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# EXAMINING THE INTERSECTION BETWEEN TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS AND DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

**June 2007**

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# **EXAMINING THE INTERSECTION BETWEEN TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS AND DOMESTIC VIOLENCE**

This publication was prepared by Stephen Warnath of the NEXUS Institute for Creative Associates International, Inc. and Aguirre Division of JBS International Inc. The author's views reflected in this publication do not necessarily reflect the views of the United States Agency for International Development or the United States Government.

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Finally, I would like to thank all who have supported the NEXUS Institute and our work to improve laws, policies and practice to combat human trafficking around the world.

**Stephen Warnath**  
**Executive Director**  
**NEXUS Institute**

## **ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS**

BiH	Bosnia and Herzegovina
CAAHT	Coordinated Action against Human Trafficking
DV	Domestic Violence
E&E	Europe and Eurasia Bureau (of USAID)
EU	European Union
IOM	International Organization for Migration
ICMPD	International Center for Migration Policy Development
ILO	International Labor Organization
IOFA	International Organization for Adolescents
IREX	International Research and Exchanges Board
NGO	Non-governmental Organization
NRMs	National Referral Mechanisms
OSCE	Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe
RCP	Regional Clearing Point
RSC	Regional Support Center
SEE	Southeastern Europe
SPTF	Stability Pact Task Force to Combat Human Trafficking
TACT	Transnational Action against Child Trafficking
TIP	Trafficking in Persons
UN	United Nations
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USG	United States Government
USAID	U.S. Agency for International Development
VoT	Victim of Trafficking

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## **EXECUTIVE SUMMARY**

This report was commissioned by USAID to review the state of knowledge about the relationship between domestic violence (DV) and trafficking in persons (TIP). This study was conducted as a desk review of the literature covering the countries of the Europe and Eurasia (E&E) region.

The scope of the work involved:

- (1) Examining the prevalence of trafficking victims with prior experience of domestic violence;
- (2) Describing services and supports that are available for victims of trafficking in persons in each country of the E&E region, highlighting those service providers and shelters that serve both populations or only one; and
- (3) Analyzing the strengths and weaknesses of victim protection programs that assist survivors of both trafficking in persons and domestic violence, exploring types of appropriate victim-centered responses needed to help survivors rebuild their lives, and best practices and lessons learned from domestic violence and trafficking in persons service providers/shelters that do or do not serve both populations.

### **A. Methodology**

This report was conducted as a review of literature (English-language) that addresses the intersection between domestic violence and trafficking in persons in the countries of the Europe and Eurasia region. This is a targeted literature review of resources collected in the course of library-based and Internet-based research. The study is based on the analysis of reports published by international governmental and non-governmental organizations, newspaper articles and academic publications. Publications and websites of USAID and other United States Government (USG) agencies, as well as their contracting firms, were searched for applicable material. The websites of a number of NGO service providers and international organizations, including but not limited to those based or working in the region, were reviewed. Internet search engines were utilized including Lexis-Nexis. In addition, several experts from NGOs and international/ intergovernmental organizations were consulted by email and/or telephone. Finally, the in-house resource center on anti-trafficking issues of the NEXUS Institute to Combat Human Trafficking was utilized. This library and resource center contains over 2,000 counter-trafficking documents, including project descriptions; research reports and studies; relevant laws, policies and programs; and articles on trafficking and anti-trafficking work, including many published by NGO service providers located in the E&E region.

### **B. Conceptual Background**

Based upon the literature, the report finds that there are at least three points of vulnerability created by domestic violence that may be exploited and result in human trafficking:

- 1) Domestic violence may act as a push factor that ultimately results in trafficking. The urgency of escape may enhance risk;

2) Domestic violence may erode an individual's self-esteem and self-confidence, thereby increasing vulnerability to traffickers;

3) Domestic violence may force children's absence from school at an early age, or lead to trouble in school or to the child's engaging in other risky, dangerous or self-defeating behavior, lowering job prospects at home, and increasing their vulnerability to trafficking.

The complexities of untangling domestic violence as a causative factor from other potential causative factors are significant. The lack of empirical data highlights the limitations in ascribing causative weight to the presence of domestic violence in the family history of a victim of trafficking in persons. Recognizing these complex factors also crystallizes why it is critical for anti-trafficking policymakers and practitioners to untangle these factors from one another to learn how they work, how they interact, and how to devise more effective prevention strategies.

### **C. The Evidence**

There are incomplete data collection and analysis in the E&E region, which are necessary to reveal insights into the link between domestic violence and trafficking in persons. The report presents data primarily collected by NGO service providers as part of client case management information gathering. The data represent self-reported instances of family violence and problems within the home for assisted victims in the identified countries for 2003 and 2004.

Data were available for some, but not all, countries in the E&E region. The report found that the data collected on the subject of family relations of victims of trafficking are incomplete, subjective and anecdotal and, therefore, cannot yield reliable conclusions. Viewed as representing reports by individual victims of trafficking, the data show that many suffered domestic violence at some time in their lives prior to being trafficked. However, the widely varying prevalence figures from lows of 1.3 percent up to 90 percent are based upon small sample sizes and are not positioned within a context of other factors. These figures, therefore, do not permit sound interpretation and explanation. Moreover, in many countries with data for 2003 and 2004, the majority of assisted victims of trafficking did not previously suffer violence in the home.

While the information collected by the service providers about the intersection is rudimentary, it provides a preliminary, although incomplete, picture of family conflict among trafficking victims assisted in the SEE region. The data reveal that violence, abuse, or other episodes of conflict within the family environment appear in a number of assisted trafficking victims, although the type of violence and level of severity differ markedly. There was substantial abuse of alcohol as well.

The usefulness of the current data for policy and program planning is also compromised by the lack of precision and disaggregation. For example, it is not possible to determine whether reported domestic violence is between spouses or intimate partners or by parents toward their children. In general, the data are not sufficiently disaggregated to reflect potentially meaningful factors/variables within family environments or broader social contexts that may

also involve violence. This is important for understanding the scope of family dynamics that needs to be targeted for preventative measures tailored to the specific family problem.

It is likely that the numbers reported are low (although to what extent is impossible to determine) due to the sensitivity of discussing family issues, especially abuse and violence, and to the short time in which victims interact with service providers, both of which hamper the development of trust. In addition, it is possible that self-reporting on domestic violence by victims of trafficking is low due to societal acceptance of domestic violence prevalent in some parts of the region by both men and women. In such cases, a victim of trafficking (VoT) may not consider some forms of abuse or even violence to constitute reportable domestic violence. There is, then, a subjective element to the reporting of data.

Due to the unreliability of current data, it is not possible to determine whether the prevalence of domestic violence in victims of human trafficking identified in countries of destination is higher or lower than in the general population of the victim's home country. Coupled with the unreliability of the prevalence rates of domestic violence in the countries of the E&E region, it is impossible to offer a comparison that would inform policy or programming decisions.

In summary, after a comprehensive review of the relevant literature, this report suggests that there are enormous gaps in knowledge on the links between domestic violence and trafficking in persons. There is a fundamental dearth in data on the history, basic documentation, and case studies of domestic violence experienced by victims of trafficking. As a result, there is no solid empirical grounding for policy and programmatic choices at this time.

#### **D. Overview of Services**

The report identifies service and response categories that victims of DV and victims of trafficking in persons share in common. These are:

- Shelter and accommodation;
- Medical care;
- Mental health care;
- Legal assistance;
- Educational assistance;
- Vocational training and job placement;
- Family mediation;
- Reintegration support; and
- Specialized assistance for minors.

Highlighted are those services that may meet specific non-aligned needs of each population, as well as issues of serving mixed populations, including stigma, shelter security, and shelter restrictions.

## E. Looking Forward and Recommendations

Both domestic violence and trafficking in persons are serious problems in the E&E region, and the strength of the anecdotal information linking the two warrants learning more to strengthen integrated policy level responses for both issues simultaneously.

To date, victims of trafficking have been served almost exclusively within a dedicated, specialized framework. While much progress has been made in assisting VoTs, serious gaps in service provision continue to exist, especially for long-term support and in rural areas. In recent years, the availability of services to victims of DV in the region has eroded, largely due to declining funding. It is unlikely that parallel assistance frameworks for both populations are viable in the long term given funding difficulties to address critical shortcomings in care for VoTs and victims of DV. Thus, further examination is recommended for improving victim services to both populations through expanded availability of services to mixed populations.

### 1. **Research on Expanding Service Availability for Both VoTs and Victims of Domestic Violence**

Understanding the possibility of merging shelter and assistance for mixed populations in the E&E region requires a greater understanding of the experiences of service providers currently providing such assistance. This report found that a review of written sources is not sufficient to resolve the issue of when and how it may be appropriate to provide assistance to DV and TIP victims together as a mixed population. A fuller picture is needed of which approaches are working and which are not – and the reasons why – in order to identify and assess best practices and lessons learned for replication. To that end, it would be valuable to conduct more detailed field research on common assistance to both populations.

Examples of the issues to be reviewed include:

- Which organizations are serving mixed populations of victims of DV and VoT;
- Which populations are assisted: women, men, unaccompanied and accompanied children, and families;
- What are the similarities and differentiating features of victims of domestic violence and victims of trafficking;
- How specifically do these similarities and differentiating features impact the provision of services;
- Are victims of all forms of trafficking served;
- Did the organization begin originally as a dedicated facility (DV, TIP or other);
- What adaptations to dedicated facilities or procedures are required to serve mixed populations;
- What are the strengths and weaknesses of serving populations together;
- What challenges or problems are presented by serving these populations together;
- In detail, how are these challenges and problems solved;
- Has there been evidence of prejudice or stigma among shelter residents? Based on what? What was done?
- What best practices exist that can be replicated;

- What lessons learned exist that can be replicated;
- What additional specialized training is required for staff;
- What mechanisms of cooperation with governmental and non-governmental entities are utilized;
- What indicators of progress/success are utilized;
- What follow-up exists with clients (and for how long);
- What outreach to victims of family violence exists; and
- What additional opportunities exist, if found to be appropriate, for serving mixed populations?

These are the types of information needed to expand effective and sustainable assistance to populations of domestic violence victims and trafficked victims throughout the region and to better inform important policy and program decisions. Additional lines of inquiry can be elaborated in consultation with USAID during development of the research plan.

The potential beneficiaries of this research are victims of trafficking in persons and victims of domestic violence whose assistance needs are not satisfied by current assistance programs. Other potential beneficiaries are small NGO service-providers and the communities they serve, especially in rural areas, that wish to provide services to these vulnerable populations but cannot support a dedicated TIP shelter with in-house assistance and/or exclusive DV shelter with its own professional services.

## ***2. Strengthen Data Collection Addressing the Intersection of Domestic Violence and Trafficking in Persons***

Weaknesses in data collection should be addressed to permit the analysis necessary for a better understanding of the nature and prevalence of any link, to aid in the design of targeted prevention and assistance activities, and to inform policies and programs.

The data collected need to be systematically gathered, precise and comprehensive. Not all service providers currently collect data about family relations and, where this information is collected, it is not based upon a standardized methodology. USAID should undertake an initiative to incorporate needed data on the relationship between family violence and trafficking in persons into existing data collecting efforts. International organizations in collaboration with local NGOs involved in multi-country data collecting in the E&E region could incorporate new data modules into their existing data sets.

## **I. BACKGROUND AND METHODOLOGY**

### **A. Background**

This report is produced for the Social Transition Team of the Office of Democracy, Governance and Social Transition in the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) by Creative Associates International and the Aguirre Division of JBS International. The objective of the report is to review current knowledge about the relationship between domestic violence and trafficking in persons. Conducted as a desktop review of the literature available on the intersection between domestic violence and trafficking in persons, it covered the countries of the Europe and Eurasia (E&E) region of USAID. This review included:

- (1) Examining the prevalence of trafficking victims with prior experience of domestic violence;
- (2) Describing services and supports available to victims of trafficking in persons in each country of the E&E region, highlighting service providers and shelters that serve both populations or only one; and
- (3) Analyzing the strengths and weaknesses of victim protection programs that assist survivors of both trafficking in persons and domestic violence, exploring types of appropriate victim-centered responses needed to help survivors rebuild their lives, and best practices and lessons learned from domestic violence and trafficking in persons service providers/shelters that do or do not serve both populations.

It is the aim of this research to contribute to the understanding of issues involved in USAID's program planning for integrated responses to assist victims of domestic violence and trafficking in persons. To the extent appropriate and practicable, this will strengthen and improve the provision of care to both groups.

### **B. Definitions**

Domestic violence (DV) is defined for the purposes of this report as a pattern of emotional, physical, sexual, or economic abuse (e.g., denial of funds or controlling access to employment) used to gain or maintain power and control over an intimate partner or other family member. For the purposes of this report, the range of family violence is included.<sup>1</sup> Domestic violence may be perpetrated by either a male or female family member against another female or male member of the family.

The use of this definition advances the purpose of incorporating and exploring the intersection between a broad range of violent and abusive family environments and experiences of victims of trafficking. By capturing the broad experience of serious family relation problems, this definition is more applicable in this analysis than a definition of domestic violence that focuses only on spouses and intimate partners or on violence by men against women.

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<sup>1</sup> For a general discussion of domestic violence definitions, see Ellsberg & Heise 2005:10-12.

In this initial stage of inquiry about possible links between trafficking and domestic violence, it is important to use a broad definition as it captures the maximum range of information from victim profiles about the breakdown of families. Also, as a practical matter, an expansive and flexible definition is necessary because available data are not disaggregated in terms of violence against a spouse, children from abusive homes, forms of abuse, etc. A more restrictive definition would preclude collecting useful data.

This assessment utilizes the definition of trafficking in persons contained in Article 3 of the United Nations Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons (the 'Palermo Protocol') that supplements the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime. The Protocol defines "trafficking in persons" as follows:

- a. 'Trafficking in persons' shall mean 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;
- b. The consent of a victim of trafficking in persons to the intended exploitation set forth in subparagraph (a) of this article shall be irrelevant where any of the means set forth in subparagraph (a) have been used;
- c. The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring or receipt of a child for the purpose of exploitation shall be considered 'trafficking in persons' even if this does not involve any of the means set forth in subparagraph (a) of this article; and
- d. 'Child' shall mean any person under eighteen years of age.

### **C. Methodology and Limitations**

The review of literature (English-language) addresses the intersection between domestic violence and trafficking in persons in the countries of the E&E region. This is a targeted literature review of resources collected in the course of library-based and Internet-based research. It focuses on written sources that shed light upon the issue of the intersection. The study analyzes international governmental and non-governmental reports, newspaper articles and academic publications. Publications and websites of USAID and other U.S. government agencies, as well as their contracting firms, were searched for applicable material. The websites of a number of NGO service providers and international organizations, including but not limited to those based or working in the region, were reviewed. Internet search engines were utilized including Lexis-Nexis. In addition, a few experts from several NGOs and international/ intergovernmental organizations were consulted by email and/or telephone. Finally, the in-house global resource center on anti-trafficking issues of the NEXUS Institute was utilized. This library and resource center contains over 2,000 counter-trafficking documents, including project descriptions; research reports and studies; relevant laws, policies and programs; and articles on trafficking and anti-trafficking work, including many published by NGO service providers located in the E&E

region. This library constitutes one of most comprehensive sources of written information and commentary on human trafficking in the E&E region.

This report's scope, focusing on the intersection between domestic violence and trafficking in persons, revealed the limited number of documents relevant to this inquiry. Any synthesis of these issues within the literature is quite rare. A comprehensive review or treatment of the entire body of domestic violence literature or general human trafficking literature is not attempted as that body is voluminous.

The content, findings and recommendations are informed but, also, constrained by some limitations connected with the research scope, study funding, and lack of empirical information illuminating the subject matter of this report. These include the following.

- Limited time and scope of the research project.
- Limited budgetary resources available for research.
- The constraints of desk research. No field research was undertaken nor was research time available to conduct interviews with relevant actors in the field; the data reviewed were primarily limited to data available through written sources.
- There is an overall dearth of information about the link between trafficking in persons and domestic violence and, while many organizations and commentators assert that there is a link, it has not been historically examined or studied in-depth.
- It was not possible to independently assess the validity of the numbers or other information from the studies utilized within the framework of this desk review.

## II. EXPERIENCE WITH PAST DOMESTIC VIOLENCE SUFFERED BY VICTIMS OF TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS

This section introduces the evidence available on the issue of the intersection between domestic violence and trafficking in persons. The literature reviewed reveals little concrete evidence and a dearth of analysis to support a direct link between domestic violence and trafficking in persons. This section presents: 1) a conceptual background discussion about the nature of possible connections between domestic violence and trafficking in persons; and 2) data primarily collected by service providers from victims of trafficking reporting domestic violence before they were trafficked.<sup>2</sup>

### A. Background - Considerations on the Nature of the Link

Generally, the conceptual analysis of factors underlying human trafficking contained in the documentary treatment of trafficking in persons is underdeveloped and vague. This general observation applies in particular to treatments of the relationship of domestic violence to trafficking in persons. When domestic violence and trafficking in persons is mentioned in literature on trafficking in persons, it is common to identify domestic violence as a “push” factor, a risk factor, a point of vulnerability, or one of the root causes of human trafficking. Typically, domestic violence is included as part of an undifferentiated list of factors without unbundling it to examine its individual role more precisely, as shown in the following excerpt.

*Its [human trafficking's] most commonly identified push factors are poverty and unemployment in countries of origin, among others, as a consequence of social reforms, the disappearance of public sector employment and the decline of industries and agriculture in many transition countries. These factors act, together with gender inequality and discrimination, both in countries of origin and destination, and tolerance of violence against women, as push factors in particular for women to migrate.*

European Commission 2004:84

Unexamined litanies of purported root causes or factors which make one vulnerable to becoming a victim of human trafficking provide little guidance for policymakers in making decisions about the best strategic course to combat trafficking. A more rigorous examination of the role of domestic violence vis-à-vis trafficking in persons is needed to better understand the nature and extent of the link, if any, and, subsequently, to inform future policy and programmatic efforts.

Although the link is typically characterized as between domestic violence and trafficking, the more accurate characterization for many cases should be viewed as the potential link between domestic violence and an individual’s fleeing her/his home environment and, in so doing, putting herself/himself on a path that intersects with a criminal who traffics her/him.

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<sup>2</sup> This section relies heavily on two sources: R. Rosenberg, *Domestic Violence in Europe and Eurasia* and R. Surtees, *Second Annual Report on Victims of Trafficking in South-eastern Europe*. R. Rosenberg’s report recently reviewed domestic violence in E&E countries and services available to its victims and this report does not retrace that ground.

The intersecting paths may occur by virtue of the individual's attempt to migrate abroad.

*In dysfunctional family situations, including domestic violence, alcoholism, marital discord, family disintegration, the death of parents or guardians, women and girls are often motivated to migrate abroad.*

International Labor Organization 2003:11-12

Or the individual's path of escape from domestic violence may remain within the individual's home country and end in her/him being internally trafficked.

During this effort to escape, the urgency of a domestic violence victim's circumstances may impair their ability to think clearly and make decisions. It may elevate danger and vulnerability as the individual accepts or overlooks risks that he or she would normally avoid (Rosenberg 2004:19; Brunovskis and Tyldum; Lazaroiu and Alexandru).

*[Isabel] had, in her own words, a very intense relationship with her parents, whom she lived with. At one point they had a particularly bad conflict, and she moved out, no longer being on speaking terms with her family. This conflict made her want to get as far away as possible from her parents, and she started looking for someone who could help her go abroad. She was doing alright financially, having a boyfriend who provided for her. He did not want her to leave and asked her if they could not try to find jobs somewhere else in their country, but she only wanted to get away. After less than a month, she was able to find someone who offered her a job, and she left immediately. She was trafficked into prostitution for around six months.*

Brunovskis & Tyldum 2004:51-52

It is when trafficking follows closely after an individual's escape from domestic violence that it may be a direct catalyst for trafficking.

A second, less direct, connection between domestic violence and trafficking may also exist. Coping with an abusive or conflictual family life may create an environment that elevates the vulnerability of being trafficked. Traffickers can manipulate and take advantage of the erosion of an individual's self-confidence and self-esteem produced by a corrosive family environment.

Another indirect connection between domestic violence and trafficking may be that violence and abuse in the family prompt children to leave home or do poorly in school at an early age, thereby lowering job prospects and increasing their vulnerability to trafficking (Rosenberg 2004:19 citing Lazaroiu and Alexandru 2003).

These vulnerabilities or sets of risk created by domestic violence may work in combination with other contributing factors to produce a human trafficking situation. Some evidence suggests that domestic violence may act as a "tipping point" within a context where it needs to be combined with other factors to become a "push" factor. In one study, seven women identified abuse as a contributing factor in their decision to leave their homes, but only two said that it was the primary reason for leaving. The study posits that poverty-related reasons may have been the

central reason, with the crisis of domestic violence providing the impetus (Zimmerman 2003). This suggests the complexity of determining the link between domestic violence and trafficking in persons. But this complexity also crystallizes why it is critical to untangle the various factors to learn how they work and interact with one another if anti-trafficking actors are to devise effective prevention strategies.

Whatever the role played by domestic violence as a potential causative factor, heightened risk alone does not result in trafficking: it requires a criminal agent who takes action by targeting the individual and subjecting her/him to the violations of trafficking. Consequently, identifying potential points of vulnerability produced by domestic violence (or other factors) is only one element in the causal chain leading to human trafficking. The criminal agent is the fundamental prerequisite of human trafficking regardless of any heightened risk, point of vulnerability or contributing factor. It is through this calculated, criminal intervention of traffickers that the dangerous and harmful environment of domestic violence may be transformed into an equally dangerous environment of human trafficking.

Take, for example, the case of a Romanian girl whose vulnerability may have been linked to domestic violence but whose trafficking involved the intervention of a third party, in this case, her cousin.

*I was just 15 when I left Romania. When I was 12 my mother died, my father became an alcoholic and would beat me and my brother. A cousin said he would get me out of this situation and into a 'normal' life. He sold me like a slave.*

Zimmerman 2003:31

This quote illustrates how, in some instances, the required criminal agency referenced above may be a member of the trafficking victim's own family (or significant others such as fiancés). Seen in this way, domestic violence may manifest itself within a family, at least in part, as human trafficking. This blending of domestic violence and human trafficking occurs when family members either directly or indirectly traffic another family member. There are many examples in the E&E region of trafficking cases involving family members including, but not limited to, false marriages and trafficking of children by their parents, especially for sexual exploitation, begging and labor.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>3</sup> These cases are categorized, counted and treated by service providers and researchers as trafficking in persons cases within the TIP frameworks rather than as DV cases. They do not give rise to the "mixed population" issues of mixing domestic violence victims and VoTs addressed in this report (although it may produce issues of serving children with adults).

In sum, domestic violence and trafficking in persons may intersect in three principal ways:

**DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AS A POINT OF VULNERABILITY  
FOR HUMAN TRAFFICKING**

1) Domestic violence may act as a push factor that ultimately results in trafficking. The urgency of escape may enhance risk; and/or

2) Domestic violence may erode an individual's self-esteem and self-confidence, thereby increasing vulnerability to traffickers; and/or

3) Domestic violence may force children's absence from school at an early age, or lead to trouble in school or to the child's engaging in other risky, dangerous or self-defeating behavior, lowering job prospects at home, and increasing their vulnerability to trafficking;

But,

- A third party, sometimes another family member, must exploit the vulnerability produced by domestic violence to transform it into trafficking, or
- Domestic violence may act in combination with other factors, such as economic crisis, to push an individual into action that leads to being trafficked.

Establishing precisely the role of family relations in any individual case of trafficking in persons is extremely complex. As is shown in the next section, no reliable data exist in the E&E region to make this connection clear.

## **B. Trafficking Victim Profiles with a History of Domestic Violence - The Evidence**

This section presents the most reliable evidence available for E&E countries that illuminates a history of domestic or family violence among victims of human trafficking. Unfortunately, there is a paucity of data providing glimpses into this intersection. For some countries in the region, data are not available at all.

Whenever multiple sources for E&E countries were identified that possessed data with indicia of reliability on past history of domestic violence among VoTs, they are included. However, the predominant source of data in this section comes from a multi-year study entitled: *The Second Annual Report on Victims of Trafficking in South-Eastern Europe (SEE)*. It reviews profiles of victims of trafficking who received assistance by service providers in the SEE region (Surtees 2005). A description of the methodology of this report is attached as Annex A. In some cases, but not all, these data were collected by NGO service providers as part of client case management information gathering. The figures represent only assisted victims in the identified countries for 2003 and 2004, and not all victims. Sample sizes are small. The data represent self-reported instances of family violence and problems within the home. The information is subjective in that each victim may have seen and perceived conflict and violence differently.

The reliability of this information is questionable due to its subjectivity and probable underreporting when victims did not feel safe or comfortable discussing family problems.

It is important to recognize that “most reliable” data available does not mean methodologically valid data. The data from service providers in the countries of the E&E region on the subject of family relations of victims of trafficking are flawed and cannot yield valid empirically-based conclusions.

Nevertheless, while information collected by service providers about the intersection is rudimentary, a preliminary, although incomplete, picture emerges of family conflict among trafficking victims identified and assisted in the SEE region. The data reveal that violence, abuse, or other episodes of conflict within the family environment appear in the backgrounds of a number of assisted trafficking victims, although the type and severity of violence differ markedly. There was substantial abuse of alcohol as well.

Following are country-specific examples of domestic violence among victims of trafficking. For each country where information is available, it is organized into two categories: foreign nationals assisted and national victims assisted. The organization of data is imposed by the way the data were collected, based upon the country in which the NGO providing assistance was located. The data were not disaggregated by the collecting service providers, precluding organizing victims by their home country or other logical groupings.

For the following countries, there were no data reported: Armenia, Azerbaijan, Cyprus, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkey, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan. This means that no data were available from the Regional Clearing Point report (Surtees 2005) for that country and no other relevant studies regarding a link between domestic violence and human trafficking for that country were located during this desk research. It is possible that data could be identified through expanded research (such as telephone interviewing and site visits) in the future.

### **1. Albania**

In Albania, service providers report that victims of trafficking in persons often came from an abusive family situation and accepted work abroad as a means to escape this abuse (Surtees 2005:65). However, the data were anecdotal.

- One victim, raised in a rural village in the north, was sexually abused by her brothers. She accepted work to escape this situation.
- Another victim grew up without her mother (who had been killed by one of her cousins), and her father had spent time in prison for murder. When her father remarried, the stepmother was abusive. The father was once again imprisoned for murder. It was against this backdrop that the victim accepted a marriage proposal and was subsequently trafficked (Surtees 2005:65-66).

No reliable qualitative information was collected in Albania during this period pertaining to domestic violence and trafficking in persons. The scant anecdotal information available was

derived from the case files of 345 assisted Albanian VoTs in 2003 and 366 assisted Albanian VoTs in 2004. No information was available from the files of foreign victims of trafficking assisted in Albania in 2003 (17 VoTs) and 2004 (12 VoTs).

## **2. Belarus**

There are no data on the link between trafficking and domestic violence for Belarus. Some NGOs in Belarus have suggested that domestic violence is a significant push factor for trafficking “as women seek to escape their home situation and feel that they have nothing to lose” (Amnesty International). No reliable evidence, however, addressing the question of a link between domestic violence and human trafficking exists and additional inquiry into this assertion would be necessary to document a relationship.

## **3. Bosnia and Herzegovina**

Among assisted victims in BiH originating from other countries, a sizeable portion had suffered domestic violence. In 2003, 20.3 percent of victims (of 92 assisted VoTs) reported domestic violence in their homes. This number decreased substantially in 2004, with only 1.3 percent of victims (out of 79 VoTs) reporting domestic violence (Surtees 2005:124-125). The data do not shed light on possible explanations for this precipitous drop in the incidence of domestic violence reported.

An even higher rate of domestic violence was discovered among BiH victims assisted within their own country, the majority of whom had been living with their family at the time of their recruitment. Some 64 percent of those assisted in 2003 (17 VoTs) reported both domestic violence and alcohol abuse within the family. Paralleling the drop in reported cases for foreign nationals, the rates of domestic violence and alcohol abuse were 27.6 percent and 13.8 percent (respectively) in 2004 (out of 29 VoTs). One minor had been subjected to abuse, incest and family complicity in the trafficking (Surtees 2005:144).

## **4. Bulgaria**

In Bulgaria, there was a high rate of abusive family relations that preceded being entrapped in trafficking in many cases. Some 39 percent of Bulgarians trafficked for sexual exploitation were abused in their families in 2003 and 31.3 percent in 2004 prior to being trafficked (Surtees 2005:175).

One Bulgarian victim of trafficking for labor, begging and delinquency in 2003 (7.7%) and one victim in 2004 (9.1%) reported “abuse in the home” (Surtees 2005:190). Another study reported that 25 percent of victims in 2003 and 27.8 percent of victims in 2004 characterized their family environments as “bad” or “difficult.” The majority of these respondents affirmatively characterized their family environments as “good” (Surtees 2005:175-176 citing IOM study).

The Animus Association Foundation reported that among 23 VoTs interviewed, over 40 percent experienced domestic violence (Stateva undated).

## **5. Croatia**

Of the 19 foreign victims assisted between 2002 and 2004, one victim reported domestic violence, and another reported a very difficult family environment with the father in prison. In contrast to the foreign victims, Croatian trafficked victims did not experience domestic violence in their past. Of the seven Croatian victims, none reported that they had experienced domestic violence (Surtees 2005:225-226).

## **6. Georgia**

The level of domestic violence in the Caucasus countries is high. However, there is not yet reliable evidence establishing a link between domestic violence and trafficking in persons in Georgia.

## **7. Kosovo**

Very significant levels of past domestic violence were reported among Kosovar trafficking victims: 53.1 percent in 2003 (out of 192 VoTs) and 46.9 percent in 2004 (out of 90 VoTs) (Surtees 2005:276-277). Among foreign victims assisted in Kosovo, there was a lower level of domestic violence. Of the foreign victims – originating primarily from Moldova, Albania, Romania and Ukraine – 8.3 percent in 2003 (based upon 60 VoTs) and 16.7 percent in 2004 (based upon 60 VoTs) had experienced domestic violence (Surtees 2005:259).

## **8. Macedonia**

In 2003, 17.7 percent of 141 foreign trafficked victims reported being abused prior to being trafficked. Of these, 44 percent were abused by parents, 12 percent by husbands, 12 percent by a relative, 12 percent by a step-parent, eight percent by an acquaintance, four percent by a boyfriend, four percent by a sibling and four percent by an unspecified individual. Despite this additional disaggregation of data identifying the perpetrator of the abuse, there was no additional detail about which forms of abuse were suffered. In response to an inquiry about sexual abuse, a further 10.6 percent of victims reported suffering sexual abuse prior to being trafficked, the majority (but not all) by members of their immediate families (Surtees 2005:309).

Also in 2003, foreign trafficking victims reported that they perceived their family relations as “difficult” in 19.9 percent of the cases. In 5.7 percent of cases, they described them as “bad,” but 36 percent characterized their family relations as “good” and 31.9 percent reported normal family relations (Surtees 2005:309).

There were no quantitative figures collected for Macedonian trafficked victims. The local NGO service provider indicated that many victims came from dysfunctional families. However, it is difficult to assess the significance of this observation since Macedonia has a high rate of family violence in general (Surtees 2005:322). For unclear reasons, there were no 2004 data available from Macedonia on this issue.

## **9. Moldova**

In contrast to many of the other countries, a number of Moldovan sources reported data pertaining to domestic violence and trafficking. While they share the finding that domestic violence appears to a significant degree among trafficking victims, it is otherwise difficult to compare or reconcile the different figures.

- An IOM study concluded that 80 percent of returned victims in Moldova were subjected to domestic violence before being trafficked (Limanowska 2003:73).
- The NGO Italian Consortium of Solidarity, which runs an income-generation program for victims of trafficking in Moldova, reported that seven of its 21 (33.3%) beneficiaries came from a home where there was domestic violence (Surtees 2005:349).
- The NGO Interaction in Transnistria reported that approximately 80 percent of the 50 victims it assisted in 2004 had experienced domestic violence (Surtees 2005:349).
- In addition, of 28 Moldovan victims assisted by Salvati Copii (Save the Children) in 2003, ten (35.7%) came from a problematic family background, including five (17.9%) where there was alcohol abuse, two (7.1%) where there was conflict, two (7.1%) where the victims were neglected and one (3.6%) who suffered domestic violence (Surtees 2005:349).
- Of 45 Moldovan victims of labor trafficking assisted by Salvati Copii in 2003, a slight majority (51.1%) faced problems in their families, including domestic violence (11.1%). Other problems included: alcohol abuse (20%), conflict (8.9%), neglect (8.9%) and dysfunction (2.2%) (Surtees 2005:374-375).
- A 2005 report of the OSCE Mission to Moldova stated that 70 to 90 percent of trafficking victims repatriated to Moldova suffered domestic violence and abuse at home prior to their trafficking experience (OSCE 2006:9). There are no data presented to support this estimate, so it is not possible to independently assess the reliability of this very broad and very high estimate.

A report entitled “Moldova Report: Evaluating Domestic Violence Shelter & Trafficking in Persons Programs” is the most recent effort to address this subject (North Carolina Minute Man Fellows 2006). The study involved interviews with several anti-trafficking actors – in and out of government – to elicit their views of the intersection between trafficking in persons and domestic violence. The President of the international organization La Strada, for example, stated that 80 percent of victims of trafficking in Moldova had been victims of domestic violence. Hard data to support this estimate were not available. The women were described as going abroad if in domestic violence situations to improve their finances; the children were often left with relatives and abandoned by their fathers.

Other anti-trafficking actors familiar with the Moldovan situation, such as Winrock International and the Deputy Chief of Mission of the U.S. Embassy, indicated during interviews for this report that domestic violence is a major factor in trafficking from the Moldovan perspective. As the

empirical grounding for these views was not possible to glean from these meetings, it would be useful to follow-up on these perspectives.

## **10. Montenegro**

Poor family relations appear to be common among foreign victims trafficked to Montenegro (Surtees 2005:408). The following statistics were compiled by the Women's Safe House in Podgorica in 2004, covering victims served from 2000-2004 and organized by their country of origin (Women's Safe House 2004:5).

- **Romanians:** One girl was a victim of incest, another suffered domestic violence.
- **Ukrainians:** Two women suffered domestic violence and one indicated she lived in a stable family environment.
- **Serbian:** One girl's parents were divorced and she was raped by her step-father, another girl was raped by her uncle.
- **Moldovans:** Three girls had fathers who abused alcohol, two were divorced (not indicated if violence contributed to this), six women lived in stable family environments, and three girls' mothers passed away.
- **Montenegrins:** One girl reported problems with her father, and all lived in extreme poverty.
- **Belarusians:** Reported domestic violence, alcohol abuse and poverty. Three women reported coming from stable families.
- **Croatians:** One girl reported that she lived in poor conditions with her mother who was alcoholic and committed suicide in her presence.
- **Russians:** All women came from poor families.
- **Bulgarians:** No data.

Montenegrin VoTs who were assisted in 2003 and 2004 reported problematic family relations. In 2004, all five victims had some family problems. One victim came from a broken home and both she and her sister had been thrown out of their house by their mother while still minors. She was living on the street when recruited. Further, three of the five victims assisted in 2004 were siblings and had been trafficked by their mother and another relative (Surtees 2005:420).

## **11. Romania**

The available evidence of violence in the home among trafficking victims is similar for Romania. Nearly 41 percent of 194 Romanian victims of sexual exploitation reported violence and problems in the home in 2003, and 36.4 percent of 193 VoTs reported such an environment in 2004. Domestic violence accounted for 30.8 percent of these reports of violence in the home in 2003 and 33.1 percent in 2004. In addition, 1.4 percent of victims in 2003 and 1.3 percent in 2004 suffered incest, while 8.5 percent of victims in 2003 and two percent in 2004 had at least one parent who abused alcohol (Surtees 2005:446).

In a number of cases, victims reported how this family violence led directly to their decision to escape/migrate.

*One victim, seeking to escape a husband who regularly and severely beat her, was trafficked when she accepted an offer of work abroad. Another woman ended up trafficked for prostitution to Italy as she sought to escape her stepfather who was an abusive alcoholic.*

Surtees 2005:446

In contrast to the vast majority of countries, Romania has some data pertaining to the incidence of domestic violence among victims of trafficking for labor, begging and delinquency. In 2003, victims in 14.3 percent of these cases (27 VoTs) reported domestic abuse and violence, and in 2004, 10 percent (of 23 VoTs) had reported these activities (Surtees 2005:467-8). Romanian national victims of labor trafficking indicated that they had been subjected to domestic abuse in 14.3 percent of the 22 cases in 2003 and ten percent of 14 VoTs in 2004. There also is some rarely collected information about victims trafficked for begging and delinquency. Of the 14 assisted victims assisted in 2003 and 2004, six responded with three indicating that they came from homes where there was domestic violence (Surtees 2005:467-468).

## **12. Russia**

No reliable data on the incidence of a history of domestic violence among trafficking victims were identified. However, one study looking at the Russian Federation concluded the following.

*Family crises, together with poverty and lack of opportunities, is one of the most common reasons for human trafficking. Approximately 14 million Russian children live in broken homes and are mostly cared for by women, with these families having much lower income levels than families with two working parents. General gender disparity and gender inequality in families, manifesting themselves in domestic violence and family crises, also are root causes for the growth in human trafficking and the vulnerability of criminal exploitation.*

Tiurukanova 2006:29

The 2004 *Gender Assessment for USAID Russia* indicated that there were prevailing gaps in understanding about trafficking and domestic violence: “Anti-trafficking and domestic violence programming technical assistance is needed to better understand the dynamics of each issue and to assist in effective targeting of limited resources” (DevTech 2004:11). The report goes on to conclude that “[t]he risk of trafficking in persons is directly tied to economic and social issues, and therefore requires a comprehensive approach tailored for the region/community in which the program is being implemented” (DevTech 2004:13).

## **13. Serbia**

Service providers report that only a few foreign trafficked victims were from problematic homes or had experienced domestic violence. Domestic violence was the primary motivation for one Ukrainian woman migrating to seek work abroad. During her ten-year marriage, she was regularly abused; her husband also forced her to have sex with his friends and beat her violently when she asked for a divorce. During the process of seeking work, she was trafficked for labor or begging (Surtees 2005:504-505).

Among nationally trafficked victims, one reported having suffered violence at home (Surtees 2005:518).

#### **14. Ukraine**

A LaStrada Ukraine survey of trafficked women in Ukraine found that 33 percent had experienced violence or abuse in the home, and three percent stated that the reason they went overseas was in an attempt to flee domestic violence (Rosenberg 2006:19).

According to Winrock International's local NGO partner, West Ukrainian Center "Women's Perspectives," in a survey of 500 women, eight percent wanted to go abroad in order to escape from domestic violence, alcoholism, or narcotics use (Rosenberg 2006:19 citing L. Maksymovych, personal communication, September 6, 2004).

A 2004 study asserted that there is a link between domestic violence and trafficking in persons but did not have underlying statistics establishing that connection.

*Another major factor considered to place women at risk of being trafficked is their desire to escape crisis situations at home. Particularly alarming is the extent of domestic violence women suffer – a recent study indicated that 33% of women suffer from moral or verbal assault, at the hands of their husbands, friends or neighbours, while 11%-12% are subjected to sexual abuse or battery and 5% suffer from physical abuse from their husbands.*

OSCE 2004:24

One study reviewed reasons why trafficking victims left Ukraine. Of 277 Ukrainian trafficking victims surveyed by Winrock International (2004:5), not a single respondent cited domestic violence as their main motivation for going abroad. Reasons given were to earn money for basic needs (64.6%), buy or renovate their flat (18.8%), pay off debts (15.2%) and support their children's education (10.1%). While this does not mean that none of these victims had been exposed to domestic violence, as discussed in the next section of this paper, it does, arguably, raise the question of the primacy of domestic violence as a direct trigger for trafficking in persons among a range of other potential factors.

#### **C. Other Studies**

In addition to these data from specific countries in the E&E region, there are several multi-country studies that have considered trafficked victims' experiences with domestic violence.

A recent report that studied statistical data on trafficked women's health, including evidence of violence, found a high incidence of violence experienced by the women interviewed before trafficking. The study, which is more methodologically rigorous than most research addressing human trafficking, interviewed 207 women from fourteen countries, including a number in the E&E region, who had been trafficked to a total of 24 countries (Zimmerman et al. 2006:6). Over half (52%) reported being sexually abused by a family member, with 28 percent stating that the

abuse was perpetrated by a father (14%) or step-father (24%) (Zimmerman et al. 2006:9). Mothers also were implicated in cases of sexual abuse (2%) (Zimmerman et al. 2006:9).

When the inquiry was broadened to ask about past incidences of violence of any form, the study found that 60 percent of the trafficked victims reported some form of violence prior to being trafficked (i.e., not necessarily domestic violence), with 32 percent having been sexually abused and 50 percent physically assaulted. Nearly one-quarter (22%) were both physically and sexually abused (Zimmerman et al. 2006:9). Based upon these findings, the study notes that the “prevalence of violence reported by women prior to being trafficked compare with some of the highest national prevalence levels of gender-based violence in the world” (Zimmerman et al. 2006:9 citing statistics in World Health Organization, 2005).

Another study that focused on health issues involving victims of trafficking asked respondents in Albania, Italy, the Netherlands, Thailand, and the United Kingdom: “Did anyone ever hurt you while you were living in your home country?” Two out of twenty respondents answered that they had been abused by their spouse, four by their father or parents, and one by classmates (Zimmerman 2003:31).

In sum, this section reflects the incompleteness of data collection and analysis in the E&E region necessary to reveal insights into a link between domestic violence and trafficking in persons. The self-reporting of past family problems by some victims of trafficking signal that some connection may exist, but drawing meaningful findings or conclusions based upon what can be gleaned from the information currently available is problematic. The next section considers the nature of the data that are available about the intersection of domestic violence and trafficking in persons in more detail.

### **III. ANALYSIS OF THE EVIDENCE OF AN INTERSECTION BETWEEN TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS AND DOMESTIC VIOLENCE**

This section considers a number of issues connected with interpreting whether the data presented in the previous section show that victims of domestic violence are more susceptible to trafficking in persons than others who have not experienced domestic violence.

Although the sparse quantitative and qualitative data identified for this report are insufficient to conclude that there is a definitive intersection between domestic violence and trafficking in persons, it is, however, premature to treat the matter as decided. The limits of this desk inquiry suggest the need for continued research as recommended in Section VII: “Looking Forward: Gaps, Issues and Recommendation of What is Needed.” Discovering new avenues to expand availability of effective and sustainable assistance to populations of domestic violence victims and trafficked victims throughout the E&E region is critical and argues against relying on the dearth of data currently available for important policy and program decisions. As described next, the limitations of current data call for additional work on this issue.

#### **A. Lack of Disaggregation of Data about Family Violence Produces Gaps**

Data on family violence experienced by trafficked victims are not precise. In particular, data are not sufficiently disaggregated to reflect meaningful factors/variables within family environments or the broader social terrain that may also involve violence. Consequently, there are serious gaps in understanding the import of the data for designing targeted prevention activities. Most significantly, it is not possible to determine whether the reported domestic violence was between spouses and intimate partners or by parents toward their children. In addition, the data are not disaggregated by home country to permit analysis by country of origin. The importance of this basic information for analysis and targeted prevention strategies is clear.

The data also are not calibrated to inform nuanced and effective responses. Family conflict, for example, can fall short of constituting domestic violence yet potentially increase susceptibility to trafficking. It may also provide an impetus to migrate which, potentially, leads to trafficking. Data do not articulate the various types of problems within families. Understanding the scope of family dynamics can tailor preventative, diagnostic and curative measures to the specific problem within the family, as well as understand more precisely how a fuller range of family dynamics may intersect with human trafficking.

The potential intersection between domestic violence and trafficking in persons is more complex than the current data reflect. For example, DV could heighten vulnerability for family members who may not have been the original target of domestic violence. A divorced victim of DV may migrate to support her children. Leaving children behind in this way (even with other relatives) may elevate their own vulnerability to being trafficked. Another scenario noted in SEE is when women chose to migrate with their children to protect them from domestic violence, a protective measure which may lead to exploitation of both the mother and her children (Surtees 2005).

There also was a significant indication of alcohol abuse among the respondents that requires further study. It is not clear to what extent alcohol abuse was perceived and reported as part of poor family relations or of domestic violence (Surtees 2005).

The interaction of the individual and the recruiter/perpetrator within a trafficking episode also requires further investigation, including when that individual is a member of the trafficking victim's family.

In summary, more needs to be known about factors in a victim's life history, socio-economic circumstances, and subsequent risks and outcomes. Systematic collection of detailed disaggregated data is the first step in developing this knowledge.

## **B. Data Limitations**

Data pertaining to the intersection of domestic violence and trafficking in persons were not uniformly collected by service providers nor were they collected according to standardized definitions and a standardized methodology. As such, available data are not easily comparable as findings are informed by an individual organization's interpretation of violence and abuse. With rare exception, data were collected only from assisted victims – not undiscovered victims or those who declined to be assisted. Data collection met the service provider's case management needs rather than those of an independent, empirical study to advance understanding or research objectives.

The statistics alone do not detail the context in which this information was collected nor the possible variables which may impact their analyses. It is important to couple statistical accounts with qualitative texture to explain any variations in findings. For example, the wildly fluctuating figures from Bosnia and Herzegovina, indicating that domestic violence was a factor in 20.3 percent of foreign victims in 2003 and only 1.3 percent in 2004, have no explanation because they have no context.

Consequently, gaps in understanding cannot be overcome until fundamental research issues are addressed to collect, disaggregate and analyze more precise data on family violence among trafficked victims.

## **C. Under-reporting**

Where data have been collected, they are likely under-reported. The reasons for this include: 1) the limited amount of time researchers have to build trust with a respondent; and 2) a victim's differing interpretation of family violence to that of the researcher's. These are described in more detail in the following two subsections.

### **1. Trust and Disclosure**

The sensitivity of discussing domestic violence issues combined with the short time in which victims typically interact with service-providers hamper the development of trust between a data collector and victim respondent necessary to obtain data on family relation issues. Much of the

data about the VoTs' profiles come from service providers, collected during a victim's stay in destination countries. The duration of a victim's stay in a shelter is almost uniformly short. Typically, they are removed and returned to their country of origin within several weeks. Efforts to acquire information about the individual's background are usually based on no more than a few interviews that are not focused on gathering precise background facts. The victim has only recently left an environment devoid of trust and, as a result, may not feel sufficiently comfortable with service providers to openly share personal accounts of family violence and conflict. In a study of trafficking victims' experiences with assistance, one woman describes how time was needed for her to establish trust in her social worker.

*At the first meeting with the social worker, I talked very few things, and those I was telling were lies, and I needed some time to fully trust and tell the truth. After that, I remember I felt released and hoped they were going to help me.*

Surtees, forthcoming 2007

As such, it is arguably the case that data collected about conflictual family relations have a better chance of being obtained and of being reliable when victims are interviewed in an assistance program over longer periods of time and/or in their country of origin (which also addresses linguistic and cultural barriers).

## **2. Evaluating Family Life Circumstances Differently**

Evidence suggests how the subjective nature of characterizing life experiences can skew findings. The assessment by a trafficking victim of whether she/he suffered violence at home may be quite different than the interviewer's assessment. An instructive illustration of this point comes from Serbia where, during an interview, a victim of trafficking reported that she had not experienced violence in the home but then recounted that she had been abused by her father. When asked to reconcile this, she said that, because she deserved it, it was not really abuse (Surtees 2005:504-505). A victim's assessment of whether her/his experience constitutes domestic violence has a subjective element.

Differing perspectives may be explained in part by societal acceptance of domestic violence, by both men and women, prevalent in much of the region (Rosenberg 2006:5-6). A report arising out of a media campaign in the Ukraine evidenced that only "27 percent of women surveyed considered verbal abuse to be violence, 32 percent humiliation, and interestingly, only 49 percent beating and 56 percent rape. Even fewer men considered these actions to be violence" (Donetsk Regional League of Business and Professional Women, 2000).

If a victim of trafficking does not perceive abuse and/or violence to be domestic violence, as a result of societal acceptance or other factors, this will result in under-reporting.

### **D. Available Data Fail to Establish a Causal Link**

While the general numbers of reports by trafficked victims of a history involving domestic violence suggest a positive association between domestic violence and trafficking in persons, questions remain as to whether this is a valid conclusion, based upon the current state of

knowledge. There are at least three prominent considerations that deserve further attention in assessing the significance of the available numbers for purposes of policy and programmatic planning.

First, with only a few exceptions, even in countries with the highest number of reports of domestic violence by victims of trafficking, the majority do not report family difficulties. Second, the connection between the high occurrence of domestic violence and its role as the sole sufficient push factor for migration (that may lead to trafficking) is arguably tenuous among the trafficking assisted victims providing data cited. Finally, there are many other factors that contribute to human trafficking. Currently, there is no analysis to help establish the comparative weight these factors should be accorded. Such an evaluation, of course, would be useful in determining policy and programmatic direction and priorities. These three considerations are discussed in the following subsections.

### ***1. Most Assisted Victims of Trafficking Do Not Have a History of Domestic Violence***

For most countries that collected data for both 2003 and 2004, the majority of assisted victims of trafficking did not previously suffer violence in the home (Surtees 2005). In Bulgaria, for example, over 60 percent of foreign trafficked victims did not report family difficulties. In Kosovo, over 80 percent of foreign victims, the majority who originated primarily from Moldova, Albania, Romania and Ukraine, apparently had relatively stable or normal family backgrounds. In Romania, the figure of trafficked victims not reporting family strife is over 50 percent.

This does not mean that domestic violence is not a contributing element in the existence of human trafficking. It does suggest that it is unwise to view domestic violence in isolation without regard for how it may interact with other explanations of vulnerability. It also suggests that it is essential to look in depth within and behind the issue of family strife or violence for additional explanations of trafficking vulnerability.

### ***2. Data on Trafficking Victims' Histories of Domestic Violence do not Establish Domestic Violence as a "Push" Factor for Trafficking***

There are indications that for many "potential victims," the circumstances produced by domestic violence may not translate directly into a reason for going abroad.

One reason may be societal attitudes towards accepting domestic violence. The percentage of female respondents who reportedly believed that wife beating was justified ranged from 6.2 percent in Serbia (Belgrade only) to as high as approximately 60 percent in Azerbaijan and 70 percent in Uzbekistan (Rosenberg, 2006:5-6). It would seem to follow that the higher the level of tolerance for wife beating by women in a country, the lower the likelihood that domestic violence would produce a strong impetus to flee from family circumstances.

A 2005 study in Moldova supported by USAID sought to identify vulnerability based on contemporary pressures that weigh heavily upon young women. These pressures lead to flawed life decisions and contribute to circumstances in which many young people in Moldova feel they have no choice but to pursue options - even if they are illegal or unsafe. Respondents were asked to identify the reasons that prompted their traveling abroad. Despite the high rate of domestic violence (41%) reported among the research respondents (Imas Inc.:1:64), only one percent of the women selected “violence in the family” as their primary motivation for leaving Moldova (Imas,Inc.:61). The other categories selected by respondents ahead of domestic violence were: “unemployment/dissatisfaction with job,” “wish for adventure/travel,” “poverty,” “desire for money,” and “other.” In this study, the high rate of domestic violence did not make it a push factor for trafficking in persons.

The finding of the Moldova study is consistent with the study conducted in Ukraine (described at Sec. III B.14 *supra* in the Ukraine country subsection) that reviewed reasons trafficking victims had left Ukraine. Of 277 Ukrainian trafficking victims surveyed by Winrock International (2004:5), no respondent identified domestic violence as the main motivation for going abroad.

### **3. Comparative Role of Other Factors Contributing to TIP**

Finally, the comparative weight and interaction of contributing factors are not understood. As noted above, explanations for vulnerability may not be determined in isolation without considering more complex dynamic causative relationships that result in trafficking. Comparative evaluation of data would be useful in determining policy and programmatic direction and priorities.

Other factors typically cited as contributing to trafficking in persons include, but are not limited to: poverty, unemployment or underemployment; lack of education; globalization; social and material aspiration; gender discrimination and low status of women; restricted access to credit for women; ethnic discrimination; demand; political and civil instability, and armed conflict; statelessness; the “feminization” of migration; immigration policies (i.e., restrictive vs. liberal border and visa approaches); forced migration; and corruption. Parallel to these factors, there always is a trafficker who intervenes criminally.

Very little is known about how these factors work, individually or in combination, to result in human trafficking. The prospects of untangling or attempting to “weigh” contributing factors are more complex than they first appear. For example, at least one expert on human trafficking has observed that victims of human trafficking, while often poor, are also often not the poorest of the poor. The likely reason for this is that individuals subjected to the most severe poverty are more likely to be in such poor condition that they are of no value to a trafficker for sex trafficking or forced labor. It has been observed that many living in poverty or poorly educated are not trafficked. Understanding causative factors without relevant data means that the question of how domestic violence fits into this mix is not currently answerable.

### **a. What can be Derived by Comparing Prevalence Rates**

Zimmerman concludes that the 60 percent “prevalence of violence reported by women prior to being trafficked compare with some of the highest national prevalence levels of gender-based violence in the world” (Zimmerman et al. 2006:9 citing statistics in World Health Organization 2005). This conclusion speaks to the level of violence generally experienced worldwide by victims of trafficking. For purposes of comparison, Zimmerman also found that 52 percent reported being sexually abused by a family member. This recent study (see Section III.C “Other Studies”), published by The London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine and based upon 207 interviews with victims of trafficking, is arguably the most authoritative source on the intersection between domestic violence (and violence generally) and trafficking in persons. While such global rates do not present how DV rates among VoTs compare with prevalence rates for DV in the countries of the E&E region, they offer many questions for regional data collection.

Currently, the data available from the E&E region do not provide the answers to these questions. The numbers collected by service providers reflect a wide range of “prevalence figures” where domestic violence was reported in the history of VoTs. They are as high as 80 or 90 percent in Moldova (with other lower figures of 33% and 51% reported by other NGOs in Moldova) and as low as 1.3 percent for one year (2004) in BiH. Unfortunately, the numbers across the region, and even within countries, are methodologically unsound (for reasons discussed in part, above) and irreconcilable.<sup>4</sup>

It follows then that it is not possible to compare unreliable numbers with prevalence rates of domestic violence for the E&E region presented in the study by Rosenberg (Rosenberg 2006:4). Moreover, even if the data on VoTs were more reliable data on prevalence rates for domestic violence would be needed before meaningful analysis could be undertaken. Rosenberg notes that there are “numerous gaps and limitations on the numbers available, including that studies use different methodologies, different definitions of domestic violence, frame questions in different ways, and have target populations with differing demographics, making it difficult to draw comparisons from the results” (Rosenberg 2006:vi).

Consequently, the available numbers about the incidence of DV and the experience of VoTs with DV do not permit comparison to determine whether domestic violence victims are more susceptible to being trafficked in the E&E region. More reliable and in-depth data need to be collected in the region to confirm this possibility.

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<sup>4</sup> There are reasons for this, as stated previously, that data collected to serve case management purposes (i.e., to get information that might be helpful in serving the VoT) are not adequate or valid for research purposes.

#### IV. A PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS OF GENERAL CATEGORIES OF SERVICES/RESPONSES FOR DV AND TIP VICTIMS

In Southeastern Europe, women's groups working on the issue of violence against women and operating shelters for battered women were the first to provide services to victims of trafficking (Limonowska 2005:20). These groups viewed the shelter and assistance provided to battered women and victims of violence sufficiently compatible for some victims of trafficking. While some organizations still provide shelter and services to both populations, there has been a great increase in organizations dedicated solely to victims of trafficking. At the same time, many domestic violence service providers have reduced activities due to a lack of funding (Rosenberg 2006). This has led to a dearth of available assistance for victims of domestic violence in the region (Rosenberg 2006:40). Fewer DV service providers means less data collection on DV in the E&E region since NGO service providers typically are a central source of data gathered in connection with their assistance and case management responsibilities. To the extent that limited DV assistance is available now, it is found primarily in metropolitan areas, not in rural areas where the majority who need access to care are found (Rosenberg 2006:40).

This section provides a brief overview of the types of prevention strategies and services available to victims of trafficking, and, to some extent, to victims of domestic violence in the E&E region. This overview considers common and distinguishing features among key categories of services and responses within domestic violence and trafficking. This section also considers strengths and weaknesses of these programs relevant to assisting survivors of both DV and TIP.

It is not within the scope of this report to provide a comprehensive country-by-country mapping of services or organizations providing those services. A recent overview of services available for victims of domestic violence may be found in the USAID report "Domestic Violence in Europe and Eurasia" (Rosenberg 2006:21-29). However, very little detail exists in the literature pertaining to the nature or availability of services. For a description of VoT services by country, the most comprehensive source is the *Second Annual Report on Victims of Trafficking in Southeastern Europe* (Surtees 2005). Portions of this section are adapted from extensive prior research of the NEXUS Institute (see Surtees 2006a, 2006b).

The common forms of services and responses that victims of domestic violence and victims of trafficking may need include:

- Shelter and accommodation;
- Medical care;
- Mental health care;
- Legal assistance;
- Educational assistance;
- Vocational training and job placement;
- Family mediation;
- Reintegration support; and
- Specialized assistance for minors.

## **A. Shelter and Accommodation**

Access to a haven of safe and stable accommodation is a prerequisite to the recovery and rebuilding of lives for both victims of trafficking and victims of domestic violence. Shelters, broadly speaking, refer to a range of housing and accommodation for victims of domestic violence and/or trafficking victims including centralized dedicated shelters, houses, apartments, hotels, churches, etc. (IOM 2007:111). Shelters can be either short-term (for emergency and crisis care) and long-term facilities (for recovery and reintegration support). Shelters provide a safe place for victims in the initial recovery period where decisions are made about assistance options based upon the individual needs of victims. They may also provide longer term reintegration and recovery accommodation options. Flexible options in accommodation are desirable in both the DV and TIP contexts.

Shelters that centralize housing and care are expensive enterprises. A study of shelters for victims of trafficking in different regions of the world found that the average number of staff included nine full-time employees, three part-time staff and three volunteers (IOFA undated:12). The social worker was the most prevalent professional employed. Such staff highlight the costliness of running separate, dedicated facilities with in-house assistance. It also suggests that this model is not tenable for small communities in countries in the E&E, given the ubiquitous nature of both trafficking and domestic violence. In fact, there are relatively few services available for victims of domestic violence and victims of trafficking in towns and smaller cities across the E&E region.

Shelters that centralize housing in locations traditionally (although not necessarily exclusively) identified as countries of destination for victims of trafficking, e.g., Serbia, Montenegro, Croatia, BiH, Macedonia and Kosovo, are generally for foreign victims. Shelters which anticipate serving a population comprised of non-citizens typically are organized, at least in part, by the legal resident status of the shelter beneficiaries. Non-citizens most often are kept in closed shelters (i.e., shelters that do not permit residents to leave the premises). The duration of stay for foreign victims is also connected to their citizenship. The length of stay depends primarily on the time required to procure travel documents and exit visas and to complete any necessary investigations involving that individual by authorities. In countries of destination, it is rare, at best, for there to be long-term alternative accommodations for foreign victims. Most shelters are typically arranged to assist non-citizen victims with short-term or emergency care only until their removal from the country, rather than intermediate or long-term support.

Not all VoT shelters accommodate foreign victims exclusively. With the emergence of expanded eligibility to serve victims of trafficking who are citizens/resident of the countries in which the shelter is located, some shelters assist national victims alongside foreign victims. This occurs, for example, in BiH, Croatia and Montenegro.

Shelters and accommodation in countries of origin serve a role in the reintegration process of victims of trafficking. They are often the first step in a VoT's longer-term reintegration process. In many countries of origin, longer-term housing assistance is rarely available for returning VoTs as reinsertion of trafficked victims into their families is a priority reintegration strategy.

Accommodation provides a place for victims to stay for several days until they return to their families.

In some other countries, longer-term reintegration includes the possibility of longer-term housing, generally through semi-independent living arrangements when victims are unable to return home to live. This reintegration assistance is available, for example, in Albania where three of the shelters (Different and Equal, Tjeter Vision and Vatra) maintain semi-independent apartments; in Kosovo, where Hope and Homes has semi-independent living options for abused youth; in Romania where Adpare, Connexiuni and Social Alternatives offer assistance with semi-independent living; and in Bulgaria where IOM operates six temporary accommodations for victims.

Flexible, non-centralized, temporary housing options are most consistent with the reintegration process in an individual's home country. These arrangements allow individuals to take important transition steps back into the social and economic life of a community to secure work and save money toward independent living.

A recent report commissioned by the USAID Mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina to assess BiH's shelters for VoTs identified considerations, without elaboration, for and against mixing populations of domestic violence victims with VoTs at shelters. Reasons in favor of mixing populations include the following.

- Housing more than one type of resident often means that there are more residents at any one time, resulting in more activities as well as increased peer support.
- Victims can benefit from interaction with others, including helping with the children of other residents. (There is a risk, however, that the victims are too unstable and should not be allowed to mix with the others, especially with children.).
- Providing separate shelters may not be financially viable, nor will it always serve the best needs of the victims if specialized services are more readily available elsewhere.

Rosenberg 2007:13

Reasons for not mixing populations in shelters include the following.

- The trauma experienced by VoTs is often more severe and requires more intensive assistance than victims of other crimes.
- Staff expertise may not be transferable.
- Mixed shelters may have more victims in residence and more victims in residence means less time is available for each person.
- Security protocols may also be less restrictive in mixed shelters designed for victims of domestic violence and, therefore, not appropriate for victims with significant security threats. In cases where victims are at high risk of reprisal from traffickers, they should probably be housed in secure facilities away from other populations of victims who do not require such secure and, therefore, restrictive environments.

Rosenberg 2007:13

A preliminary survey of VoT shelters from around the world concluded that shelters should either be dedicated to or careful of important potential differences of VoT needs (IOFA:8).

*Shelters serving victims of trafficking should serve only this population [i.e., victims of trafficking]. However, if victims of trafficking are accommodated together with other beneficiaries, special attention must be paid to their unique needs, including possible cultural barriers, safety issues and problems related to social stigma from which they might suffer.*

IOFA undated:8

Some of these considerations are echoed in a manual for domestic violence centers contemplating accepting victims of trafficking for shelter (Zollo 2004:6-8). Among other considerations domestic violence centers should anticipate are:

- VoTs may require more intensive case management;
- Where benefits are tied to cooperating with law enforcement on TIPs, DV Centers may have to work with law enforcement in a much greater capacity than previously experienced; and
- Victims of trafficking may need shelter services and housing for much longer time than non-trafficked victims of domestic violence.

Zollo 2004:6-8

Three issues connected with shelters warrant additional attention: mixed populations and stigma; shelter security; and shelter restrictions.

### **1. Mixed Populations and Social Stigma**

The existence of stigma is a critical, but poorly understood, dynamic that may negatively effect sheltering mixed populations of VoTs and DV victims. It has implications for the recovery of individuals living within the service providers care and may raise shelter management issues as well.

Both DV victims and VoTs often face stigma and are blamed by society for the crimes perpetrated against them. The potential for such stigma to cause conflict within a mixed population shelter must be considered.

Stigma toward victims of trafficking is now consistently documented anecdotally. Most documentation has been gathered from family and community residents at large. However, in the absence of primary data on the attitudes of domestic violence victims residing in shelters toward victims of trafficking, it may be appropriate to translate the existence of the presence of stigma against victims of trafficking in communities and even among VoTs' closest relatives to shelter settings. In policy and program development, it is prudent to consider potential issues that could arise from the possibility that some victims of domestic violence may hold prejudices

similar to those held by other community members at large. These would need to be addressed prior to mixing populations in shelters.

In a USAID-funded project by ICMPD, the NEXUS Institute (Surtees 2007, forthcoming) conducted research in which trafficking victims addressed the subjects of stigma, resentment, and related issues of discrimination while receiving assistance. The following are excerpts from lengthy interviews in which trafficking victims shared their experiences.

*I heard from other girls that in their villages, where the people know what happened to them, the fellow villagers are not very glad when they see assistance delivered to them from specialized organizations... For example, a girl who opened a sale booth in her village, while being assisted by an organization, was in a way rejected in her village, the people gossiped about her that 'it was better if they helped proper hardworking people, instead of this prostitute.' I think that in a small village it is impossible to keep secret the fact that someone helps you...*

Another woman who returned to Moldova after being trafficked to Romania observed:

*I think our community doesn't quite understand why girls who were sexually exploited should be provided with some help. They think prostitutes should not be helped.*

Another trafficking victim found that even her husband condemned assistance going to "prostitutes:"

*My husband blames me very much. He says 'go there, go, they help prostitutes and why do they help prostitutes? They'd better help normal people.'*

Other studies from E&E countries, including one conducted in Azerbaijan, reinforce the pervasiveness of stigmatization, here mixed with family shame.

*On quite a few occasions, the interviewers were prevented from meeting with victims by their relatives. This happened more often in rural areas, as the victims' relatives felt stigmatized and could not bear the idea of sharing their daughters' or sisters' shame with outsiders.*

IOM 2002:15

Recently conducted field research by FAFO and the NEXUS Institute documents, through victim interviews, that stigma can result in social ostracism in the community and rejection by one's own families. As one service provider observed of its work with victims in the family reintegration phase: "A priority objective of our work involves rejoining victims with their families. When we work with families, we never tell the families what she's done. Otherwise, the family will not accept the girl back. We simply say that the victim 'lacked documents'" (Brunovskis & Surtees 2007, forthcoming).

Another woman who survived trafficking observed that facing stigma meant that she was not at the end of her ordeal: "No one should know [about the prostitution]. If the community knows, you'll be seen through a different eye. They'll know she was trafficked sexually and might think that she wanted it. The family will be stigmatised" (Brunovskis & Surtees forthcoming 2007).

Shelter staff must address stigmatization in the victim's own family and communities fueled by shame, prejudice and an unfortunate ignorance of what the experience of trafficking involves: "People who work in shelters confirm that, in general, returning women and children do not want to be recognized as victims of trafficking because they are concerned about being labeled as prostitutes" (Limonofska 2003:210).

It is important to note that stigma among shelter populations may be directed to a number of factors other than one's status as a VoT. These may include, for example, citizenship, religion or ethnicity.

In conclusion, no data were found on the specific question of DV victims' attitudes toward VoTs, nor has there been adequate consideration of attitudes and biases of services providers toward the two populations. Nevertheless, anecdotal accounts by victims, families, and service providers suggest that potential stigmatization may pose a threat to the prospects for success of shelter/assistance programs involving mixing domestic violence victims with trafficking victim populations. There is a need for empirical study of different manifestations of stigma, including the nature and scope of stigma by victims of domestic violence (or staff) held against victims of trafficking.

## **2. Mixed Populations and Shelter Safety Issues**

The issue of security is raised frequently when shelters harbor mixed populations. The following quote from a victim of trafficking in SEE expresses the fear attached to the post-trafficking phase.

*[When I got home] they were already waiting on me. There were about seven [traffickers]. They were yelling at my mother, at me. I couldn't say anything. They threatened me that they would kill me if I didn't go back. They said that they bought me and that I have to return some money....*

Surtees 2007, forthcoming

Domestic violence shelters also can face threats of violence from perpetrators of domestic violence. DV victims can face severe risks of violence or even death at the hands of DV perpetrators. Literature suggests that the nature or severity of risk posed by traffickers is of a different order of magnitude (see e.g., Clawson et al. 2003:19; Zollo 2004:6). Staff and residents of domestic violence shelters may be concerned that they are not equipped to provide protection against potential retribution and violence from traffickers associated with organized criminal enterprises.

While serious threats clearly exist for some victims of trafficking who have escaped or been rescued and for their families, documented cases of violent attacks on shelters by traffickers are rare globally. This is fortunate because even in the face of actual or perceived safety risk, shelters for VoTs often do not have adequate security to protect against violent attacks.

A shelter housing VoTs should have security based on continuing risk assessments. Unsafe environments undermine the shelter's mission as fear and uncertainty can compromise recovery. On the other hand, security measures imposed because of the presence of trafficking victims may be counterproductive to the needs of domestic violence victims. There are, then, many practical issues involved in determining the proper balance to address the varied security needs of residents in a mixed population facility. If that tension can be resolved at all, it must be done on a case-by-case basis for each shelter.

### **3. Mixed Populations and Issues of Restrictive Shelter Rules**

Shelters for victims of human trafficking impose rules when housing foreign victims. These rules may include prohibiting residents from leaving the shelter, confiscating mobile phones and restricting phone calls. These restrictions are typically justified to address the safety and legal status of victims in the destination country.

Domestic violence shelters also need rules in order to function. These may not necessarily be as limiting as those found in shelters housing non-resident victims of trafficking. The question remains open whether domestic violence victims would readily accept all of the restrictions typical in many shelters for victims of trafficking. When national victims of trafficking are housed with foreign victims - as they are in BiH, Croatia and Montenegro, for example - national victims are subject to the same restrictive rules. Recent interviews with national victims indicate this may be stressful and a source of friction (Brunovskis & Surtees 2007, forthcoming). However well-intentioned for victims of trafficking, complying with strict restrictions may be a source of stress and friction for co-mingled domestic violence victims.

The pros and cons of forbidding residents from leaving the premises of a shelter and other restrictions are a matter of debate. Clearly, it is important to have shelter procedures that are necessary to maintain order, safety and to avoid tension and conflict among the residents. Nevertheless, restrictions that may be appropriate for some may not be appropriate for others. It is critical to balance reasonable rules with the maximum amount of choice on a case-by-case basis. This is necessary to achieve full recovery and reintegration for each resident. The nuances of achieving this proper balance must be examined in a shelter that is housing a mixed population. If domestic violence victims and trafficking victims are to share the same space, finding this delicate balance would be essential.

### **B. Medical Care**

Both victims of domestic violence and trafficking victims may have acute and varied medical problems. The general medical needs of victims of trafficking and victims of domestic violence overlap although they are not exactly the same. The individualized needs of each victim may require different or special care. Emergency and longer-term medical care may be needed. Hospitalization, including surgical care, also may be necessary for major and minor injuries sustained from violence and abuse as well as a variety of illnesses, infections, alcohol and drug detoxification, gynecological problems, and psychiatric problems (see Zimmerman et al. 2006 for a description of the range of health consequences of trafficking).

A number of shelters provide medical care using an in-house doctor and medical services. A physician trained to care for both DV and TIP victims could be programmatically sound and cost-effective. However, as with other forms of assistance, medical care is typically contingent upon agreement by the individual to reside in a shelter. Shelter-based care, however, has several implications and limitations for the provision of health care, especially when tied to long term recovery needs.

The shelter-based model means that acquiring medical assistance is more problematic for victims not living in a shelter. For those who have declined to enter a shelter and participate in formalized assistance programs, or if a shelter is not readily available geographically, the opportunities for accessing medical care are limited. In particular, once a victim has returned to his or her home community, accessing medical assistance may be quite difficult and constrains meeting an individual's medical requirements.

Shelter residency-based provision of care also raises systemic obstacles to providing long-term medical care. For those residing in a shelter, medical care is typically limited to early-stage examinations and treatment because of stay limitations. Funding support to shelters does not always cover care for severe conditions that require treatment at a hospital or clinic not connected to the shelter. Service providers face financial difficulties when victims of trafficking need more extensive medical assistance and hospitalization.

At present, the provision of medical care during shelter residency is not flexible enough to meet the range of care requirements of victims of trafficking and domestic violence. A more flexible and tailored approach will be needed.

### **C. Mental Health Care**

Trafficking victims require a range of mental health care as their needs may be acute (Zimmerman et al. 2006; Zimmerman et al. 2003). The depression, anxiety and hostility evidenced in victims of trafficking have been likened to symptoms frequently detected among torture survivors (Zimmerman et al. 2006:16). Over a third of the women reported having suicidal thoughts (Zimmerman et al. 2006:18); one NGO stated that within the year and a half preceding the study, it had six suicide attempts. Another NGO reported that one client had successfully committed suicide (Zimmerman et al. 2006:18). The majority of women suffered from post-traumatic stress disorder (Zimmerman et al. 2006:19-22).

Properly trained mental health professionals are capable of providing needed care to both victims of domestic violence and trafficking. It is unclear precisely how much overlap there is in the mental health issues faced by victims of trafficking and victims of domestic violence. However, several reports raise the issue, without elaboration, that shelters should expect that the trauma and mental health of many VoTs may be different and more severe than that suffered by most domestic violence victims (see Zollo 2004:6; Rosenberg 2007).

There are several aspects of the current provision of mental health care in the context of serving victims of trafficking in persons which warrant highlighting. First, most programs provide services only to shelter residents. The responsiveness of their counseling services to a client's

needs is, thus, determined by the duration of his or her stay at the shelter rather than by recovery needs. Counseling provided at longer-term reintegration shelters may be more comprehensive than counseling at shorter-term shelters. Victims who stay at shelters for relatively short periods of time are generally provided with only basic “stabilization” counseling. This counseling is insufficient for the required long recovery process associated with acute mental health care. To build trust or remember traumatic events, it takes more time than is available during a temporary shelter stay.

Second, in shelters in the E&E region, psychologists and psychiatrists may not be available to provide critical counseling. Due to insufficient funding support for service-provider organizations, it is common for social workers to be sole provider of psychological counseling in shelters. As serious psychological issues may impact both domestic violence and trafficking in persons victims, this is an inadequate response.

Third, shelters typically provide group counseling in conjunction with individual sessions. In a shared shelter environment, it is possible that there would be counseling-related reasons not to mix groups of domestic violence and trafficking victims for group counseling sessions.

Fourth, when victims return home after what is most often a short stay in a shelter in the destination country, the provision of appropriate psychological services is often inaccessible. Most specialized counseling services are located in capital cities while many victims originate and are returned promptly to areas outside them.

In sum, a range of mental health problems, some quite severe, are likely to be encountered among individuals within both DV and VoT populations. The important question is whether properly trained mental health shelters, services and professionals will be available to provide the care required, including when that care is needed over the long term and in rural areas.

#### **D. Vocational Training and Job Placement**

Skills training – for adults and older minors, where appropriate – has been a staple of prevention, empowerment and, to a lesser extent, reintegration programs in several countries.

Programs of employment-related training and placement serve both prevention and recovery objectives. By helping to provide individuals with the means of self-sufficiency, these programs are among the most powerful tools available in addressing both domestic violence and trafficking in persons. They provide skills-training for financial self-sufficiency, including vocational training, job placement assistance, and post-employment counseling. They may include training and support for small business development. Typically, these programs address self-esteem and self-confidence issues of “potential victims.”

If effective, the power of these programs rests in helping students learn what they can do in their personal and professional lives to avoid or reduce threats of dependency and violence in their lives. They are better equipped to protect themselves from disempowering, risky or dangerous circumstances. As such, empowerment programs reduce the likelihood of domestic violence or the risk of trafficking.

“Providing survivors [of violence against women] with health care, psychological counseling, legal advice and human rights education, along with temporary shelter are necessary but not sufficient conditions to protect them from violence. They also need to become economically self-reliant if they are to break free of abusive relationships.”

UNFPA 2006:vi

Several projects within the region include economic-based and empowerment-based approaches. One example is Winrock International’s program entitled: “New Perspectives for Women,” funded by USAID in Moldova (see [www.winrock.org/md](http://www.winrock.org/md)) as part of the Moldova Anti-trafficking Initiative. This program includes an ambitious country-wide agenda to create opportunities for women aged 16-25 through integrated economic empowerment and crisis prevention programs, consulting services and a referral network of support services. This is a prevention program open to young women in Moldova based upon the theory, in part, that they are among the “potential victims” of human trafficking and abusive relationships.

Components of the economic empowerment program include:

- Individual consultations for women on issues related to employment and entrepreneurship such as resume writing, job search strategies, interviewing and drafting business plans;
- One- and two-day Leadership for Employment and Leadership for Entrepreneurship training seminars;
- Skills courses such as computer literacy, accounting and tailoring; and
- Mentoring and internship programs.

Through May 2006, reported examples of the program’s outputs connected to economic self-sufficiency include the following ([www.winrock.org/md](http://www.winrock.org/md)).

- More than 3,300 women received training in employability and entrepreneurship.
- More than 2,900 women received psychological, legal and business consultations.

Economic training and empowerment techniques, combined with awareness and educational activities, also are utilized by the USAID-funded “Path to Success” in Russia which seeks to emphasize prevention of domestic violence and trafficking in persons ([www.success.winrock.ru](http://www.success.winrock.ru)).

Currently, some NGOs and governments in the E&E region provide assistance with employment placement. This service requires greater attention as a central component of trafficking and potentially DV prevention. Professional skills training, such as lessons in CV writing or entrepreneurship, are a means to an end. Training must translate fairly quickly into a job with income capable of providing economic security for the individual and her or his family; otherwise, the prevention value of the program evaporates. Without quickly-realized local employment, migration and the associated risks of trafficking may emerge again as a viable, economically-attractive option as a necessary risk.

Throughout the E&E region, there is need to develop and implement results indicators for prevention programs based upon economic development approaches. It is particularly important to monitor results over time as, upon returning home, victims of trafficking and abuse may find it difficult to concentrate, lack motivation, or feel easily discouraged. This makes it harder to find and hold a job. In the longer term, it is critical to look beyond statistics of initial placement and verify whether employment has been maintained for at least twelve months if not longer. Many beneficiaries require multiple placements and ongoing counseling in order to stabilize their employment prospects. Monitoring results would demonstrate sustained prevention success over time: six months, one year, and two years.

It is also important that such programs take into account the specific local labor market needs. Efforts to secure employment opportunities should be strategically focused more widely and intensely in source communities around the region. This will enhance the possibility of long-term employment without requiring relocation.

### **E. Family Mediation and Assistance**

Family mediation and assistance can play an important role in strategies for preventing trafficking in persons and domestic violence. Providing support for positive family interventions can reduce family conflict and violence to prevent reaching a crisis point.

Family mediation and assistance also is a critical component of reintegration of victims of trafficking. Social workers at shelters and reintegration centers generally provide family mediation assistance. Prior to reintegration, shelter social workers contact the family to facilitate the return. A family assessment is undertaken and reintegration pursued when it is deemed safe and advisable. Components of an assessment include: the victim's wish to return to the family; the willingness of family members to accept the victim; the level of family violence; the likelihood of retaliation from the family or a nearby trafficker/exploiter; the ability and willingness of the family to provide for basic needs; and the likelihood of re-trafficking.

### **F. Educational Assistance**

Education is an important component in comprehensive long-term responses to trafficking in persons and domestic violence. It advances prevention objectives; it also contributes to reintegration and re-trafficking prevention. Educational assistance can take the form of reinsertion into the mainstream education system, specific educational programs by NGOs or non-formal education systems. It also may involve "catch up education" that allows older children to achieve an educational level appropriate for their age prior to their reinsertion into the school system.

In addition to traditional educational assistance, training in life and social skills is valuable. They are generally undeveloped or under-developed in victims as a result of their trafficking experience. Such skills may include basic money management, health and nutrition, hygiene, home making, sexual education, problem solving, and "how to keep safe" strategies.

Educational assistance for parents of trafficked children may also be needed as many lack basic literacy or other competencies.

Problems providing educational opportunities for victims of trafficking (adults and children) exist, as well, for victims of family violence and abuse. Beneficiaries in short-term shelters do not receive extensive educational support. Programs have not been designed to reconcile the longer-term needs of victims within the relatively short time they are residents. In contrast, social workers in the longer-term reintegration shelters generally provide literacy classes and develop educational plans for beneficiaries, such as reinsertion in mainstream schools.

For minors, reinsertion into mainstream schools is complicated in a number of countries. Schools are often reluctant to readmit children who have been absent from school and are viewed as educationally behind their age group. In addition, school regulations on reinsertion are often not child-friendly. For example, in Romania, children can only register for school at the start of the school year, which, when missed, causes a child to fall further behind his/her classmates. In Albania, the Ministry of Education requires students to attend school in their home districts only. Comprehensive reinsertion agreements are needed in addition to alternative educational programs.

## **G. Legal Assistance**

Legal assistance generally is provided through centralized shelter programs, although there are some NGOs providing legal assistance to victims of trafficking. These vary by country: in Albania: the Center for Advocacy and the Legal Clinic for Minors; in BiH: Vasa Prava; in Macedonia: Temis and the Macedonian Bar Association. Legal assistance can include informing victims about their rights, legal status and the legal process; assisting victims (foreign and national) in the processing of personal documents and identity papers; and accessing government services. To a lesser extent, it may include providing individual legal representation in criminal and civil cases. Rosenberg (2005) identifies some of the providers of legal assistance in domestic violence cases in the E&E region. While the legal issues involved in representing and advising victims of trafficking and domestic violence are different in many respects (one example is VoTs stranded in counties of destination will need assistance with issues involving immigration and travel documents), providing legal assistance to mixed populations of domestic violence victims and trafficking victims is possible.

## **H. Reintegration**

Reintegration issues for domestic violence and trafficked victims can intersect. Most integration models for victims of trafficking assume they will return to their family in their home community. Even where this is not part of a conscious strategy of reintegration, it is often a practical necessity, as many individuals have few options for housing and other support. But a noteworthy number of victims cannot, or choose not to, return to their families. For some, this is because families will not accept them back. Others come from abusive and dysfunctional family environments that contributed to their original desire to migrate. Where victims cannot return to their families, service providers may urge victims to relocate with other relatives or friends, at least for a short period. Service providers report difficulty when initially contacting the family to

assess reintegration options. Many families are reluctant to have the victim return due either to the shame they themselves feel or to the stigma that the victim will suffer at the hands of the community (Surtees 2005). It cannot be assumed that return to the family is return to a safety net: “If women [who have been trafficked] return to their husbands, for example, they appear to be at an increased risk for domestic violence or divorce” (Minnesota Advocates for Human Rights 2000b:28).

Many elements that comprise long-term reintegration support for VoTs within a community coincide with services that could be needed by victims of domestic violence. Initially, these include a standard minimum package of basic assistance services such as preliminary shelter or housing options, emergency medical care, psychological assistance and legal support. Longer term assistance includes some combination of educational or vocational training, medical assistance, job counseling and placement, business loans and counseling, psycho-social support, family and community mediation (including addressing stigmatization), community support groups or mentoring, case monitoring, housing assistance, legal assistance and reintegration grants/financial assistance.

However, there are continuing deficiencies in long-term assistance options in countries of origin for reintegrating returning victims of trafficking. In communities where the infrastructure to serve reintegrated VoTs doesn’t exist or has gaps, this would have negative implications for the care of domestic violence victims and internally trafficking victims who also may need longer term care.

In countries that are viewed primarily as destination countries, there are currently few programs dedicated specifically to the reintegration of national victims of trafficking. While some organizations operate safe houses to provide short-term assistance to national victims as needed, these programs are not tailored to reintegration of non-nationals except on a case-by-case basis. Furthermore, local NGOs possess little funding for reintegration services, which affects their ability to formulate and implement appropriate reintegration programs. Progress in this area would require training and sensitizing a geographically disparate network of social assistance actors to support the reintegration of victims throughout a country. Again, it would be important to review carefully and specifically ways in which VoT support infrastructures in countries viewed as destination countries may be limited in adequately serving victims of domestic violence.

Thus, while a fully-realized reintegration infrastructure would hold promise for being able to provide long-term services for both returning victims of trafficking and victims of domestic violence, a fully-realized reintegration infrastructure in place in countries of the E&E region requires much more research, planning and funding.

## **I. Specialized Assistance for Minors**

When considering blending services for domestic violence and trafficking in persons, it is important to keep in mind that minors, whether they are victims of domestic violence or trafficking in persons (or accompanying a family member who is a victim of domestic violence or trafficking in persons), require assistance by professionals with special skills. All interactions

by shelter staff must be guided by child-friendly techniques. Social care actors must be able to interview and provide services which are tailored to the (age-specific) needs of minors. For example, it is important that a trained child psychologist be engaged rather than a generalist. Children of domestic violence and trafficked minors for all forms of exploitation have their own different assistance needs than those of adults. Education programs for children differ from continuing education programs for adults. Legal needs may require the appointment of a legal guardian, if the parents or other family members have been complicit in either the trafficking or domestic violence. Some child victims of trafficking may not know who their parents are or where they live.

Adult victims of trafficking and domestic violence may seek shelter for their (male and/or female) children as well as themselves. This combination of adult and child family members (male and female) presents additional challenges as most shelters are designed only for adult female residents. Some shelters accommodate this issue by having areas of the shelter for families separate from those for individuals. The presence of children can be a complicating factor in shelters. Some reports have recommended that minors receive separate accommodation (Bjerkan & Dyrliid 2005:160). But this is not always a satisfactory resolution for the recovery objectives of a child.

Many trafficked minors are unaccompanied by a parent. Most domestic and sexual violence shelters (in the United States at least) reportedly have policies against sheltering unaccompanied minors without the permission of a parent (Zollo 2004:7). It may be useful to map such eligibility policies among shelters and service providers in the E&E region.

Beyond immediate assistance, there is a need for long-term support and reintegration of minor victims of trafficking. This includes, but is not limited to, family mediation and counseling (especially where there was conflict within the family), education and training programs, long term medical care and psychological support.

As a form of longer-term assistance for minors who cannot return to a family because of family abuse or relatives complicit in their trafficking, some foster care programs are being developed as an alternative to family reintegration. This is particularly needed when reintegration is not in the best interest of the child. To date, there are only a handful of foster care families in the region, as it is not a widely used strategy. Given the lack of foster care legislation and implementation mechanisms in many countries, the process of identifying potential foster families, assessing them and reaching agreements for foster care is long and difficult.

Case monitoring and follow-up is lacking in many countries in the region and poses particular problems in the case of minors. There needs to be continuity of care in the long term for minors, which is not always necessary for adults (Surtees 2005b).

## **J. Awareness-raising/Education**

Awareness-raising is a critical component of a comprehensive prevention response for both trafficking in persons and domestic violence.

Campaigns are needed to change cultural attitudes that tolerate domestic violence and to raise awareness of available services (Rosenberg 2006:39). Awareness and education in domestic violence focus on increased understanding of the existence of the problem, shifting attitudes about violence within the family setting, encouraging the reporting of family violence, and distributing information about rights, resources and services when help is needed. Increasing awareness about domestic violence is needed among individuals and society at large “to help end secrecy and begin a social dialogue is especially needed in Central Asia, the Caucasus, Macedonia and Albania” (Rosenberg 2006:39).

The USG has invested significantly in awareness-raising efforts as a primary prevention strategy (see [www.state.gov/g/tip](http://www.state.gov/g/tip) for a chart listing USG-funded projects; see also Attorney General’s *Annual Report to Congress on U.S. Government Activities to Combat Trafficking in Persons, Fiscal Year 2005* (U.S. Department of Justice 2006)). Typically, these involve information campaigns aimed at “at-risk” groups utilizing posters, brochures, commercials on television and/or radio, and street theater performances. Generally, awareness content about trafficking in persons covers topics such as: 1) ways to recognize trafficking; 2) warnings about its dangers; 3) how to report it; 4) where to seek help; and 5) how to assist victims. Distribution occurs at many locations including borders, labor bureaus, and U.S. Embassies and Consulates. There also is an increasing effort to distribute information through formal school curricula. Many conferences and trainings are organized to expand awareness as well (see U.S. State Department 2006:78 (Bulgaria); 158-159 (Kyrgyz Republic); and 153 (Kazakhstan)).

Awareness-raising and education about domestic violence is one approach also used to combat trafficking in persons. For example, anti-domestic violence language can be included in the awareness component of countries’ National Plans of Action to Combat Human Trafficking. Several programs in the region have conducted awareness programs to fight domestic violence or violence against women as part of their anti-trafficking efforts. (Details of these programs were not available during the course of conducting this desk research.)

The OSCE Mission in Moldova, for example, initiated a program to address domestic violence as a strategy to prevent trafficking. In 2005, the Mission joined the Global Campaign to Combat Domestic Violence by funding training sessions, roundtables, and conferences focused on the development of an effective legal framework to prevent and combat domestic violence as part of its anti-trafficking strategy (OSCE 2005).

The New Perspectives for Women program in Moldova, sponsored by USAID as part of its overall program supporting women, produced a television and radio show entitled “Destinies & Destinations.” It encourages better understanding of victims and women at-risk, informs the public of traffickers’ recruitment tactics, and explains ways for women to increase their safety if they nevertheless remain determined to go abroad. The television show is produced monthly and the radio show is done biweekly throughout the country. This is an example of a program addressing anti-trafficking prevention issues for women generally while peripherally mentioning domestic violence ([www.winrock.org/md](http://www.winrock.org/md)).

Accomplishing critical changes in cultural attitudes and societal understanding through awareness and education is a long-term process, but it is critical for success against domestic

violence. With success over time, an informed public could contribute to lessening family violence and raising awareness of assistance options to risky migration. The rationale for supporting a commitment to greater awareness to help accomplish this change is its own justification for policymakers. Consistent with the vision of the *USAID Europe and Eurasia Bureau Social Transition Strategy*, greater awareness will enhance the ability of all persons within E&E countries to attain a better quality of life.

In considering whether awareness-raising and education about domestic violence comprise a central strategy to combat human trafficking, the range of awareness approaches (as well as other responses) and their relative success in the reduction of trafficking in persons must be assessed. Although studies show that awareness can be quite high in the aftermath of anti-trafficking awareness campaigns, there is as yet little evidence that awareness translates into prevention even among individuals in directly targeted groups. Studies have demonstrated that many VoTs were aware of trafficking because of awareness campaigns, but decided to migrate nevertheless and were trafficked. They believed that trafficking could not happen to them or they decided to take the risk (out of financial desperation or other reasons). In the development of awareness and issue education strategies utilizing focused anti-trafficking messages, the challenge is how to make them more effective in meaningful prevention. Demonstrating a connection between education against domestic violence and prevention of human trafficking may prove to be even more challenging.

It is also worth noting that if a sufficient connection is demonstrated to warrant investment in DV awareness campaigns for the purpose of preventing trafficking in persons, this shouldn't lessen the importance and need to conduct direct TIP educational campaigns. At this point, it would be a questionable anti-trafficking strategy to supplant directly targeted anti-trafficking messages with DV educational messages for the prevention of trafficking.

In conclusion, there is a wide range of service categories needed by both domestic violence victims and victims of trafficking. However, this section has identified issues indicating that within these categories there are differences, some large and some nuanced, that would require tailoring and adapting current services provided to one population to respond adequately to the other population. There also are obstacles to overcome such as addressing potential stigma within mixed populations and reconciling restrictive rules for shelter residents with different recovery needs. In addition, this section identified gaps, especially concerning long-term recovery support and geographic coverage of services that hamper service provision to current beneficiaries. These gaps must be addressed in order for future beneficiaries of either population to obtain assistance matching their recovery needs.

Over time, education and awareness directed at women's role in society and violence against women generally could help anti-trafficking efforts. There are many reasons why such education and awareness should be increased in the E&E region. But it is not clear at this time if this approach would be more effective than more direct anti-trafficking messages and information.

Job placement programs, coupled with other methods to increase economic self-sufficiency such as vocational training and business skills development, seem to hold promise for at-risk and recovering populations, including for individuals from conflictual or violent families as well as

potential and returning victims of trafficking. Further efforts to learn detailed lessons from such programs, implemented in several countries in the region by organizations such as Winrock International and IREX, are warranted.

## **V. EXAMPLES OF PROGRAMS THAT SERVE DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AND TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS POPULATIONS**

A limited number of service providers in the E&E region provide assistance to mixed populations of domestic violence and trafficking victims. This section does not provide a comprehensive list. There may be additional groups in the region providing services to both populations not identified during this desk research, which could be identified through interviews conducted in the E&E countries.

The written material on these programs does not provide enough specific information on the methods, strengths and weaknesses, challenges and opportunities of serving both populations. Documents by these organizations describing their services do not go into this issue in detail other than to indicate that they serve both VoTs and victims of DV. The information is not sufficient to glean lessons learned that can help inform policy decisions. The programs are identified here for the purposes of facilitating the possibility of follow-up inquiry.

The New Perspectives for Women program, described above, targets women between the ages of 16 and 24 generally but not mixed populations of domestic violence and trafficking victims. One of the intriguing aspects of this program is that by providing a center of support and working with potential victims on skills, self-esteem, and self-reliance, it potentially addresses the various forms of vulnerability created by domestic violence for trafficking as identified in the Background section of this report.

There are a few shelters that are not dedicated to trafficking victims but do address issues of domestic violence, sexual assault and/or child protection generally. Several examples of programs directed at mixed populations include: Hope and Homes in Kosovo, Foundation for Local Democracy in BiH, Step Karlovac in Croatia, and Women's Safe House in Montenegro. Young Generation in Romania also appears to assist a broader group of beneficiaries than just trafficking victims.

In Albania, Tjeter Vision utilizes an atypical program blending domestic violence and trafficking populations in both residential and non-residential settings. The shelter offers accommodation, medical care, counseling and emotional support, vocational training, job orientation activities, social reintegration, and legal support. Its "Daily Center" offers professional training courses and educational, recreation and awareness activities. Services are community-based in an area of Albania that is a source of trafficking outside the capital. Tjeter Vision is, thus, an example of an effort at decentralization and localization of services to make them more effective and efficient. The organization is also attempting to address sustainability issues through testing of a social entrepreneurship endeavor (e.g., Internet café) and cooperation with and funding from the municipal government.

In Bulgaria, there are two programs that assist victims of both violence and trafficking. One is the Animus Association located in Sofia, which is a mixed model – assisting both victims of violence and trafficking victims. However, it is not clear how many of the individuals assisted by Animus are victims of trafficking versus victims of violence. The model of assistance used

by Animus is characterized as crisis intervention (i.e., maximum of seven days' accommodation) in contrast to longer-term reintegration services. Psychological assistance seems to be a strong feature.

The second program in Bulgaria is the Nadja Center. According to its website, the Nadja Center Foundation was established to help women who have experienced physical, sexual and psychological violence.

In Kosovo, Hope and Homes is for all vulnerable/abused children, not just children who are victims of trafficking. The Women's Wellness Center and Center for Women and Children mostly focus on domestic violence cases, but have also have accepted victims of trafficking cases when needed. The Center for the Prevention of Trafficking in Women generally cares for victims of violence.

In Serbia, the organization Counseling Center Against Family Violence does not mix populations, but it does have one shelter for trafficking victims and another for domestic violence cases.

There also are helplines which are not specific to trafficking in persons but target domestic violence and other forms of violence generally. Two examples are the Foundation for Local Democracy in BiH and Organization of Women of Skopje in Macedonia.

Organizations do not generally address in their literature the details of their service provision in ways that permit gleanng lessons learned about assisting mixed populations. Obtaining the necessary detail of organizations with experience serving more than one population to help guide USAID policy and program planning will require targeted inquiries directly with the organizations.

## **VI. LOOKING FORWARD: GAPS, ISSUES, AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF WHAT IS NEEDED**

The problems of both domestic violence and trafficking in persons are serious in the E&E region. Anecdotal information about the links between the two warrants an effort to learn more and to strengthen integrated policy level responses for both simultaneously. It appears from the available information that the crisis of violence and conflict in the family in some cases may, in combination with other factors, set in motion a chain of events that leads to human trafficking. However, this remains only a hypothesis worthy of further detailed inquiry and elaboration and should not be taken as a foregone conclusion.

This report has identified and discussed a number of gaps and issues pertaining to the data and analysis available in the literature on possible links between domestic violence and trafficking. It also has highlighted the complexity of attempting to untangle domestic violence as a possible factor contributing to human trafficking vis-à-vis other possible factors in particular cases of human trafficking. It has identified service and response categories for which both victims of DV and victims of trafficking in persons share a common need. At the same time, within these broad service and response categories, there are many questions as to how they may be organized and provided in ways that appropriately serve specific needs that frequently are not exactly aligned across the two populations.

Due to the current state of data and analysis that leaves these and other questions unanswered, it is recommended that additional work be undertaken to: 1) strengthen the available data to support future research and understanding to inform policies and programs; and 2) uncover lessons learned and best practices through in-depth interviews with those having experience with providing services to mixed populations of victims of trafficking and victims of domestic violence. Several options for the scope of the recommended research are presented below.

### **A. Expanding Service Availability for both VoTs and Victims of Domestic Violence**

To date, victims of trafficking have been served almost exclusively within a dedicated specialized framework. While much progress has been made in assisting VoTs, serious gaps in service provision continue to exist for trafficking victims, especially concerning long-term support and in providing services to victims in rural areas. In recent years, the availability of services to victims of DV has eroded, largely due to declining funding. It is unlikely that parallel assistance frameworks are viable in the long term, particularly given difficulties in funding for adequate domestic violence care and concerns about potential decreases in international donor funding for anti-trafficking efforts. Given continuing critical shortcomings in care for VoTs and victims of DV, it is recommended that further examination be made focusing in detail on the opportunities for improving victim services to both populations through expanded availability of services to mixed populations. The possibility of merging shelter and assistance, as well as

prevention strategies, for mixed populations in the E&E region requires a greater understanding of the experiences of service providers currently working with mixed populations.

### **1. Field Research is Needed to Fill Information Gaps Concerning Serving VoTs and Victims of Domestic Violence More Effectively**

This report found that a review of written sources is not sufficient to resolve the issue of when and how it may be appropriate to combine prevention strategies or provide assistance to DV and TIP victims together as a mixed population. In part, this is a result of a significant gap in published material describing, assessing and analyzing the details of service currently being provided to mixed populations of victims of trafficking and victims of domestic violence in the E&E region. A fuller picture is needed of which prevention techniques and approaches to providing shelter and/or services to a mixed population are working and which are not – and the reasons why – in order to identify and assess best practices and lessons learned that may be replicated elsewhere. To that end, it would be valuable to conduct detailed research in the field to consider these issues and whether it may be possible to expand accessible assistance support for both populations in appropriate ways.

This research should be conducted in two or three E&E countries selected because they have relatively well-developed assistance frameworks and include organizations providing services to mixed populations. Examples of such countries include Moldova, Bulgaria and Albania. Some other countries in the E&E region also fit this criteria and warrant consideration as well. Conducting field research in more than one country is important because countries have different approaches and capacities in addressing DV and TIP and no single country in the E&E region would be able to provide sufficient information to begin to answer questions raised by this research. In addition, a multi-country study will provide the opportunity to compare country experiences and add depth and perspective to the research findings and recommendations. Annex B provides additional information concerning selection of field research sites. It is recommended that additional consultations occur with USAID to select countries (potentially including countries other than the three identified above) and what level of field research fits into budget constraints. Depending upon the scope of the work prescribed, a period of at least two weeks of in-country research utilizing two experts for each country is proposed (a local expert may be required as well).

Examples of the issues to be reviewed in a second stage of research include:

- Which organizations are serving mixed populations of victims of DV and VoTs;
- Which populations are assisted: women, men, unaccompanied and accompanied children, and families;
- What are the similarities and differentiating features of victims of domestic violence and victims of trafficking;
- How specifically do these similarities and differentiating features impact the provision of services;
- Are victims of all forms of trafficking served;
- Did the organization begin originally as a dedicated facility (DV, TIP or other);

- What adaptations to dedicated facilities or procedures are required to serve mixed populations;
- What are the strengths and weaknesses of serving populations together;
- What challenges or problems are presented by serving these populations together;
- In detail, how are these challenges and problems solved;
- Has there been evidence of prejudice or stigma among shelter residents? Based on what? What was done?
- What best practices exist that can be replicated;
- What lessons learned exist that can be replicated;
- What additional specialized training is required for staff;
- What mechanisms of cooperation with government and non-governmental entities are utilized;
- What indicators of progress/success are utilized;
- What follow-up exists with clients (and for how long);
- What outreach to victims of family violence exists; and
- What additional opportunities exist, if found to be appropriate, for serving mixed populations (including eligibility for social programs available to other “categories” of vulnerable groups -- e.g., street children -- or the general population)?

This obviously is not a comprehensive list of questions for research in the field. If further research is undertaken, additional lines of inquiry would be elaborated during development of the research plan. By setting out the type of general information needed, this initial framework also may aid in the consideration of possible locations and sources for expanding this research.

For service providers and projects that serve mixed populations and/or “potential victims” from a community’s general population (economic empowerment and training programs for instance) attention should be focused on the specific relationship between the program elements targeting trafficking and the program elements targeting domestic violence. This attention should analyze how programs address the DV and TIP components. For example, is the relationship between DV and TIP training or awareness/prevention strategies: 1) integrated as one seamless approach; 2) addressed separately but in ways that are largely reinforcing and synergistic; or 3) co-existing under one umbrella program addressing both domestic violence and trafficking in persons, but with each addressed as a stand-alone issue. Related to this, it could be illuminating to calibrate whether programs serving mixed or general populations of “potential victims” emphasize an anti-DV or anti-TIP strategy/response, or implement a balanced or integrated approach, and why. In addition to the lines of inquiry identified above, this will help provide a more precise understanding of the nature of current efforts to address DV and TIP issues together.

The key objective in pursuing these lines of inquiry is to add important depth and detail to the data currently available. For this reason, the methodology should involve semi-structured interviews that will permit follow-up examination with targeted stakeholders who can shed light on the practical questions of service provision to mixed populations. As well, obtaining the views of service providers who serve single populations in dedicated facilities due to concerns about mixing populations would provide critical additional insights.

The potential beneficiaries of this research are victims of trafficking in persons and victims of domestic violence whose assistance needs are not satisfied by current assistance programs. Other potential beneficiaries are small NGO service providers and the communities they serve, especially in rural areas, that wish to provide services to these vulnerable populations but cannot support a dedicated TIP shelter with in-house assistance and/or exclusive DV shelter with its own professional services. For many of these organizations, funding their services is increasingly a challenge. A number of domestic violence centers in the region no longer provide services due to lack of funding. Organizations that still run dedicated shelters risk financial shortfalls, which can threaten their continued assistance operations. Some funding streams are dependent on the number of victims served and, recently, the numbers of VoTs serviced by some shelters have declined. Continued research may reveal new avenues of sustainability for the provision of needed services by small organizations through the appropriate combining of service provision to mixed populations.

There is a sizeable literature describing and assessing many of the E&E countries' responses to trafficking in persons (including reports funded by USAID). As a result, to add value to this body of literature, research following upon this desk research must focus on providing a detailed analysis targeting the practical issues raised in considering whether any points of intersection between human trafficking and domestic violence provide opportunities for more effective prevention and assistance interventions. Most importantly, it should examine and analyze the experience and lessons available in the selected countries as to how prevention activities and assistance provision may (or may not) be appropriate to populations which, in complex ways, share some root causes and some assistance needs. This will require more than cataloguing and assessing what has been done and will require analysis to conceive of what could be done.

## ***2. Supplemental Research to Address Additional Gaps in Understanding***

The foregoing recommends going beyond the desk research reflected by this report to include a field research component. In addition, USAID may wish to consider one or more of the following additional avenues of research, if sufficient resources are available, that could supplement the scope and value of data obtained by the core field research in important ways.

### ***a. Mapping Service Capacity to Identify Gaps and Opportunities for Potential New Sources of Assistance***

As a supplemental element of the core field research, it is recommended that a broader review of the service capacities of selected countries (or targeted areas within countries) be considered. This report has identified some of the limitations of tying services such as medical care to shelter residency. Residency-based assistance alone is not sufficiently flexible to meet the range of care requirements of victims of trafficking and domestic violence. This report has highlighted the issue of how acute gaps in services exist, especially for victims in rural areas and those who require longer-term support for recovery. Undertaking mapping of assistance availability through field work would be particularly important to specifically identify coverage (or absence of coverage) of services for individuals in these circumstances.

A comprehensive mapping would include identification of assistance available through governmental or non-governmental programs providing relevant services to the general population or other vulnerable groups, such as street children. Mapping thus would consider the potential availability, adequacy and appropriateness of services for TIP and DV victims in a country's broader safety net of care, training and educational programs, legal services and other programs provided by government and civil society. In the end, the field research would show by geographic location where assistance and protection services need to be created, expanded, or possibly combined to serve those who have suffered domestic violence and trafficking in persons. This examination would be valuable to assess what is (and is not) practical and sustainable in different communities, especially rural communities, in the selected countries to provide a more effective continuum of care.

An important part of this mapping exercise would review how national referral mechanisms (NRMs) that are being created in some of the countries of the region are or could be utilized to expand medical and social services to domestic violence victims in addition to VoTs. These NRM programs are in the earliest stage of development so much more needs to be learned about their operations. Since NRMs generally involve the training and engagement of state social workers and medical providers, it would be useful to examine in detail if this is a realistic avenue to utilize government-provided services in support of VoTs and DV victims, especially in rural areas.

This mapping would necessarily explore opportunities for strategic coordination between different types of NGOs that potentially could aid both victims of DV and VoTs. Overall in the region, there has been a lack of strategic coordination on the part of many anti-trafficking organizations and networks with existing structures not specific to trafficking. Determining expanded possibilities to serve DV and TIP victim populations would benefit by tapping the expertise and perspectives of officials from government entities, child protection agencies, domestic violence service providers, women's NGOs, human rights organizations, faith-based organizations and other civil society actors who participate in a country's and community's service framework. There may be opportunities through this research to identify and share common objectives, problems and solutions. Are churches, for example, providing temporary shelter to those in need? Do they include victims of trafficking and/or domestic violence in communities where such services are not available? Do labor organizations or the government provide vocational training that is open to the general population? Could they support skills training for VoTs and victims of domestic violence? The research could assess whether expanded strategic partnerships could share, for example, professionals and helplines and provide a cost-effective, long-term sustainability strategy. The program in Albania that networks with local NGOs across the country is promising and invites a close look at its applicability in different contexts. Additional examination would be valuable to assess what is practical and sustainable in different E&E communities, especially rural, to provide an effective continuum of care for VoTs and victims of DV.

This mapping exercise is presented as a supplemental element to the main field research project because it would be very ambitious in its own right. Nevertheless, it has significant potential value in terms of understanding in detail what is needed to improve the quality and long-term

sustainability of care for the recovery of VoTs and DV victims, and as importantly, where that care needs to be located in the countries that are mapped.

### ***b. Learning Lessons from Victims***

It is always important to hear from program beneficiaries about the types of services, programs and care models that best meet their needs and interests, as well as their experiences with both mixed and single issue services. They are in the best position to provide insights into what does or does not work and, from their critical perspective, why. Research involving VoTs and DV victims would go a long way in addressing some of the deficiencies in the current data available. But it also would add significantly to the scope and expense of the research to attempt to contact and interview survivors, especially those who are no longer being assisted by NGOs. Since this type of research is more complex, including the imperative that professionals involved conform to additional critical ethical principles required to conduct proper research involving victims, it should only be considered and implemented as a fully-resourced supplemental line of research to be sensitively and ethically conducted by professionals with relevant experience.

### ***c. Surveying Service Providers in E&E Countries***

Another option for research would be a survey that could be distributed to targeted service providers and others in countries beyond the several E&E countries selected for in-country research. Or, if field research is not undertaken, such a survey could be an intermediate step between desk research and field research to update and advance understanding of the issues presented to some extent.

It is important to be mindful that small NGOs do not have staff to fill out detailed research surveys. The capacity to cooperate, even if the service provider is willing, is not assured and responses may, by necessity of time, be cursory. This can compromise the usefulness of relying solely upon a survey methodology to obtain the detailed information needed to reach valid findings and recommendations.

## **B. Strengthen Data Collection Addressing the Intersection of Domestic Violence and Trafficking in Persons**

There is a fundamental dearth in data on the history of domestic violence experienced by victims of trafficking (or even basic documentation and details of cases). The weaknesses in data collection should be addressed to permit the analysis necessary for a better understanding of the nature and prevalence of any link and to aid in the design of targeted prevention and assistance activities. To strengthen data collection, it is therefore recommended that USAID review opportunities within and through its projects, as well as utilizing USG inter-agency processes, to begin to address core data-gathering deficiencies in two central ways: by collecting more detailed and disaggregated data about family violence, and (2) engage USG agencies and international organizations that are collecting data in the E&E region.

## **1. Collect More Detailed and Disaggregated Data about Family Violence**

The data collected need to be more systematically gathered. Not all service providers currently collect data about family relations and, where this information is collected, it is not based upon a standardized methodology.

The data collected also need to be more precise. The data are not sufficiently disaggregated to reflect potentially meaningful factors/variables. For example, was the violence between spouses or partners, or directed at a child? Was the abuse sexual in nature, or something else? Was there alcohol abuse? The data should permit separating out variations of problems within families. Was it perpetrated within the immediate or extended family? The critical gaps extend to the reasons for and strength of the connection between DV and TIP. For example: what role, if any, did domestic violence play in the individual's being trapped in trafficking? Were there other factors involved? How did these other factors interact? Have other family members been trafficked? Were other family members involved in the trafficking? Where are those family members now? It is clear how this type of detail would be more useful in designing and implementing prevention and assistance strategies, than simply asking, as is the typical inquiry currently, if the question is asked at all: Prior to being trafficked, did you experience violence in your family?

The information sought should begin to uncover whether the VoT identifies a connection between family violence and their trafficking experience – perhaps by its prompting a need to escape, an erosion of self-confidence and self-esteem, or risky behaviors such as absence from school. Can the influence of other contributing factors be identified by the VoT? Much more detail should be acquired about the interface of the individual trafficked and the recruiter/perpetrator, and if domestic violence may be connected to this trafficking aspect. In addition, data are not disaggregated to permit analysis by country of origin. The obvious importance of this basic information for analysis and formulating responsive and targeted prevention strategies is clear.

Three additional lines of inquiry should be incorporated in future activities.

- 1) How does violence outside of the family contribute to trafficking?
- 2) What are causal factors preceding incidences in trafficking that lead from family violence to trafficking in persons?
- 3) What are the empirical data that can “weigh” contributing factors as either “tipping points” or as “push” factors?

## **2. Engage USG Agencies and International Organizations Collecting Data in the E&E region**

USAID should undertake an initiative within the USG on an interagency basis to incorporate data collected on the relationship between family violence and trafficking in persons into existing data collecting efforts. The Departments of Labor and State could be helpful in advancing a deeper understanding, for example, of family violence experienced by child victims

of sex trafficking and child labor. In addition, USAID could help lead efforts to gain acceptance of better, more useful, data collection by international and local organizations involved in country and multi-country data collecting in the E&E region.

As this report has highlighted, potential intersections between TIP and DV cannot be assessed in a vacuum and without significant strengthening of data collected about other factors identified as potential contributors to cases of human trafficking. USAID therefore should consider expanding efforts to gain support by a broad range of international organizations and other institutional collectors of data that could shed light on how the myriad of potential contributing factors interact to lead to cases of human trafficking. In addition to involving TIP and family violence data-collectors, this should include both governmental and non-governmental actors working in other fields connected with potential contributing factors including, but not limited to: crime and violence, health, discrimination, community economics and development. This would be a large undertaking, but it also is essential for beginning to untangle and understand the relative roles of contributing factors to human trafficking. In this way, USAID may obtain over time empirically-grounded findings shedding light in a more sophisticated way than currently possible on the nature, causes and prevalence of violence in the family and how it relates to trafficking in persons.

### **C. Breaking Barriers to Success – Addressing Stigmatization**

Finally, it will be important to break down the barriers to success in working with victims of trafficking and victims of domestic violence. One of these barriers is stigma, as discussed in this report. It is recommended that USAID consider undertaking, as a separate avenue of research in the future, a project focused on detailing the issues involved with stigma as a potential barrier.

The existence of stigma is a key impediment to the widespread operation of shelters with mixed populations and/or joint provision of services. This research was not able to consider adequately what is known about stigmatization in the context of domestic violence and trafficking in persons. Field research would be important to examine the full spectrum of the problem as stigmatizing may be found among the victims' own families, government officials, shelter and assistance staff, law enforcement, and, based upon anecdotal reports of NGOs, domestic violence victims. Any potential solution would require involvement of a range of community members who influence attitudes and opinions - whether they are leaders of government, law enforcement, faith-based organizations, or other non-governmental organizations. Research to help design effective programs that tackle stigma is critical to the long-term success of strategies to combat both domestic violence and trafficking in persons.

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## ANNEX A

### **Background and Methodology underlying R. Surtees' The Second Annual Report on Victims of Trafficking in Southeastern Europe**

The Regional Clearing Point (RCP) was established under the framework of the Stability Pact Task Force in Trafficking in Persons in 2002 in order to produce standardized regional data on trafficking victims and victim assistance and to support the further development of victim assistance throughout Southeastern Europe (SEE). The first annual report was published in 2004. The 550-page second report, entitled *the Second Annual Report on Victims of Trafficking in Southeastern Europe* was published in 2005. The RCP program was supported by USAID, the Swiss Development Cooperation (SDC), the Austrian Technical Cooperation, the International Organization for Migration, and the NEXUS Institute to Combat Human Trafficking.

The RCP, which opened its office in Belgrade in July 2002, was initially managed by IOM and the International Catholic Migration Commission (ICMC), subsequently by IOM and as of June 2005, by the NEXUS Institute to Combat Human Trafficking in Vienna, Austria.

To the maximum extent possible, the second annual report provides the following: verified figures regarding the number of trafficking victims assisted in the region as well as SEE nationals trafficked abroad; profile analysis and trafficking experiences of assisted victims in the SEE region; significant and emerging trafficking patterns throughout the SEE region, including forms of trafficking and different aspects of the trafficking process; and an overview of the referral and assistance framework available to trafficking victims within the SEE region.

The total number of assisted victims trafficked to, through or from SEE in 2003 was 1,329. The total number of assisted victims trafficked to, through or from SEE in 2004 was 1,227.

The RCP research is based on both primary and secondary data from throughout the SEE region as well as some EU countries. The RCP established and conducted the following information collection mechanisms.

#### **Primary Data**

Primary data about victims of trafficking were collected from service providers in the field currently working with and assisting victims, according to a standardized set of questions. Service providers in all countries/entities of the SEE region completed this standard questionnaire for assisted victims, excluding victims who overlapped with other service providers. In addition, the RCP received some information from organizations working in destination countries. Among the indicators collected were:

- Individual Characteristics (sex, age, education, marital and family status, ethnicity, area of origin, disabilities, economic status, nationality);
- Recruitment (sex of recruiter, relationship to recruiter, work promised and reason for leaving home, living and working situation at recruitment);

- Transportation and Movement (use of legal or illegal documents and legal or illegal border crossings, destination, transportation routes);
- Trafficking Experience (form of trafficking, length of time trafficked, working and living conditions, abuse suffered, mental and physical well-being);
- Post-trafficking (identification, means to exit trafficking, re-trafficking and assistance declined).

Interviews and correspondence aimed at clarifying figures and victim profiles were conducted with organizations and service providers, particularly during site visits to each of the project countries.

Figures were cross-referenced with other service providers in order to avoid duplication. For example, if a victim received initial sheltering and medical services upon return to her home country from one organization, but was subsequently referred to a different organization for follow-up services, the victim's case was only represented once within the data. Data collection did not include confidential information, such as the victim's name, address or medical history, to avoid compromising the security and anonymity of victims.

## **Secondary Data**

The RCP also accessed secondary data through in-depth interviews with frontline counter-trafficking personnel, including anti-trafficking police units, outreach workers, shelter managers and professionals providing medical, psychosocial and legal assistance for national and foreign victims. More generally, the RCP met with counter-trafficking organizations and government departments working in the field of anti-trafficking prevention and policy.

Standardized interviews were conducted on issues central to the research including: victim profiles and trafficking experiences, trafficking trends and patterns, victim's needs at identification, victim identification process, assistance programs available and problems and issues in the assistance framework. Data was collected in the course of field research and site visits to each of the ten project countries/entities, as well as through email and telephone communication. Secondary data was then verified, cross-referenced for accuracy, and analyzed.

## **Methodological Strengths and Limitations**

The RCP research has numerous methodological strengths. It provides standardized quantitative data on trafficking victims from the ten countries/entities of SEE. This constitutes the only consolidated data about assisted trafficking victims at a national or regional level. In addition, the RCP presents primary data that frames and considers trafficking from the perspective of the victim. Further, the RCP accesses data through service providers who have an existing relationship with victims, thereby avoiding unnecessary interviewing and stress for victims. Finally, the RCP captures and presents the transnational nature of trafficking by embracing a regional approach.

Nevertheless, the RCP methodology has some limitations that are explored in fuller detail in the RCP report. First, information about victim profiles and experiences was collected only from

assisted trafficking victims who were trafficked to, through or from SEE. And, as is widely recognized, there is a difference between the number of trafficking victims in SEE and the number of assisted victims. Information drawn from a range of primary and secondary sources strongly suggests that the actual number of trafficking victims is significantly higher than the number of assisted victims.

Secondly, in some countries, high numbers of assisted victims is also a measure of a country's efforts to tackle trafficking rather than an indictment of their inaction. As such, findings should be read with this caveat.

Third, while there have been substantial improvements in the identification skills of counter-trafficking actors, there remain varying levels of skill and experience in the identification of trafficking victims. Some victims of trafficking were misidentified as victims of violence generally or not identified at all. In other circumstances, victims of violence were misidentified as trafficking victims.

Fourth, assisted victims represent a particular subgroup of trafficking victims: those who were willing and able to access assistance. This subgroup is likely to differ systematically from other victims of trafficking, an issue which must be borne in mind in both the analysis and presentation of data and profiles. This data can be read only as representative of assisted trafficking victims.

A fifth limitation is that the time period presented reflects the year that the victim was assisted, rather than when s/he was trafficked, as service providers do not systematically record the year that victims were trafficked. This poses a difficulty in the analysis of trends and patterns, as victims assisted in one year may have been trafficked over a long period of time. Ideally, data should be analyzed based on the year in which victims were trafficked.

Finally, RCP efforts to collect information from service providers in key destination countries were largely unsuccessful as many organizations lacked time and resources to assist in the research, or were prevented from doing so by institutional regulations on information sharing between organizations. With more victims staying in destination countries due to residency options, the lack of data from these countries can result in repressed figures. The number of victims may appear to decline, giving rise to a misperception that trafficking has been addressed. The true rate of identified and assisted victims is only revealed when victims are counted at both origin and destination.

## **ANNEX B**

### **Recommendations for Further Research Sites**

This report recommends that additional research be conducted in two or three E&E countries in order to learn more about potential intersections between trafficking in persons and domestic violence. In the text of this report, Moldova, Bulgaria and Albania are identified as examples of three countries that fit general characteristics that would be desirable for selecting locations to maximize the value of follow-on field research. Each has a relatively well-developed assistance framework, including organizations that provide services to mixed populations. Other countries in the region share these characteristics in varying degrees and may also warrant consideration as sites for additional research.

This Annex provides a summary of some of the reasons for considering Moldova, Bulgaria and/or Albania in the group of countries designated for field research. At USAID's request, groups working on human trafficking and/or domestic violence in St. Petersburg, Russian Federation and Romania are identified and these locations appear to warrant consideration as field research sites as well.

#### **1. Moldova**

Moldova presents excellent opportunities to continue this research. In some parts of Moldova, especially Chisinau, services are provided by two shelters for trafficked victims. One shelter, which is managed by the International Organization for Migration (IOM), has two wings, one for adults and one that is a "Minors and Child-Friendly Wing" for minors and mothers with children. One of the issues of merging victims of human trafficking and domestic violence in shelters involves how parents with children might be accommodated; this shelter may provide some insights into this question.

The centralizing of shelters in Chisinau will reveal some of the limitations of shelters' residency-based care in the absence of more extended and flexible networks of support. For example, although victims often need long-term psychological care, the average residency stay is three weeks, at which time mental health support is lost.

At the same time there are some local NGOs supporting victims in local communities during their reintegration process, so it would be possible to review issues involved in care provision in more rural areas.

A very good reason to consider Moldova is to analyze lessons that can be learned from the "New Perspectives for Women" program that provides support, training, and services as a prevention program for "potential victims" and as assistance for victims of trafficking, family abuse and violence. This program has established five Regional Support Centers (RSCs) in Balti, Cahul, Comrat, Hincesti and Soroca. Each RSC offers a crisis intervention program, economic empowerment program, and a legal services program to young women (see [www.atnet.md](http://www.atnet.md)). It would be very valuable to include this program in follow-up research as it aims to achieve both prevention and assistance results for a targeted population that includes, but is larger than,

victims of trafficking and victims of domestic violence. (Field research involving “New Perspectives for Women” could be combined with detailed phone interviews concerning the USAID- supported “Path to Success” program in Russia for additional insights into programs addressing DV and TIP prevention and empowerment for women.)

Finally, Moldova has an extensive program of free legal assistance for victims of trafficking that is provided independent of the shelters and appears to be among the most comprehensive in the region. Some of the legal services provided, such as resolution of family and property matters, address issues of concern to many victims of trafficking and domestic violence. Although the importance of receiving competent and comprehensive legal services is often overlooked in reviews of assistance schemes, it would be valuable to examine more closely how providing such legal assistance may help in the prevention of domestic violence and re-trafficking and the recovery of VoTs and victims of DV. Although this program, operated by the Centre for the Prevention of Trafficking in Women, is a dedicated service for victims of trafficking, some insights into this question may be possible.

Moldova, then, has a number of elements of prevention and assistance work that would make it appropriate as a location to conduct a more detailed review to answer the questions involved in follow-up research.

Some important sources of information (but certainly not the only sources) on trafficking in persons and/or domestic violence in Moldova include:

- USAID Moldova
- Winrock International
- IOM Mission - Chisinau
- Salvati Copii
- La Strada Moldova
- Centre for the Prevention of Trafficking
- Local NGOs such as Gencliar Birlii, Interaction and Compassion
- Government officials from relevant ministries including the Ministry of Labor
- Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) – Moldova Mission
- Centre for Women and Children
- UNICEF
- Selected members of the Moldovan Anti-Trafficking and Gender Network

## **2. Bulgaria**

A number of factors recommend Bulgaria to be selected for future field research. As summarized in the report, in Bulgaria, there are at least two programs that assist victims of violence generally and VoTs specifically: one is the Animus Association located in Sofia; the other program is the Nadja Center which helps women who have experienced physical, sexual and psychological violence. In addition, Bulgaria has a relatively diverse group of service providers ranging from local NGOs, to IOs to the Bulgarian government. While services are concentrated in Sofia, there are some services provided in other areas of Bulgaria. IOM, for example, manages six NGO-operated safe houses outside of Sofia.

Also of interest is the relatively strong provision of mental health care and medical services to VoTs in Bulgaria. Medical care is provided, per agreement with the shelters, by public hospitals and international NGOs that provide health care to individuals from a range of vulnerable groups. In Bulgaria, in contrast to many countries in the E&E region, mental health care for VoTs is often provided by experienced mental health care professionals. So Bulgaria would present opportunities to examine the health issues involved in treating victims of trafficking and family violence.

Bulgaria, as with many countries, also provides at least one example of the type of serious institutional obstacles that can exist in trying to expand the model for providing services (to VoTs at least) from government social assistance programs available to the general population. Trafficked Bulgarians lose their eligibility for medical insurance if they were absent from the country during their trafficking ordeal for six months and non-Bulgarians are not eligible for care by the state medical system.

Finally, Bulgaria also has a formalized state system for addressing needs of trafficked minors. In short, Bulgaria includes features that combine government involvement with civil society provision of assistance, as well as serving socially vulnerable groups beyond solely dedicated facilities and assistance provision to trafficked victims. This combination makes Bulgaria a suitable location for advancing this research.

Among the sources in Bulgaria to contact involving further research are:

- USAID Mission Bulgaria
- Relevant government offices including the State Agency for Child Protection
- Nadja Center
- Animus Association/La Strada
- Caritas Bulgaria
- Medcins sans Frontieres
- IOM Mission – Sofia
- Association for Support and Protection of Children and Families at Risk
- Bulgarian Red Cross
- Open Gate Centre
- Neglected Children Society
- Youth Counsel Centre and Shelter

### **3. Albania**

Albania offers a relatively extensive in-country network of care. Two major programs supported by USAID, for example, have helped build the anti-trafficking response in Albania: The Albanian Initiative: Coordinated Action Against Human Trafficking (CAAHT) and Transnational Action against Child Trafficking (TACT). CAAHT, in particular, aims to increase cooperation among anti-trafficking NGOs, in an effort to increase their capacity to improve prevention and strengthen assistance.

This has led to the availability of some approaches to providing care that are not available widely throughout the region. One example is represented by Different & Equal, which provides long-term shelter along with reintegration services. Part of its support includes the possibility of more flexible housing alternatives such as subsidized “half-way” apartments, as well as continuing vocational training and assistance in locating employment.

CAAHT and TACT, in combination with other programs in Albania, have created a model that reflects more decentralized assistance coverage than found in a number of other E&E countries. As a result, the coverage for prevention efforts and services appear potentially to reach a broader geographic distribution of the population more conveniently and effectively. The TACT program has looked at the issues of minors and their special needs in specific detail and the special issues of working with children where family violence or trafficking (or a family member who is trafficking another member of the family) is one of the areas that follow-up research needs to address.

Finally, as identified in the report, Tjeter Vision combines services to domestic violence and trafficking populations in residential and non-residential settings, offering accommodation, medical care, counseling and emotional support, vocational trainings, job orientation activities, social reintegration, and legal support.

Examples of some important sources of information in Albania for future research include:

- USAID Mission, Albania
- Government offices such as Ministry of Social Affairs
- Coordinated Action Against Human Trafficking (CAAHT)
- Different and Equal
- Fountain House
- Centre for Prevention of Child Maltreatment
- National Reception Centre for Victims of Trafficking
- Terres des Hommes
- Centre for Legal and Civic Initiatives (formerly the Women's Advocacy Centre)
- Women's Counseling Centre
- Domestic Violence Shelter
- Vatra Women Hearth
- Tjeter Vision
- Organization for the Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE)
- IOM Mission, Albania
- Save the Children
- BKTF
- International Social Services (ISS)
- OSCE Albania
- UNICEF
- Counseling Center for Abused Women and Girls (Pogradec)

#### **4. Other Potential Research Locations**

Ukraine offers its own potential advantages to being included in further research. A number of groups have extensive anti-trafficking experience in Ukraine. Some NGOs in Ukraine have been active in anti-trafficking work for a decade or more. Churches also have been involved. In addition, IOM has actively collected data, in some cases in more detail on issues like re-trafficking and case follow-up with victims (e.g. regarding its 2005 caseload, IOM indicates an "84% success rate of victims receiving reintegration assistance employed or entered educational system with only 2% returned abroad" ([www.IOM.org.ua](http://www.IOM.org.ua))), than is available in many countries. Examining this more detailed data could be useful in continuing this research.

Romania also has an assistance and response framework in place with many experienced organizations that could provide valuable insights. These include Reaching Out, Young Generation, IOM Bucharest, Artemis, Save the Children, Association for Developing Alternative

Practice of Reintegration and Education (ADPARE), the Resource Centre for Combating Trafficking in Persons associated with the Ministry of Interior and quite a few others. There are many reports, including the RCP Report, that describe the work of these organizations and others working in Romania and more information can be provided in further consultation with USAID. Romania also has crisis centers and related projects to support domestic violence victims, which are described in United Nations Population Fund (2006), pp. 11-20.

USAID has requested some information on the possible suitability of including St. Petersburg, Russian Federation in the field research. The scope of this desk review did not allow anything more than a cursory identification of potential sources. It can be concluded, however, that St. Petersburg would likely provide a sound selection as a field site for further research. This is based upon the observation that St. Petersburg appears to be home to a number of organizations addressing either domestic violence and/or trafficking in persons, some which have been active for a number of years. In addition, it can be considered a desirable factor to include, for comparative purposes, a review of responses in part of the Russian Federation as one of the E&E countries included in the field research.

Organizations which address violence against women and/or trafficking in persons include:

- Stelit ([www.ngostellit.ru](http://www.ngostellit.ru))
- Women in Danger Shelter
- Women's Alliance
- St. Petersburg Crisis Center
- Road of Light (re: assistance to trafficking victims)

These organizations, in combination with the work of others in St. Petersburg, represent a range of experience implemented over an extended period that could provide the basis of valuable input to USAID in regards to working with victims of domestic violence, trafficking in persons and mixed populations. It was not possible within the scope and constraints of this desk research to examine further the work of these organizations in-depth or to identify, for example, churches and faith-based groups or specific government offices that actively address the needs of victims of trafficking and victims of family violence.

It is apparent that there are more countries that are potentially appropriate candidates for follow-up research than will be possible to include. The NEXUS Institute has more information about these organizations and other country responses in its library. However, additional consultation regarding USAID's specific parameters of research and budgetary constraints would be necessary to make more conclusive recommendations pertaining to selecting among these countries.