other direct support to trafficked women; Information on conditions for migrating (terms of migration and local regulations in various countries); Information for individuals/families who are looking for trafficked women.</p>	<p>September 2001 Ongoing</p>	<p>La Strada, IOM, Norwegian Embassy in Bucharest</p>	<p>State Migration Service, General Consular Department, National Hotline services</p>	
<p>Guidelines</p>	<p>Developed Methodology Guideline "Prevention of Traffic in Women" for didactic staff" – approved by ME; Developed Handbook "Social Assistance to Trafficked Persons and Phenomenon Prophylactics" for social service workers; Developed "Trafficking in Humans in Women Rights Context" for professional groups.</p>	<p>February 2002-June 2003</p>	<p>La Strada, Norwegian Embassy in Moldova</p>	<p>ME, National Educational Centre, "Pro Didactica", NGO "SIEDO", UNICEF, IOM</p>	

<p>Social assistance to victims of trafficking</p>	<p>Operating a referral mechanism to facilitate access and organise support for trafficked persons to include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rescue from trafficking network; Repatriation (travelling documents and arrangements, security); Post-repatriation (shelter, medical screening and treatment, psychological support, vocational training, etc); Basic support for victim's children and family; Social custody and monitoring; Special brochures for victims for immediate support and available services for dissemination abroad. 	<p>September 2001- December 2004</p>	<p>La Strada, OSCE</p>	<p>General Consular Department; La Strada Network; IOM; NGOs of Europe, Middle East and USA; Medical Clinics "St. Emanuil", "Virginia" and "Dalila", Caritas Moldodva; National Centre for Child Abuse Prevention (NCCAP), OSCE, UNICEF</p>	
<p>Information Campaign</p>	<p>Series of educational articles "Learn to read between the lines" in the Makler newspaper targeting groups at risk; Series of radio prevention programmes "The decision is yours" targeting youth; Series of programmes at National TV of informative and preventive nature; "You and Migration" bulletin; Thematic newspaper articles; Thematic one-time radio and TV programmes.</p>	<p>September 2001- December 2004</p>	<p>La Strada</p>	<p>National radio, Radio "Antena C", Makler newspaper, State Migration Service, NBC News, "Le Monde" French newspaper, other local newspapers</p>	
<p>Training</p>	<p>Train youth in women's human rights; Police Awareness on Trafficking in Humans; Modules developed and training being implemented for: school staff including orphanages staff; social workers; Hotline staff; journalists.</p>	<p>July 2002- December 2004</p>	<p>International Helsinki Federation for Human Rights IOM, Dutch Foreign Ministry, OSCE/ ODIHR</p>	<p>Gender Centre, ProGeneva, ADPET, IOM, MLSP, State Migration Service (SMS), MIA, Police Academy</p>	

Research	Rapid assessment survey on trafficking and forced labour; study on youth knowledge of trafficking phenomenon.	2002-2003	ILO	Local NGOs	La Strada, Civic Initiative
Networking	Creation of national anti-trafficking network consisted of local NGOs; Round Table "NGOs and State structures – partnerships to combat trafficking"; Directory of NGOs active in counter trafficking; Development of National Referral System; Member of ASTRA, Balkans and La Strada networks; Exchange of information with foreign NGOs.	May 2002-September 2003	International Labour Affairs Bureau, US Department of Labour administered by IREX, La Strada	Corabia Viitorului – Cahul; Peligrim Demo – Transnistria; State, Human, Society – Soroca; Europa – Visage – Ungheni; Nat. Centre for Studies and Info on Women Problems, OSCE	
CENTRE FOR PREVENTION OF TRAFFICKING IN WOMEN					
Prevention of trafficking and raising awareness	Mass media campaign: TV and radio programmes; counter aids in local and national newspapers; informative newsletter; anti-trafficking magazine. Street awareness campaign: publications for youth, leaflets, magazines, etc. Operation and maintenance of telephone help line. Educational campaigns targeting teenagers and other vulnerable groups.	2001-2003	US Embassy, Swedish Childhood Foundation (SwedCF)		
		2001-2003	Soros, US Embassy, Swedish Childhood Foundation (SwedCF)	ME, UNICEF	
	Brochure on Legal Employment abroad	February 2001-February 2003	US Embassy, SwedCF	MLS, MFA, IOM, SECI	

Legal assistance	Providing free legal consultation for victims of trafficking; Advocating victims of trafficking interests in a court of law (i.e. divorce, property loss reinstatement of maternal rights etc.); Representing victims of trafficking in criminal trials.	2001-2003	IOM, SIDA	MIA, IOM	
	Supervised applicant registration, consultation on new identity papers, acquisition procedure.		US Embassy, SwedCF, IOM, CoE	MJ, Civil Registration Office, Dept. Informational Technologies	
Law enforcement	Training for prosecutors, judges, police, guardians in regards to new law enforcement.	2001-2003	US Embassy, SwedCF, IOM, CoE	State Prosecutor's Office, IOM, CoE, FBI Romania	
ITALIAN CONSORTIUM OF SOLIDARITY (ICS)					
Research	Research on anti-trafficking activities in Moldova, Romania and Italy focusing on child trafficking.	2002 - 2003	Italian Ministry of Welfare		ICS
Reintegration of trafficked persons	Income generation projects for returned trafficked persons; Beneficiaries come from all over Moldova. Preference is given to victims coming from rural areas or small towns, but some business ideas are implemented in urban settings.	2002 - 2003	IOM	MLS, IOM, La Strada	
Prevention	Income generation project for vulnerable women from rural areas (implemented in rural areas only); Business plan training /IGP; Training on micro-enterprise legislation; Small scale self-employment in-kind grants.	2003	SDC (Swiss Agency for Development and Co-operation)	Compasiune	ICS

CIVIC INITIATIVE					
Prevention and Raising Awareness	Seminars for law enforcement personnel (police, judges, prosecutors).	2003	Winrock International		MI
Prevention and Raising Awareness	Seminars for at-risk groups; Projection of the movie "Call of Despair".	September 2003-December 2003	US Embassy		
Research	Rapid assessment of trafficking and forced labour	2002-2003	ILO		La Strada, Civic Initiative
GENDER CENTRE					
Prevention and Raising Awareness	Prevention of trafficking in persons through gender education: Seminars for college students; Publication of leaflets "Be careful"; Seminars for university students; Publishing and distributing the Guide to the New UN Trafficking Protocol (CATW).	2001-2002	US Embassy	Centre for Social and Economic Development	
Prevention and Raising Awareness	Introduction of "Psycho-social aspects of trafficking in human beings" topic in the courses offered by three universities.	2002- 2003			USM, UTM, ULIM
CENTRE FOR SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT					
Prevention	Prevention programme for teenagers in rural areas of Gagauzia –peer counselling; Provide educational and informative programmes about trafficking in human beings, international and Moldova law, international and Moldovan organisations involved in anti - trafficking activities; Self-esteem building for young women/girls, promoting school completion; Providing information on the legal migration procedure.	February – June 2003	IOM, EU	Gender Centre	

CHRISTIAN CHILDREN FUND (CCF)

Prevention and Training	Under the auspices of CCF Serbia CCF Moldova conducts training seminars for young people of risk groups with the goal to develop community based anti-trafficking youth projects in Moldova	May 2004 – January 2005	Sector Project against Trafficking in Women (GTZ/BMZ)	
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INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH AND EXCHANGES BOARD (IREX)

Prevention	Providing small grants, training, support, and legal and economic assistance; Providing vocational training and job placement support for at-risk groups.	May 2002 – September 2003	International Labour Affairs Bureau, US Dept. Labour	IREX
Seminars	Provide seminars for at-risk women in the following areas: Empowerment (building self-esteem and improving decision making skills); Professional orientation; Micro-entrepreneurship seminars.			National Women's Studies and Information Centre (NWSIC)
Awareness Campaign	Seminars in schools for students and teachers; Drawing competitions; Anti-Trafficking disco parties; Guidebook "Prevention of trafficking in Women" for trainers; Information notebooks for girls.			La Strada

GOVERNMENT OF BULGARIA

Project/activities	Focus of Activities	Timeframe	Donor	Cooperating partners	Implementing partners
MINISTRY OF JUSTICE					
Legal reform	<p>Provisions in the penal code for trafficking have been in force since 1st October 2002, in a special section Trafficking in persons.</p> <p>Combating trafficking in human beings act: Establishes a special National Commission; Supervises the activities of the local commissions and the shelters; Drafts an NPA every year for combating trafficking; Establishes mechanisms for victims protection and support; Includes a package of special provisions for the children victims of trafficking; Includes a special chapter for prevention measures.</p> <p>Working group within the Ministry established to work on the new Penal Code and amendments to the Penal Procedure Code.</p> <p>Drafting the secondary legislation under the Combating trafficking in human beings act: Internal regulations about how the National Commission will act under the law Regulations for registering, opening and operating the shelters and the centres for victims support.</p>	<p>October 2002</p> <p>May 2003</p>		<p>MJ, MI, Supreme court, Supreme prosecution office, National investigative service, ABA, US Dept. of Justice</p> <p>MJ, MI, MFA, MLSP, SACP, US Dept Justice, ABA, IOM, UNHCR, Supreme court, Supreme prosecution office, National investigative service, national NGOs.</p> <p>US Dept. of Justice</p> <p>MJ, MI, MFA, MLSP, Border Police, US Dept. Justice, IOM, ABA, local NGOs, SACP, UNHCR</p>	

MINISTRY OF INTERIOR						
Law enforcement	Establishment of an inter-agency Task Force to Combat Human Trafficking.	June 2001- ongoing	SECI	MI, National Police, National Border Police.	MJ, Prosecutors	
Law enforcement and international co-operation	Establishing of the National Task Force on Trafficking to co-ordinate and share information on law enforcement efforts regionally through SECI.	June 2001 -ongoing	n/a	MI, National Police, National Border Police, SECI	MJ, Prosecutors	
Law enforcement and inter-agency co-operation	Draft of the Memorandum of Understanding between governmental bodies to create an inter-ministerial working group (also for members of the prosecutor's office, customs, tax administration) focused on the tactical and operational aspects of investigating the financial side of trafficking.	Will be signed before the end of 2001	n/a	MI, MJ, MLSP, MFA, National Police, National Border Police	Implemented directly	
MINISTRY OF THE INTERIOR - THE NATIONAL SERVICE AGAINST ORGANISED CRIME						
Law enforcement	Division of Organised Crime established in 1997. Deals with illegal migration, trade in labour force and trafficking in human beings. 28 units all over the country deal with organised crime. 40 police officers work on the issue of trafficking.	Trafficking section set up in 1999		MI, National Police, National Border Police, SECI		
Law enforcement and international co-operation	Establishment of the Task Force to combat human trafficking; International cooperation with EU and other countries and their liaison officers.	May 2001		MI, SECI, FBI	US Department of Justice, MJ, Prosecutors	
Capacity building	Training for future police officers within Police Academy.	2003	ICMPD	Nadja Centre		

STATE AGENCY FOR CHILD PROTECTION (SACP)				
Child protection activities	Preparation of the crisis centre for children; Conference in which network of organisations working with children will be formed in order to established services for missing children; Assists IOM to find the childrens families.	Planned January 2003-ongoing	Looking for funds	MLSP IOM
SUPREME PROSECUTION OFFICE				
Statistics on trafficking cases	Collecting statistics about all cases of trafficking that have been prosecuted since the "Trafficking in persons" provisions within Penal Code in force. Data are given separately for progress on criminal procedures, the number of cases of women - victims of trafficking and of child victims.			

INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS IN BULGARIA

INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATION FOR MIGRATION (IOM)					
Project/activities	Focus of Activities	Timeframe	Donor	Cooperating partners	Implementing partners
Prevention and raising awareness	Prevention campaign in high schools for teenagers 12/18 (pilot project): Two seminars for partners, experts and future trainers; Development of educational model, campaign materials, manual for teachers; Training for trainers teachers, police officers and students. Prevention and information campaign for the general public	March 2001- March 2002	US Government	ME, MI, Central Committee for Combating Child Delinquency; SACP; NGOs	MI, MFA, ME, MH, MJ, MLSP, NGOs

Capacity building	Training for journalists education on reporting trafficking issues, as way of prevention. Journalists supported for regional training; Training for prosecutors and police.	2002				
Assistance for trafficked persons	Assisted return to Bulgaria; Safe transportation assistance; Arrival assistance; Documents procurement; Financial support for trafficked persons. Shelter for trafficked persons; Managing temporary accommodation for children under the age of 14.	ongoing	US Government	Central Committee for Combating Child Delinquency, SACP, NGOs		
Reintegration of trafficked persons	Reintegration of trafficked persons; Integration programmes; Health services; Training courses; Safe accommodation; Financial support; Physical protection.	since 2002 ongoing			The same as above plus MLSP, local Social and Health care services.	
US EMBASSY, DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE						
Legal reform	Facilitating and supporting establishment of a Task Force to combat human trafficking; Support for reform of the criminal and criminal procedure codes and for the working group drafting a new anti-trafficking law focused on victim support and reintegration.	2001			ABA, MJ, MI, police, prosecutors, border police, IOM, NGOs	
Exchange of information, local NGOs capacity building	Hosts NGO and donor information sharing and co-ordination meetings.	ongoing			ABA, MJ, MI, MPs, police, prosecutors, border police, IOM, NGOs - Helsinki Committee, Animus.	

ORGANISATION FOR SECURITY AND CO-OPERATION IN EUROPE (OSCE)					
Prevention and Capacity Building	Vocational training program in the hotel industry for youth at risk	September 2004 – September 2005	Sector project against Trafficking in Women (GTZ/BMZ)	International Business Leadership Forum (IBLF)	Bulgarian NGOs

NGO'S IN BULGARIA

Project/activities	Focus of Activities	Timeframe	Donor	Cooperating partners	Implementing partners
ANIMUS ASSOCIATION/LA STRADA BULGARIA					
Training	Animus Training centre modules on trafficking: Training for department of missing persons at MI and for social workers from the Sofia Child Protection Units; Training on women's empowerment, training of trainers on women's empowerment; Training for local and foreign NGOs (capacity building), law enforcement agencies, social workers and lawyers. Transfer of model of work with survivors.	ongoing 2003	NOVIB, MATRA, CIDA ,OAK Foundation, US State Department of Labour co-ordinated by IREX.	Women Alliance for Development, MI, ME, MLSP, NGOs, Care Bulgaria	La Strada network - Poland Ukraine Czech R. The Netherlands
Prevention and raising awareness	Information and prevention campaign: a) Information and prevention materials; b) Training of trainers; c) Training seminars and lectures for survivors and those at risk; d) Media presentations and consultations of journalists; e) 24-hour Helpline. Initiative and Empowerment Programme focusing on professional orientation, training in job skills and assertiveness;	ongoing ongoing	Dutch Govt, Dutch MJ, NOVIB; ICCO and other Dutch Foundations, MATRA and others. US State Department of labour,	MI, ME, MLSP, local NGOs.	La Strada network Alternative, Association Aitos, Bulgaria and Partners from Moldova, Latvia, Lithuania, Russia and Romania, in the framework of the IREX project

	<p>Prevention through encouraging employment in Bulgaria; In-country training for local and foreign NGOs, law enforcement agencies, social workers and lawyers. f) life skills programme for young people in orphanages</p>		<p>coordinated by IREX until the end of Oct 2003 Sector project against Trafficking in Women (GTZ/BMZ)</p>		
<p>Assistance for trafficked persons</p>	<p>Rehabilitation and reintegration care programmes, based on an individual approach: 24-hour helpline and crisis unit and crisis accommodation; Social programme, including arrival assistance, urgent humanitarian help, legal, medical, etc assistance and referral; Connection and/or counseling of the families and the relatives; Short-term and long-term individual psycho-therapeutic programme; Specialised psychotherapy for adolescents and counselling of their families; Self-support group; Long-term reintegration programme, including vocational training, job skills, assistance and counselling in looking for a job; Correspondence programme. Building a network of governmental and NGOs in support of survivors in Bulgaria and abroad.</p>	<p>ongoing</p>	<p>NOVIB/ MATRA, La Strada, EU Sector project against Trafficking in Women (GTZ/BMZ)</p>	<p>MI, ME, National network of NGOs providing help and support to victims</p>	<p>La Strada Network; International and national networks of NGOs providing help and support to victims</p>

BULGARIAN GENDER RESEARCH FOUNDATION

<p>Legal reform, training, capacity building</p>	<p>Counsel and legal aid for trafficked persons: Preparing lawyers to work with cases of trafficking; Learning specific ways to work with trafficked persons; Protection of victims and of their human rights; Offering legal services to shelters. Report on Bulgarian legislation and its compliance with the international standards.</p>	<p>planned 2003</p>			
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HEALTH AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT FOUNDATION

<p>Prevention of trafficking Health promotion activities for sex workers</p>	<p>Outreach work with prostitutes in Sofia and at Greek border (in Petritsch); Established mobile medical unit for sex workers: free and anonymous venereological check-ups; HIV/STI testing and treatment of STIs; Programme focuses on health prevention and harm reduction (STI and HIV tests, referral to gynaecologists and venerologists, distribution of lubricants and condoms, needles and syringes for injecting drug users); Sensitisation and training activities with the state institutions, dealing with sex workers (police officers, medical doctors, social workers).</p>	<p>ongoing</p>	<p>MATRA Dutch MFA, IHRD (International Harm Reduction Development), EU MH, UNAIDS, Medicines sans Frontiers, Initiative for Health Foundation, National Centre for Drug Addictions, TAMPEP International Foundation</p>	<p>SOA Stichting Bestrijding, Utrecht, Netherlands</p>	
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BULGARIAN HELSINKI COMMITTEE

Prevention of trafficking and legal assistance for trafficked individuals	Provides legal counsel and subsequent pro bono representation of trafficked asylum seekers, refugees as well as forced or illegal migrants.	ongoing	UNHCR	State Agency for Refugees, MI, SACP, Assistance Centre for Torture Survivors, Bulgarian Red Cross, CARITAS	National legal network on asylum
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ORGANISATION OF POLICE WOMEN IN BULGARIA

Law enforcement, co-operation between NGOs and police	Training for the Police on the issue of missing and kidnapped people. Organised in Dolna Bania.	April 2001			
	Training for police, social workers, NGOs about child abuse.	June 2001		La Strada	
	Support for NGOs in contacts with the police, tracing missing persons.	ongoing		Other NGOs	

NADJA CENTRE FOUNDATION (NCF)

Assistance to trafficked victims	Shelter for female victims of any kind of violence: Medical escort from NCF for the return to Bulgaria assisted by IOM; Assistance and support for trafficked persons medical, psychological, social, legal and providing psychotherapy crisis intervention and brief solution-oriented therapy; Assistance in reintegration and resocialisation process of the victims. Part of the ICMPTD training team.			IOM, NGOs, MI, SACP	
Prevention	Established helpline for victims of violence in general including trafficking in children. Active on working days.				

Annex 3: Labour Migration from Moldova

Data regarding the registration of individual work contracts of the persons employed abroad

Individual work contracts registered at the Department of Migration of the work migrants employed in :	Year											TOTAL
	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	
Bulgaria	12	4	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	18
Canada	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Cech Republic	1	2	1	-	-	-	15	5	-	-	-	24
Cyprus	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	39	40
Germany	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Greece	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Iran	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Israel	-	308	871	1103	933	334	439	759	1165	11	40	5963
Italy	-	1	4	-	-	-	35	8	5	6	77	136
Japan	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	24	24
Kazahstan	75	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	75
Portugal	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	2	-	8
Romania	15	12	10	5	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	43
Russian Federation	161	10	43	19	5	2	3	1	1	-	-	245
Slovenia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	12
Spain	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	1	6
USA	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Tunis	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Ukraine	70	4	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	76
Total persons	339	343	933	1128	939	336	494	775	1173	25	193	6678

Distribution of employed Persons
(by the country-employer and sex):

Country-employer	Sex	Total in 2003	
		<i>via firms</i>	<i>independently</i>
<i>Italy</i>	men	2	2
	women	2	2
<i>Israel</i>	men	32	-
	women	8	-
<i>Spain</i>	men	1	-
	women	-	-
<i>Cyprus</i>	men	21	-
	women	18	-
<i>Japonia</i>	men	-	-
	women	24	-
<i>Slovenia</i>	men	12	-
	women	-	-
Total	men	68	2
	women	52	2
Total persons		120	4

Distribution of employed Persons
(by the country-employer and domain of activity):

Country-Employer	Domain of activity	Total employed	Type of activity
<i>Italy</i>	<i>A*</i>	6	
	<i>B*</i>	-	
	<i>C*</i>	-	
	<i>D*</i>	3	<i>Domestic labour</i>
<i>Israel</i>	<i>A</i>	32	
	<i>B</i>	-	
	<i>C</i>	-	
	<i>D</i>	8	<i>social assistant</i>
<i>Spain</i>	<i>A</i>	-	
	<i>B</i>	-	
	<i>C</i>	-	
	<i>D</i>	1	<i>driver</i>
<i>Cyprus</i>	<i>A</i>	21	
	<i>B</i>	-	
	<i>C</i>	2	
	<i>D</i>	16	<i>housekeeper</i>
<i>Japan</i>	<i>A</i>	-	
	<i>B</i>	-	
	<i>C</i>	-	
	<i>D</i>	24	<i>21 – dancers, 2 baby-sitters, 1 – piano teacher</i>
<i>Slovenia</i>	<i>A</i>	12	
	<i>B</i>	-	
	<i>C</i>	-	
	<i>D</i>	-	

Total persons	<i>A</i>	71	
	<i>B</i>	-	
	<i>C</i>	2	
	<i>D</i>	52	

Note. A* – in construction work; B* – in agriculture; C* – in health care, D* other domains.

Distribution of Employed Persons
(by the country-employer and the work period):

Country -Employer	Work period	In total in 2003
<i>Italy</i>	<i>A*</i>	-
	<i>B*</i>	3
	<i>C*</i>	69
	<i>D*</i>	5
<i>Israel</i>	<i>A</i>	-
	<i>B</i>	-
	<i>C</i>	37
	<i>D</i>	3
<i>Spain</i>	<i>A</i>	-
	<i>B</i>	-
	<i>C</i>	1
	<i>D</i>	-
<i>Cyprus</i>	<i>A</i>	3
	<i>B</i>	5
	<i>C</i>	31
	<i>D</i>	-
<i>Japan</i>	<i>A</i>	-
	<i>B</i>	19
	<i>C</i>	5
	<i>D</i>	-
<i>Slovenia</i>	<i>A</i>	-
	<i>B</i>	4
	<i>C</i>	8
	<i>D</i>	-
Total	<i>A</i>	3
	<i>B</i>	31
	<i>C</i>	151
	<i>D</i>	8
Total persons		193

Note: A* – up to 3 months; B* – 6 months; C* – 1 year, D* – more than 1 year.

Source: Migration State Service (Annual Report 2003)

Annex 4: Maps

Map: Trafficking routes known to NGO sources



Source: IOM (2001): Victims of Trafficking in the Balkans, p.30

Map: Trafficking routes known to official sources



Source: ebenda, p.30

Map: Compilation of all known routes, reflecting an inter-agency view of trafficking flows to, through and from the Balkans

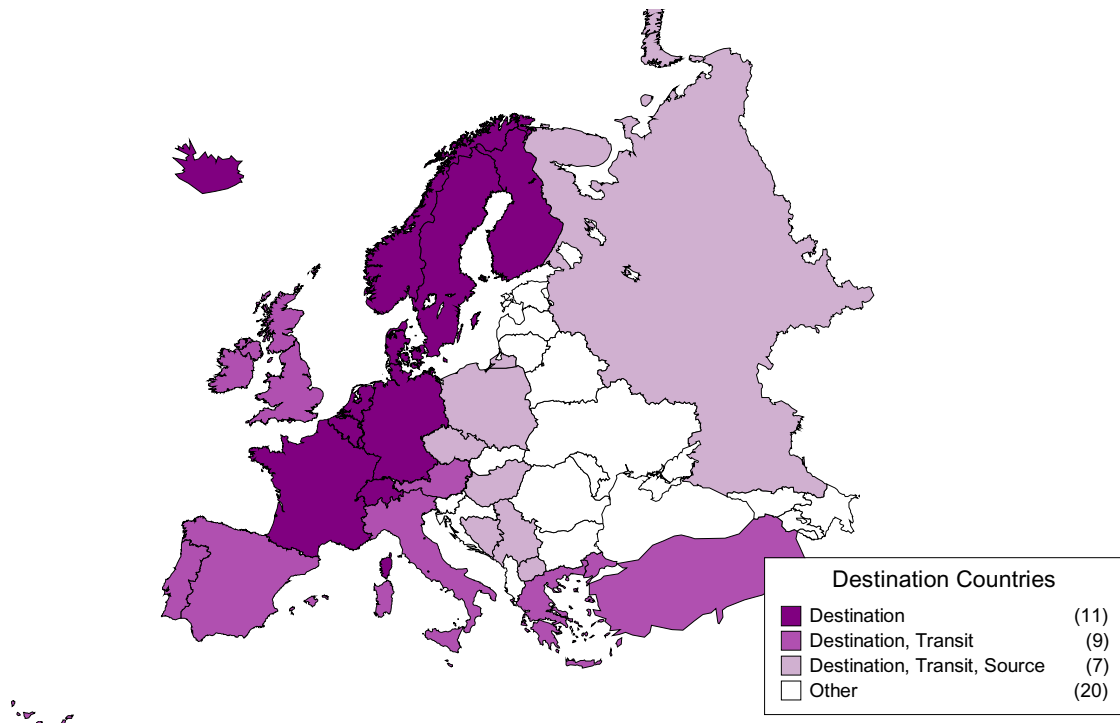


Source: ebenda, p. 32

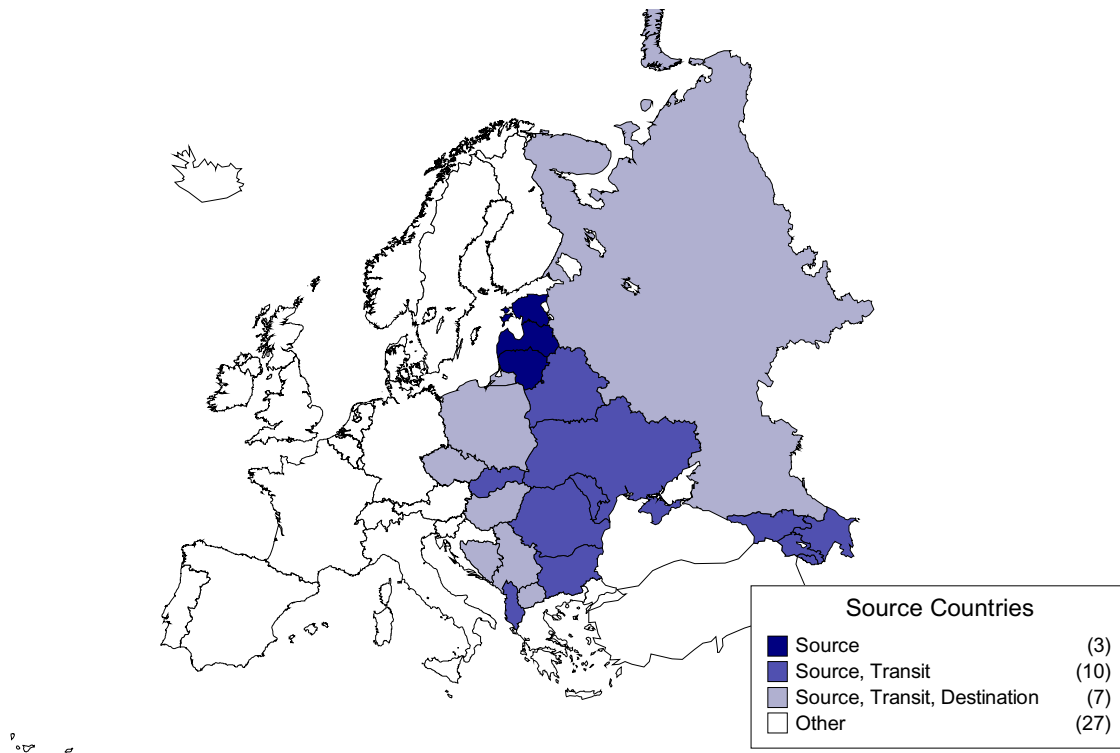
Map: Significant trafficking routes within the Balkans based on interviews with victims assisted by IOM in 2000



Source: ebenda, p. 37



Source: *European Institute for Crime Prevention and Control, affiliated with the United Nations (HEUNI): The regional report on trafficking in women and children, presented at the Session of the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, 13-22 May 2003*



Source: ebenda