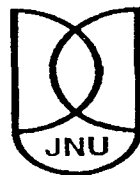


**TRAFFICKING IN WOMEN AND CHILDREN IN
THE RUSSIAN FEDERATION, 1991-2001**

*Dissertation Submitted to Jawaharlal Nehru University
in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the award of the degree of*

MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

A. GEETIKA



Centre for Russian and Central Asian Studies

School Of International Studies

Jawaharlal Nehru University

New Delhi – 110 067

2010



JAWAHARLAL NEHRU UNIVERSITY

School of International Studies
New Delhi - 110067

Tel. : 2670 4365
Fax : (+91)-11-2674 1586

Centre for Russian and Central Asian Studies

Date: 29/7/2010

DECLARATION

I declare that the dissertation entitled *Trafficking in Women and Children in the Russian Federation, 1991-2001* submitted by me for the award of the Degree of **Master of Philosophy** of Jawaharlal Nehru University is my own work. The dissertation has not been submitted for any other degree of this University or any other University.

A. GEETIKA

Center for Russian and Central Asian Studies
School of International Studies
JAWAHARLAL NEHRU UNIVERSITY

CERTIFICATE

We recommend that this dissertation be placed before examiners for evaluation.

Prof. Anuradha Mitra Chenoy
Chairperson,
Centre for Russian and Central Asian Studies

Dr. K. B. Usha
Supervisor

Dedicated

To

My Beloved Parents

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*New Delhi
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*Ashika
A. Geetika*

Abbreviations

AIDS	Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome
CATW	Coalition Against Trafficking in Women
CEE	Central and Eastern Europe
CIS	Commonwealth of Independent States
CSEC	Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children
EU	European Union
FRG	Family Readiness Group
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IOM	International Organisation for Migration
IREX	International Research Exchanges Board
MFA	Ministry of Foreign Affairs
MIA	Ministry of External Affairs
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
ODIHR	Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights
OSCE	Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe
RF	Russian Federation
STATE GOV	State Government
STD	Sexually Transmitted Disease
SU	Soviet Union
TIP	Trafficking in Persons
TVPA	Trafficking Victims Protection Act
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UN CTOC	United Nation Convention Against Transnational Organised Crime

UN	United Nation
UN.GIFT	United Nation Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations International Children Emergency Fund
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
USA	United States of America
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USSR	United Soviet Socialist Republic
WHO	World Health Organisation
WLDI	Women, Law & Development International
ECPAT	End Child Prostitution, Child Pornography and Trafficking of Children

Chapter I

Introduction: A Conceptual Framework of Trafficking in Women and Children

In the contemporary world trafficking in women and children is a serious human rights concern, especially after the disintegration of Soviet Union and systemic transition, and the intensification of globalization process. Trafficking in women and children is one of the important elements in the broader problem of human trafficking. It affects vulnerable individuals and therefore, women and children become main targets and victims. Women and children are trafficked for various purposes such as forced labour, sexual exploitation, child soldiers and so on. Trafficking in women and children is a multi-billion dollar industry and is a key source of revenue for people involved in this business. Those involved in this industry are the mafia, organized crime groups, etc. The victim generally gets no protection and assistance. They have to live in slavery like situation. Even the governments do not provide the required assistance for the victims of trafficking. Therefore, human trafficking, especially trafficking in women and children has become a global issue today gathering the concerned of international community to fight against it.

Various conceptualizations of human trafficking are available in the literature pertaining to it. It is a form of modern-day slavery. It is the illegal trade in human beings through abduction, the use or threat of force, deception, fraud, or sale for the purposes of sexual exploitation or forced labour (UN.GIFT 2000). Human trafficking has been defined in the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and the Trafficking Protocol in the following manner.

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.

The consent of a victim of trafficking in person to the intended exploitation set forth in subparagraph (a) on this article shall be irrelevant where any of the means set forth in subparagraph (a) have been used.

(c) The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of a child for the purpose of exploitation shall be considered trafficking in persons, even if this does not involve any of the means set forth in subparagraph (a) (UN.GIFT 2000).

International law provides a slightly different definition for trafficking in children in that it is only necessary to show an 'action' such as recruitment, buying and selling, for the specific 'purpose' of exploitation. In other words, trafficking will exist where the child was subject to some act such as recruitment or transportation the purpose of which is the exploitation of that child. Because it is unnecessary to show that force, deception or any other means were used, the identification of child victims of trafficking and the identification of their traffickers is likely to be relatively easier.

This most widely accepted international definition of human trafficking is given in the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (UN.GIFT 2000).

Trafficking invariably involves forcible movement of a person from one place to another and forcible utilization of their services with the intention of inducting them into trade for commercial gains. The word "forcible" signifies that the action is against the person's will or that consensus has been obtained by making deceptive claims and false allurements. In some cases, consensus is obtained because of victim's social conditioning, where the victim is not even aware that he/she is being exploited (Carmen 2000: 3)

For the purpose of discussion this study defines human trafficking as a form of slavery, exploitation, illegal and coercive activity that has great implications on the victims' human rights and life. The study gives specific emphasis to trafficking in women and children and examines this problem with economic, gender and legal perspectives.

Trafficking in women and children is grown as a multinational organized criminal industry that generates billions of dollars a year (The Epoch Times 2009). Trafficking in women and children inarguably has become one of the most dangerous and controversial forms of international trade in existence today. They are mainly subjected to force, fraud, or coercion, for the purpose of sexual exploitation or forced labour. "Women and children are trafficked not only for forced prostitution but also for legal and illegal work, legal and illegal marriages, organ trade, camel racing and bonded labour" (Ghimire 2002). In a nut shell, there is a demand for trafficked women and children. Men around the world profit in pleasure and in price from exploitation of women and children (UNODC Protocol 2000).

Considerably less attention has been given to analyze the root causes for the trafficking. The problem of trafficking in women and children can be looked at the context of globalization, labour migration and movement of people due to economic crisis on the one hand and the persistence of gender inequality and subordinate status of women on the other (Ghimire 2002).

Globalization impacted women adversely. The phenomenon of feminization of poverty and unemployment and lack of job opportunity in the native country compel women to seek ways to go to a foreign country for better earning and life. Thus they fall in the trap of traffickers. The traffickers use three stages to trap their target. In the first stage, the victims are recruited; in the second, they are transported; and in the third, they are exploited. At the recruitment stage, criminals use many methods to force or trick people into being trafficked. In some cases, the people are abducted and assaulted. In other cases, however, the people are offered good jobs and attractive opportunities that do not actually exist or that force them into exploitative labour and living conditions. At the transportation stage, victims may be moved by land, sea and/or air, openly or covertly, in groups or alone, using public or private means of transportation. People can be trafficked across legal or illegal border crossings, or, in cases when persons are trafficked inside the borders of a country no border crossing at all. At the exploitation stage, victims may be obliged to do any of the following:

1) Have sex or be sexually assaulted, 2) Work in places such as factories, restaurants, farms, plantations, mines or homes (as domestic helpers), without the right to rest or the option to leave, 3) Have an organ removed, 4) Beg, sell illegal drugs or fight as child soldiers, and 5) Get married (UN.GIFT 2008).

Trafficking in women and children is not necessarily transnational. It can occur regardless of whether victims are taken to another country or to another place within the same country. In cases involving transnational trafficking in persons, borders might be crossed legally. Although victims of trafficking are controlled at all times by the traffickers, the methods of control may change over time. Documents and money may be taken from victims under the pretence of keeping them safe or of using those to obtain

visas. A variety of methods are used to restrain victims, including incarceration and drugging. Traffickers sometimes threaten victims, for example, with telling their families and/or communities that the victims agreed to engage in shameful forms of labour or with telling the authorities that the victims have no documents. Victims are deceived into thinking that they will be able to pay for their travel and work arrangements after they have arrived at their destination and are then never put in a position to be able to do so (Anti-Slavery International 2005). They will be kept in isolation from the public, and threatened that they will be imprisoned or deported for immigration violations if they contact authorities.

In global ranking, trafficking is the third profitable business after drugs and arms smuggling (Goldberg 2008). One of the reasons lies with the fact that, this trade is a highly profitable enterprise with relatively low risk as compared to trades in arms and drugs because a little start-up capital is needed and prosecution is relatively rare. In simple words a person is trafficked if she /he is forced or tricked into a situation in which he or she is exploited.

The problem of trafficking has attracted the attention of the international community and individual states. Anti-trafficking legislation is comprised of an array of international conventions and declarations calling for all states to unite in their efforts to combat all forms of slavery, including that of human trafficking. The focus of such documents has been, first and foremost, on women and children as being particularly vulnerable to violence and trafficking, including for the purpose of sexual exploitation (Tiurukanova 2006). UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and the Trafficking Protocol (2000) is the first international instrument that addresses all aspects of trafficking and the first instrument to contain an internationally recognized definition of trafficking. The purposes of the

Protocol, as stated in Article 2, are to prevent and combat trafficking in persons, to protect and assist victims and to promote cooperation among States Parties.

The adoption of the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (2004) reflects the world's recognition of the universal nature of the problem: cross-border and internal human trafficking affect both countries with developed economies and those which are developing. Trafficking occurs across state borders as well as within states, and in countries which have a long-established tradition of democracy, as well as in those with totalitarian systems of power. The total number of victims of cross-border trafficking is now estimated at 600,000 to 800,000 per annum, or 2 to 4 million, if victims of internal trafficking are included (Trafficking in Person (TIP) Report 2005). International reports point out that 80 percent of the victims of cross-border trafficking are women and children, 70 percent of whom are sold to other countries for the purpose of sexual exploitation. However, the methods applied in such estimates are not transparent, making it difficult to calculate the accuracy and reliability of these estimates.

The Central and Eastern European countries, including the territory of the former Soviet Union, rank second after South-East Asia in regards to the scale of trafficking in human beings: 175,000 women are taken out of this area a year for the purpose of human trafficking. One third to one-fifth of this figure comprises of women from the Russian Federation, i.e. roughly 57,750 to 35,000 women a year (UNFPA Report 2004). Even if this estimate is high, these figures do not take into account the large flows of human trafficking of migrants for criminal purposes from the CIS Republics into Russia or between the CIS Republics.

After the disintegration of Soviet Union, trafficking in women and children has been growing in Russian Federation as one of the major problems. In

regard to trafficking in women and children Russia became a prominent origin, transit and destination country in the world. Every year, children, teenagers, as well as men and women from all over the world are transported within or across borders of Russia and forced to work in prostitution, the sex industry, domestic servitude, sweatshops, restaurant work, migrant agricultural work, and many other industries. There are several reasons for this phenomenon. Since the collapse of the Soviet Union, Russia had gone through severe economic decline worsening the social welfare and health care systems. It directly affected Russian citizens in the form of poverty, unemployment and inadequate health care. The crisis due to the disintegration of the Soviet Union disproportionately affected women and children. According to Soviet ideology, inequalities among groups of people, specifically men and women, were eliminated. Consequently, violence against women was ignored. Women do not have equal social status to men in the Russian Federation. When women have a lower status, they are more likely to be victims of violence and exploitation. They are also blamed for many social problems.

Women who have tried to participate in the new market economy by starting businesses for themselves are not immune from the threats and control of organized crime groups. When women open businesses, even small ones, such as selling produce in the market, police and organized crime groups demand "protection" money in order to allow them to do business there (Tiurukanova 2006). Some women cite corruption and organized crime as their reason to try risky opportunities to leave Russia, such as meeting western men through marriage agencies. One of the features of these changes in the largest country in the world is the rapidness of the decline and change.

Previously, the people of Russia had a secure standard of living. Following the collapse of the state and lack of progressive reforms, people are depressed, desperate, and hopeless. One woman said: "Before perestroika, even without a man, I would have been able to support my family on my own, but now the wages don't meet my standards. Now, many state enterprises are closed, and many private enterprises have an age limit of 35 or demand people who are computer literate and speak a foreign language. You can lose your job without any notice and for no reason" (Maganini 2000). Ten years ago, this woman never thought of leaving Russia, but now she said, "I don't want to live here" (Maganini 2000).

Most education was equally available to women and men in the Soviet Union, resulting in many highly educated and trained women in Russia compared to other countries. Unemployment has disproportionately affected these educated women (Rukavishnikov 1999). The appearance of highly educated Russian women in sex industries abroad has been one of the unique phenomena of trafficking in women from Russia. Elsewhere, trafficked women are usually less well educated women. The contracting economy has caused a sharp rise in unemployment for women and men of Russia.

Often the first people to lose their jobs were women, as it was seen as less important for them to have a job than men (Multidisciplinary Advisory Team for Central and Eastern Europe, 1996). Also, workplace benefits that assisted women were lost. Childcare facilities in the workplace were closed, then these facilities was given as the reason for firing women before men and not rehiring them when there were job openings. Women are currently discriminated against in hiring throughout Russia and there is little women have been able to do to resist this trend (Human Rights Watch 1995). Although there are laws prohibiting discrimination, there are no mechanisms

for enforcement or sanctions if the laws are violated (Moscow Helsinki Group 2000: 228).

Unemployment for women strikes hard at many families. In the late 1990s, women made up more than 80 percent of single-parent, single-income heads of families raising children and among that population group, over 80 percent were unemployed (Engel 1998). Over half of the children under age six were living in poverty at the end of 1998. Those who are employed are frequently not paid on time or only given partial wages. According to different reports, between one half and two-thirds of workers were owed back wages (The Russia Longitudinal Monitoring Survey Report 1992-98 1999).

Unemployment is a significant contributing factor to the trafficking of women from Russia. Unemployment creates a pool of women, some of them quite desperate, who can be recruited with promises of jobs and good incomes outside their region or the country. Numerous Russian women in the sex industry abroad cite the need to support children or mothers as the reason for them being in prostitution.

Women's need for employment provides criminals with their easiest way to recruit women. Traffickers operate in employment and tour agencies in which they promise women work abroad, and assist them getting travel documents. In Moscow, there are almost 400 registered agencies, and in other regions, there are 475 registered agencies that offer work abroad or assistance in travelling abroad. There are also many agencies operating illegally. The legal agencies are just as likely to be involved in trafficking in women as illegal agencies (Tiurukanova 2006). Russia has been an origin, transit, and destination country for women and children trafficked for sexual exploitation to and from numerous countries within the Gulf States, Europe, and North America (Tiurukanova 2006). Human trafficking, especially in

women and children has become one of the social consequences of the systemic transition.

There are different methods to recruit victims for trafficking. Sex industries use up women, physically and emotionally, necessitating fresh supplies of women on a regular basis, which keeps the recruitment and trafficking of women so profitable. Recruiters, traffickers and pimps who engage in trafficking in women for the purpose of sexual exploitation have developed common methods of operation. One method of recruitment is advertisements in newspapers offering lucrative job opportunities in foreign countries for low skilled jobs, such as waitresses and nannies. Some advertisements promise good salaries to young, attractive women who will work as dancers and hostesses. An inspection of newspapers in Ukraine showed that each contained five to 20 suspicious advertisements (Levchenko, 2000). Women are recruited through social events and auditions, such as photo sessions. The process is usually complex, with detailed deception calculated to reassure the women that the employment opportunity is genuine (MiraMed Institute Preliminary Survey Report 2003). It is estimated that 20 percent of trafficked women are recruited through media advertisements.

Another method of recruitment is “marriage agencies,” sometimes called mail-order-bride agencies or international introduction services. According to the International Organization for Migration (IOM), all mail-order-bride agencies with women from the republics of the former Soviet Union are under the control of organized crime networks (IOM 2003). Many of these agencies operate on the Internet. Recruiters use “marriage agencies” as a way to contact women who are eager to travel or emigrate. This route into the sex industry can take several forms. The recruiters may be traffickers or work directly with traffickers. The woman may meet with a man who promises marriage at a later date. The man may use the woman himself for a

short period of time, then coerce her into making pornography and later sell her to the sex industry, or he may directly deliver the woman to a brothel.

Some traffickers use the woman's legal documents and tourist visas to legally enter the destination countries. The women may be put on a circuit by pimps wherein they are moved from country to country on legal tourist visas or entertainers' visas. Other times, the woman is given false documents. In this case, the woman is even more vulnerable after she arrives in the destination country because she is there illegally. If police discover her, she is arrested and deported.

The most common way women are recruited in Russia is through a friend or acquaintance, who gains the woman's confidence. An increasing phenomenon is called "the second wave" in which trafficked women return home to recruit other women. Once a woman has been trafficked and trapped in the sex industry, she has few options. Escape may be difficult. Since women get to keep little of the money they earn, they often have little to show for their experiences abroad. Also, because of the stigma attached to women in prostitution, they often face discrimination at home. One of the few means of escaping the brutality of being forced to have unwanted sex each day with multiple men is to move from victim to perpetrator. To do this, women who have been trafficked return home to recruit new victims. According to one report, for instance, in Russia, 70 percent of pimps are women. A recruiter gets from US\$200 to \$5,000 for each woman recruited (Hyde and Denisenko 1997)

In 1996, the Ministry of Internal Affairs estimated that 40 percent of private businesses, 60 percent of state-owned enterprises, and more than half of the country's banks were controlled by organized crime (Jenson 1998). Russian organized crime groups controlling trafficking have in many ways replaced the state in providing, employment, protection and security. The majority of

private enterprises are compelled, by force if necessary, to pay protection of up to 30 percent of their profits to organized crime (Jenson 1998).

Today, the problem is not so much the increase in crime and criminal groups in Russia, as the criminalization of the entire state and economy. The Russian Federation as a whole has been described as “criminal-syndicalism state,” defined as “a state controlled by a tightly interlinked cadre of corrupt officials, crooked businesspeople, and criminals” (Center for Strategic and International Studies Task Force Report 1997: 26). The criminalization of the state and the lack of political will to change this situation has resulted in the state of Russia being reluctant to acknowledge that there is a trade in women and children by means of trafficking. State agencies often will not recognize the crimes or the victims, choosing to view the women as voluntary workers or criminals.

For example, according to a researcher in Irkutsk, the Director of Passport and Visa Control in the Department of Organized Crime Control said that there are no criminal groups in Russia who traffic women to other countries (Tiurukanova 2006). All efforts to pass laws aimed at stopping sexual exploitation and trafficking of women have been defeated in the Duma. Under these conditions, trafficking in women by organized crime groups has flourished. Russian organized crime groups operate prostitution and trafficking rings throughout Europe, Asia, the Middle East, and North America (Global Organized Crime Project 2000: 42). In June 1996, the Russian Interior Ministry reported that 110 Russian organized crime gangs operated abroad in 44 different countries, either independently or in cooperation with foreign partners. Most of them had permanent bases abroad, and about 30 of them included prostitution and trafficking operations (Dunn 2000: 63-87). By 2000, the number of large Russian organized crime groups had increased to 200 groups operating in 58

countries. In recent years the countries of increased activity were: United States, Canada, Israel, Brazil, Colombia, Austria, Turkey, Hungary, Poland, and Sri Lanka (Global Organized Crime Project 2000: 7). The transnational scope of organized crime groups originating in Russia explains the distribution of trafficked Russian women in dozens of countries around the world.

After eight years of market economy, the 1999 Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was estimated to be 58 percent of the 1989 level. In 2000, approximately 41 percent of the population lived below the poverty line or subsistence level of 1,138 roubles (approximately US\$40) a month. The average monthly wage in spring 2000 was 2,038 roubles (approximately US\$71) per month (Russian and Eurasia Program Report 2000).

There are many types and forms of trafficking in women and children in the Russian federation. Though its forms and types are not constant and are changing often. First and foremost is for the purpose of sexual exploitation. Sexual exploitation includes prostitution, organization of sex tourism, production of pornography etc. All these forms of sexual exploitation trap not only women but children as well.

Second form is for the purpose of slave labour. This form of exploitation is pre-dominant in children. Victims are forced to work in sweet shops, agricultural farms etc. They are forced to work as domestic servant in informal and shadow economy. Exploitation of children and disabled is done for the purpose of begging.

Another form of exploitation is through marriages for forced pregnancies and child bearing as well as forced care for sick and aged relatives. These women are behaved as housemaids after marriage. In the era of globalization

victims are trafficked for the forced transfer of organs and tissues, surrogate mother or reproduction, for illegal adoption of children.

No one really knows how many women and children are trafficked for exploitation from the Russian Federation. A few agencies have offered estimates as a way to convey the seriousness and magnitude of the problem. The US State Department estimates that more than 100,000 women were trafficked from the former Soviet Union in 1997 alone (Herald 1999: 39).

Basically victims who are being trafficked are divided into three categories: Innocent victims, willing victims and invisible victims. Innocent victims are the ones who apply for jobs abroad and expect to work as waitresses, models or nannies when they arrive in destination countries. But, at some point in their travel their identity documents are confiscated and they are forced into prostitution. They are held in debt bondage until they repay the amount set by the traffickers and pimps or until they escape or are freed by a police raid. Traffickers commonly recruit women through employment, tour, and modelling agencies. The traffickers choose women who will be vulnerable and easy to control. Willing victims are completely opposite to innocent victims. If the victim has had prior knowledge that she would be recruited for the purpose of exploitation or if there is any indication that she/he was not entirely a victim of deception, coercion, violence, and enslavement, she quickly loses the status of "innocent" victim and falls into the category of "willing" victim. According to the Ministry of Internal Affairs, more than half of the women engaged in prostitution in foreign countries knew they would be involved in prostitution before they left Russia (Report on Human Rights in the Russian Regions 2001: 259).

There are many victims of exploitation and trafficking who are neither "innocent" nor "willing" victims. They are invisible. These are the orphans and homeless children who exist with no protection. They do not have

families or friends who can assist when they disappear. There are approximately 650,000 children in orphanages in Russia (Ryan 2000: 32) and an estimated 1 to 2.5 million Russian children living on the street (The Russia Longitudinal Monitoring Survey Report 1992-98 1999). According to UNICEF, more than 500,000 Russian children lost a parent prematurely between 1990 and 1995 (Cullen 1997). In the last nine years, as economic circumstances have deteriorated, there has been an increase in “social” orphans, meaning those who have been abandoned by their parents. In Moscow, there are over 30,000 homeless children, and an estimated 17,000 of them engage in prostitution to survive. Moreover, one-third of them suffer from syphilis or gonorrhoea and one tenth of them are infected with HIV.

Men and women from the Russian Far East are trafficked to South Korea, China, Bahrain, Oman, Japan, and South Korea for purposes of sexual exploitation, debt bondage, and forced labour, including in the agricultural and fishing sectors. Some Russian women are trafficked to Turkey, Greece, South Africa, Germany, Poland, Italy, Israel, Spain, Vietnam, Thailand, Australia, New Zealand, and the Middle East for the purpose of commercial sexual exploitation. Men and women from Central Asia and Ukraine are trafficked to the Russian Far East for the purpose of forced labour including victims trafficked for forced labour in the fishing industry. The ILO reports that labour trafficking is the most predominant form of trafficking in Russia. Men and women are trafficked within Russia and from Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, Ukraine, and Moldova to Russia for the purposes of commercial sexual exploitation and forced labour, including work in the construction industry (<http://www.humantrafficking.org> 2009).

Moscow and St. Petersburg have been destinations for children trafficked within Russia and from Ukraine and Moldova for purposes of sexual exploitation and forced begging. Men from Western Europe and the United

States travel to Western Russia, specifically St. Petersburg for the purpose of child sex tourism; experts continue to credit a decrease in the number of child victims in these cities to aggressive police investigations and Russian cooperation with foreign law enforcement (Trafficking in Persons Report 2009).

Adoption of such a complex definition of the crime elements is rather unusual for Russian criminal law and law enforcement practices. Application during the first two years of Russia's criminal article 127.1 reflects the difficulties caused through adoption of such a complex definition. Many offences which are effectively human trafficking continue to be classified "in the old way" i.e. under different articles of the criminal code. Furthermore, many criminal cases initially classified under article 127.1 result in prosecution and sentencing on completely different criminal provisions. The Palermo Protocol envisages its standards being applied only in cases where human trafficking is transnational in nature. The combating of human trafficking carried out without crossing national borders should be regulated by countries' domestic legislation. Russia has opted to adopt a more universal criminal standard covering both internal and cross-border human trafficking (UNHCR 2005)

The definitions of human trafficking and exploitation set out in the Russian Federation Criminal Code are consistent with those in the Palermo Protocol. On a number of aspects, Russia has used the Palermo Protocol as a minimum standard, adopting more severe provisions. However, Russia's system of defining key terms essential to the anti-trafficking legal definition still requires further analysis, systematization, supplementation and enhancement, particularly as regards to measures used for conducting human trafficking and to exposure of specific forms of human exploitation.

There is inadequate research that covers the issues concerning trafficking of women and children in Russia. The fall of Soviet Union had shaken the walls of all CIS countries including Russia. New government, new military and new economic system brought several changes in the Russian society. The impact of these changes on women and children in Russia has not gained adequate attention in the previous literature. The existing gender bias has a specific impact on Russian women and children in context to trafficking. The negative impact of trafficking on emotional, psychological and physical health of a victim needs immediate attention of the society. In the light of the above mentioned research questions, it is important to understand that there is an urge to combat trafficking of women and children. Therefore, this study seeks to make a modest attempt to fill the existing gap.

Based on the backdrop of the above discussion the study will be testing the following hypotheses:

1. Economic decline, political instability, migration and social insecurities after the disintegration of the Soviet Union are some of the factors contributing to the proliferation of trafficking of women and children in the Russian Federation.
2. Trafficking has gender differentiated and specific impact such as sexual violence and exploitation, prostitution, beating, exposure of HIV AIDS etc. on women and children due to the prevalence of patriarchal stereotype and gender inequity in Russian society.

This study consists of five chapters. Chapter one is the conceptual framework and tools analysing the trafficking in women and children in general and Russia in particular. The second chapter discusses different causes of trafficking in women and children in Russian Federation after the disintegration of Soviet Union. Third chapter tries to analyze the impact of

trafficking on victims. The fourth chapter discusses about the efforts of Russian government and civil society in combating trafficking in women and children in Russia. Chapter five lists out the conclusions and findings of the study, besides examining the hypotheses set at the beginning of the study.

Chapter II

Causes of Trafficking of Women and Children in the Russian Federation, 1991-2001

After the disintegration of the Soviet Union, Russia has gone through severe economic crisis, political instability and other social insecurities. The systemic transition in terms of western liberal democracy and market economics had adversely impacted on Russian people. The chaotic situation during the first decade of transition left Russian citizens to live in poverty, job insecurity, and absence of social benefits or inadequate healthcare. The break-up of the Soviet Union eliminated most of the systems and infrastructures that provided social safety nets and a minimal standard of living for the Russian population. In the transition from planned to a market economy production has fallen, there has been substantial capital flight and foreign investment has been minimal. All of this has resulted in economic instability and newly impoverished populations, accompanied by high unemployment, unpaid wages, savings lost or spent on subsistence, and little hope of change. This has led to population movement from Russia to other parts of the world and labour migration in search of short-term or temporary jobs. Though systemic transition and crisis generated difficult situations for people in general it had a gendered impact on women and children.

Even before 1998, the economy continued to contract. Then in August of 1998, a severe economic and financial crisis caused the value of the rouble to collapse, and savings that people had managed to accumulate were gone. In 2000, almost 60 million Russians, over 40 per cent of the population, lived below the poverty line or subsistence level and some 80 million adults spent half their income on basic food staples. The abandonment of the centralized, controlled economy and the change to a market economy also

created an economic class system that had not previously existed. For example, in 1994, following three years of reform, the top 10 per cent of the population earned 11 times as much as the bottom 10 per cent (The Report of Russia and Eurasia Program 2000).

International and domestic observers underline some reasons of trafficking in Russia. Such reasons are (Mizulina 2006: 11):

- relatively transparent state borders between Russia and CIS countries;
- increase in migration outside and inside Russia;
- low standards of life in comparison with western countries;
- internal human trafficking within Russia, especially from East to West and from CIS countries as one of the spheres of criminal business, including use of forced labour; and
- globalization of the organized crime, and existence of the stable channels of “deliveries”, where Russia is considered a country of origin, transit and destination.

Mostly human trafficking is deeply rooted with economic, social, political and migration. Usually the factors which included with this problem are: poverty, economic instability, unemployment, lack of education and other human development resources; and other human development resources; major variations in countries in terms of development and last but the not the least numbers of vulnerable families and children. There are a multitude of reasons why the trafficking business thrives in Russia, including great profits which can be made by the traffickers, corruption of officials and police at many levels, and reluctance of lawmakers to intervene due in part to fear of reprisals by violent criminal syndicates. The charm of Western countries and dream to adopt their modern culture also helps traffickers to pull innocent victims into this flesh market (Freese 2007).

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Moreover, with the downturn in financial and economic conditions that has occurred over the last decade throughout Russia and the former Soviet republics, there are more and more children and women who are too vulnerable, too uninformed, or too desperate to prevent themselves from falling prey to the sex industry. Many of them then discover that, once they have become a part of this trade, it is almost impossible to be extricated. Many women have few choices because they have become impoverished and find themselves devoid of options for jobs or means of survival. This is the plight of many women in poor rural and remote areas in Russia or those attempting to survive urban poverty (Freese 2007).

Trafficking is caused by a combination of factors including government corruption, poverty and economic instability, inefficient legal systems and the incentive of financial gain in the trade. Human trafficking has recently emerged in this region because of the dire economic situation in Russia and CIS countries, along with large levels of corruption. There is often little, if any, enforced punishment for traffickers. Since the fall of the Soviet Union, Russia's political system remains unstable as the mafia continues to infiltrate the government. The corruption is so deep that many law enforcement officers are involved in the trafficking industry. Often women and children have no one to turn to if they are trafficked (Freese 2007).

Following are some of the main factors causing trafficking of children and women in the Russian federation:

Migration:

Following the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991, Russia rapidly emerged as one of the largest countries of origin, transit, and destination for victims of human trafficking (Osipova 2009). The fall of the Soviet Union has opened the borders of New Russia. The flow of illegal immigrants from



CIS countries to Russia grew day by day. Russia became a popular country for such immigrants as a place with a variety of jobs. These immigrants leave poorer country like Moldova, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, and Kyrgyzstan. The wish to migrate is then exploited by traffickers. Moldova and Ukraine have particularly major issues with women trafficking for sexual exploitation.

Since the early 1990s, Russia has been a major centre for international migration. While migration was, until the mid-1990s, predominantly from CIS states to Russia, existing economic motivations today have led to labour migration both into and out of the country. This situation transforms migration from being a considered, planned step into a risky undertaking, unsupported by the necessary information and social welfare mechanisms. According to the Ministry of Internal Affairs (MIA) and border-authority statistics, more than 12 million migrants a year enter Russia for a variety of intentions. The larger portion of migration occurs from CIS countries, with which Russia has a visa-free regime.

As per the ILO report about 2.4 million men, women and children are trafficked to and within the transition countries (Kenn 2000). Migration linked to trafficking in women and prostitution is one of the darkest features of the lack of equality between women and men. This form of migration has developed into gigantic highly organised criminal trade linked to the exploitation of women. Other reasons for female emigration are poverty, unemployment, under education, lack of resources, political and economic instability. Thus, trafficking is an age and gender specific phenomenon. One of the major reasons of migration is also the lavishing life of west which attracts young women especially school girls. In order to see a bigger and modern world they migrate in search of jobs to West and get trapped in the cage of Mafias indulged into trafficking.

Traffickers take advantage of the desperate situation of a substantial proportion of the population in Russia and neighbouring countries, especially the CIS states, China, North Korea and Vietnam, from which the majority of Russia's illegal working migrants come. In Russia 1% of its population has an income of less than \$1 per day. It shows a huge wage gap that leads people to enter into the risky situations. Although attractive to migrants from less-developed countries, Russia lags substantially behind the world's leading developed market economies. Throughout the latter half of the 1990s, the average wage in the Russian manufacturing industry was 50 times lower than that of Germany, 40 times lower than that of Japan, and 30 times lower than that of the United State (Stalker 2000: 23). Experts believe that this gap will not be eliminated in the immediate future. In fact, some experts predict this gap will even grow alongside the restructuring of the global economy. As a result, Russia will likely remain both an origin and destination country for human trafficking (Stalker 2000).

Even within one jurisdiction, as we can see differences in Russia. Moscow and St. Petersburg much more developed, salaries are higher. That's why Russian citizens who live in countryside migrate in central cities for a better life as well as citizens of CIS countries. Developed countries of Europe, USA, Canada, and Japan are the most attractive countries for a people, who live in poor conditions or wish better life. Not all migrants are starving or unemployed or homeless in their home country. Western values, high standards of life, high salaries, and fantasies about better life push people toward migration in destination countries. But level of attractiveness for migration is not a main index of trafficking but possibilities and environment for exploitation. Ten countries in the Trafficking Database score very high as reported destinations for trafficked victims. Five of these countries are in Western Europe: Belgium, Germany, Greece, Italy and the Netherlands. Among Asian countries Israel and Turkey have a very high

score then come Japan and then Thailand. The other very highly reported destination country is the United States (Mehdiyev 2009: 29).

Economic and Political Factors:

Poverty and poor standard of living force people to adopt brutal models of economic behaviour by agreeing to exploitation and to slave labour condition. Such factors of crisis provoke to except illegal migration, marginal employment and willing exploitation. Economic hazards make people feel lower in their personal and social conditions. Soon after the disintegration of Soviet Union Russia faced huge economic crisis along with the political and social instability. Population became vulnerable and lack of resources raised the organized criminal organizations along with human trafficking.

Through the period of transition to a market economy certain occupations have shifted in their prestige and earnings, many jobs were eliminated, and many women have been forced out of their positions (Report of Russian UN-NGO Consultation on Women 1996). This has occurred in a context in which many Russian women are highly educated, since, for the most part, education was equally available to women and men in the Soviet Union, resulting in many highly trained women in Russia compared to other countries. Unemployment has disproportionately affected these educated women (Rukavishnikov 1999).

Soon trafficking boomed in the country widely and it was estimated that the annual revenue from trafficking in persons was estimated between \$5 billion and \$9 billion. Poverty particularly in Russia's poorly developed regions brought a whole range of consequences, such as limited access to good quality education and health care; lower living standards; and lack of access to modern information and communication technologies. 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 to criminal exploitation.

Women rape survivors, which experts estimate comprise of 20% the women population are usually included as a high risk group for human trafficking as they are more disposed to take risks as a result of incurred psychological trauma (Mokhova, 2004).

The UNICEF report, "Child Poverty in Russia," highlights that children are the most vulnerable group to risks of poverty; the risk of poverty for a family without children is 15%, whereas for a family with children the risk is 52%, with the highest risk being faced by large families (72% for families with three or more children). Families with children in rural areas have poverty risks of 62.5% (Ovcharova 2005: 21). Children are the main victims of human trafficking after women in Russian society. There is the large increase in street children in Russia over the span of the 1990s. These children are either orphans or do not have parental supervision and wander around the streets looking for both work and amusement.

Often these children, if they are lucky, end up in children's homes. But many of these children end up on the streets again. These street children are forced to fend for themselves because they have no means of support. Often these children are either abandoned, or they escape to the streets from abusive families. Other street children are migrants and refugees mostly from Central Asia. Most of the street children come from poor families who are burdened by alcoholism and violence and many come from families living in

dire poverty. These children try to work during the day for needed money. Once noticed by the traffickers these children are then send to many countries and are exploited in many ways (Stephienson 2002).

Corruption is one of the darkest factors increasing this billion dollar industry in Russia. According to one OSCE report, “there is a very strong correlation between trafficking and corruption” and “the trafficking of persons ... flourishes in part through the corruption of public officials” (Mann and Dolea 2006). Yet there is no question that human trafficking could not occur on the scale it does were it not for the complicity and collusion of corrupt officials with criminal gangs. Although the data-deficiencies mean it is impossible to draw a comprehensive picture of the involvement of corrupt officials, the seriousness of this problem renders it vital to sketch at least an incomplete image of the ways in which corruption interacts with trafficking.

Since the collapse of most of the communist bloc in the late-1980s/early-1990s, there has been a huge increase in the number of people—mostly women, but also some men and an increasing number of children—trafficked from CEE and the CIS to Western Europe, East Asia and elsewhere. As in other parts of the world, there is still relatively little hard evidence on the involvement of corrupt officials in this. But there are plenty of general references to corruption and sex-related trafficking, including from officials in post-communist states. For example, the head of the ten-person police unit formed in Moscow in the late-1990s to counter prostitution, Viktor Yegorin, “noted that the unit’s efforts to reduce prostitution were undermined by police corruption. The police accept bribes to assist the women in getting residence permits and to ignore the prostitution” (Hughes 2002: 22). But detailed concrete information is still difficult to obtain.

The undermining of democracy and the rule of law leading to human rights violations, along with the distortion of markets and erosion of the quality of

life, are well documented effects of corruption which allow human trafficking and other manifestations of organised crime to control. Corruption exists in all countries – big, small, rich and poor – and the Russian Federation is no exception. Corruption in transition economies has an extensive impact on the poor, with the diversion of allocated funds for development and the undermining of authorities ability to deliver on basic services.

A peculiarity of corruption in Russia and all post-Soviet countries is that it is encouraged by weak laws and the sheer volume of the shadow economy and shadowy practices in all spheres of everyday activities. Informal economic relations and unrecorded money flows give shadowy and criminal organisations opportunities to spend huge amounts of money to “buy” state officials and other people in authority. The greater the legislative gaps on regulation of a specific sector, the greater the corruption in that sector. For example, corruption in the sphere of migration has reached enormous proportions, as a result of gaps in this sphere’s legislation and legal regulation.

The following are some of the examples of how corruption and trafficking are inter-related:

- **Forgery, illegal preparation or receipt of ID or migration documents via state officials in origin and destination countries.** Cases exist where ages in passports were changed or where false powers of attorney from parents were used when trading minors or bringing them across borders (Hughes 2002: 22).
- **Direct collusion between employers or others engaged in the criminal exploitation of people and local law enforcement authorities.** For example, human trafficking victims who have gone to the police have been “returned” to their former “bosses”. Employers have also handed illegal

migrants over to the police, once work such as a construction project has been completed, rather than pay migrants their earned wages.

While unemployment, poverty and poor life standards are just grounds for trafficking, organized criminal activity is the main creator of trafficking. Trafficking in human being is one of varieties of organized crime. Because trafficking exists where exploitation of victims exists; exploitation network in turn needs in organized activity of criminals, involved in recruitment, transportation, harbouring, selling of victims. We can definitely say that if there is no organized criminal activity there will not any exploitation and thus, trafficking activity. The prostitution and cheap or illegal labour exist for always; the problem raise where such activities are lead by illegal groups aimed material benefit. The problem doesn't rise as only an issue of infringement of human rights, but also as a widespread criminality involves corruption, drugs smuggling, terrorism (recruitment of militants), and falsification of documents, clandestine border-crossing and other illegal activities (Mehdiyev 2009). Sometimes victims of trafficking know about their future exploitation by traffickers, but by different reasons they are involving in trafficking with consent (Olshanskiy 2007).

But it is not always only due to an increase in organized crime and corruption in the region, but is, at least in part, also due to a chaotic economic environment that is a result of political and economic transformation from a centrally planned economy to a free market economy. The result is a chaotic economic environment in which many Russian citizens (both male and female) continue to experience harmful effects from the past decade's economic and political transition. However, it is Russian women who have disproportionately endured negative effects as a consequence of this transition. For instance, more Russian women than men are unemployed. Russian women also face increased discrimination in hiring (WLDI). World Bank figures indicate that women in Russia earn only 70%

of men's wages for the same work and make up 70% of the official unemployed (Eaves), though the former figure is most likely higher. These factors have led to a massive decrease in opportunities for Russian women in the formal workplace. What is more, government-sponsored social supports (such as family healthcare and day-care for children) are reduced or eliminated entirely, which is an added strain on women, who are typically responsible for the care of children and the household.

Russia as the Country of Origin (Source), Transit and Destination

A common misconception is that trafficking only occurs in poor countries. But every country in the world is involved in the underground, lucrative system. A “source country” is a country from which people are trafficked. Usually, these countries are destitute and may have been further weakened by war, corruption, natural disasters or climate. Some source countries are Nepal, Guatemala, the former Soviet territories, and Nigeria, but there are many more. A “transit country”, like Mexico or Israel, and Russia is a temporary stop on trafficked victim’s journey to the country where they will be enslaved. A “destination country” is where trafficked persons end up. These countries are generally affluent, since they must have citizens with enough disposable income to buy the traffickers “products”. Japan, India, much of Western Europe, and the United States along with Russia are all destination countries (www.tenstudents.com 2010).

Russia with current index of unemployment and organized crime, weak family institute probably became a country of origin for sexual slaves and children trafficking. Russian women and children are trafficked by 4 main routes:

First route is “Baltic route” from Germany with subsequent transportation to EU countries and US. Second route is “Caucasian route” through Georgia to Turkey, Greece and Italy. Third route is “middle east” route – to Egypt,

UAE and Israel; and Last route is “Chinese route” from Siberia and Primorye to China, Thailand and Japan (Mehdeyev 2009: 27).

Russia “exports” sexual slaves and import as sexual slaves from CIS countries as well as labour slaves from more wide geography, like CIS countries, China and Vietnam. In hotels of Moscow Vietnam prostitutes are usual deal. Russian girl become more and more popular for rich Chinese businessmen. Men and women from the Russian Far East are trafficked to South Korea, China, Bahrain, Oman, Japan, and South Korea for purposes of sexual exploitation, debt bondage, and forced labour, including in the agricultural and fishing sectors. Some Russian women are trafficked to Turkey, Greece, South Africa, Germany, Poland, Italy, Israel, Spain, Vietnam, Thailand, Australia, New Zealand, and the Middle East for the purpose of commercial sexual exploitation. Men and women from Central Asia and Ukraine are trafficked to the Russian Far East for the purpose of forced labour, including victims trafficked for forced labour in the fishing industry (Mehdeyev 2009: 25).

The ILO reports that labour trafficking is the most predominant form of trafficking in Russia. Men and women are trafficked within Russia and from Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, Ukraine, and Moldova to Russia for the purposes of commercial sexual exploitation and forced labour, including work in the construction industry. A significant number of men from Belarus are trafficked to Russia for the purpose of forced labour in the construction, manufacturing, and fishing sectors. Moscow and St. Petersburg have been destinations for children trafficked within Russia and from Ukraine and Moldova for purposes of sexual exploitation and forced begging. Men from Western Europe and the United States travel to Western Russia, specifically St. Petersburg for the purpose of child sex tourism; experts continue to credit a decrease in the number of child victims in these cities to aggressive police investigations and Russian cooperation with foreign law enforcement.

There are some other factors as well to provoke trafficking in women and children in Russian society. They are as follows:

Fantasy World of Western Glamour:

During perestroika and after the collapse of the Soviet Union there was an influx of western images of glamour, and Russian women and girls were presented with an idealized view of western glamour, women, and foreign life. However, glamour quickly turned to pornography and sexual exploitation, and imported and locally made pornography became widely available. A recent study, alarmingly, indicates that prostitution is, in fact, one of the top “careers” that Russian schoolgirls dream of pursuing (Factbook on Global Sexual Exploitation: Russia 2001). Thus, there are indeed a number of Russian women, in contrast to Lyubov (love) and others like her who are coerced, who enter the sex trade *voluntarily*, viewing prostitution as their ticket to a life of adventure and glamour. Yet, false promises abound with these women, as well. Many who knowingly enter into the sex trade are forced to work for months or years without earnings, and they endure cruel forms of sexual exploitation. Ultimately, these women end up putting themselves into a position where they may lose not only their basic human rights but their lives, as well (Fedorenko 2000).

Battering:

In this first half of 1997, around 18000 women were battered and were registered in hospitals (Nadezhdina 1998: 7). Yet, police do not take complaints of domestic violence and sexual assault seriously, and there have been reports of police taking bribes to drop charges. Concomitantly, shortage in housing means and few options of finding another place to live makes divorced couples to continue to live together. Man is no more the same person. Physical and violence becomes a part of daily activity. These conditions contribute to the growing phenomenon of women going abroad to

search for work and ending up within the sex industry. Domestic violence is also frequently a reason that children run away from home and these victims and witnesses to battering and abuse are especially vulnerable to being recruited for prostitution and trafficking.

Sexual Violence:

Women in Russia are often blamed for sexual assaults against them and accused of being provocative. Women know this and therefore seldom report incidents of sexual violence. When women do report these crimes, the police and the official procedures often re-traumatize them, and even families of victims frequently condemn them. Thus, even when women are willing to admit that they were recruited for jobs abroad through false advertising, they are reluctant to say that they were raped or involved in prostitution, although the details often make it obvious. For example, one NGO representative reported that “a Moscow firm offered modelling work in Greece to several young girls. In reality, they stripped in a bar and possibly engaged in prostitution. They will not discuss it... Several wound up in the hospital with venereal diseases” (Fedorenko 2000).

Sex Industry:

Prostitution and trafficking are staple money-makers for pimps and organized crime groups all over the world. The size and scope of the criminal activity varies. It can range from an individual criminal controlling and pimping local women in a local venue, to several men controlling and domestically trafficking a group of women in a medium-sized locally-based prostitution ring, to large organized crime groups with international connections for trafficking women to destination countries where they also control the sex industry venues. Organizing a few pimps who each control several women, running a brothel, or collecting protection fees from smaller bars, clubs and brothels is a simple, brutal way to make money. It requires

little skill, organization, or technology and is usually a low risk, low investment, and high profit enterprise.

Trafficking exists to meet the demand for women in the sex industry. When pimps recruit enough local women, they first domestically traffic women from poorer, usually more rural regions within the same country or recruit and transport women from regions or countries where it is easier to find vulnerable women. As the size of the trafficking operation increases, the cost of “doing business”, increases also. An individual pimp or trafficker may be able to get a woman into another country on a tourist visa, but if a number of women are needed for the trafficking/prostitution operation, the organized crime group needs false documents or more complex, organized ways of transporting women (Bridger 1996:170).

Role of Marriage Agencies:

Each year many women leave Russia to find their life partner to other country. There is much cross-border travel between Norway and Russia by men and women for the purpose of marriage. Lyubov Romanovna Vertinskaya, Department of Family, Youth, and Children’s Issues, Murmansk Oblast, said that 150 women per week go to Norway to find a husband. In 1998, there were an estimated 200-250 bride agencies operating in the United States, and 80 of them offered exclusively women from Russia or Eastern Europe. The larger agencies offer thousands of women. Foreign Affair, one of the largest bride agencies in the United States, which includes women from the Russian Federation, claimed in 1998 that they had more than 15,000 customers in the first three years they were in business (Sun 1998).

The role of these agencies in the trafficking of women is unclear. According to the Global Survival Network, most of the mail order agencies have links to Russian organized crime groups. Recruiters take part in the “socials” or

parties and build databases of women who are eager to travel, work abroad, or emigrate. In many cases the men who buy the “romance tours” that are offered by these agencies seem to treat them as prostitution or sexual exploitation tours. Some of the bride introduction services appear to operate as little more than prostitution tour agencies. The men often expect to have sex with the women as part of “getting to know them” and considering them as a marriage partner. One man admitted, “We’re not here to get married”. Some of the women, naively thinking that the men were really interested in taking them home to the US or Western Europe were distressed at being treated “like pieces of meat” (Hudges 2004: 49-71).

Sexual Terror:

Sexual harassment or “sexual terror”, as it is called in Russia, was not discussed during Soviet times, but is now acknowledged as widespread. Sexual harassment is frequent on the street and in the workplace. According to one expert, the “sexual terror” experienced by women in the labour market is part of an overall social climate which is becoming increasingly sexualized, threatening, and particularly hostile to women. Women are usually expected to tolerate sexual harassment as part of their jobs, and even to provide sexual services to their bosses. Job advertisements often list one of the requirements of the job as “no hang-ups”. The high rate of battering, sexual harassment and sexual assault exposes and contributes to the lower status of women in Russia. Lack of recognition and response to this violence in the past and present creates extremely precarious conditions for women in Russia and victims of these types of violence are more vulnerable to recruitment by traffickers (Bridger 1996: 179).

Gender Discrimination:

Gender discrimination is a complex issue that has serious implications for both men and women, and boys and girls. Very often, gender discrimination

is understood as “discrimination against women”. For example, in many countries, women and girls are regarded as secondary to men and boys and are discriminated against in relation to family status, education and employment opportunities, property rights and legal protection. Girls are often denied equal opportunity for education. Unskilled and under-educated, they may also be subject to abuse within their own family and community. Some women and girls may have little choice but to leave their homes in order to escape situations of violence and abuse.

While some forms of gender discrimination are very obvious, gender discrimination can also operate in very subtle ways, with particularly serious implications in the context of trafficking. It has been noted that in many countries around the world, there may be very few real employment options for women and girls who need to earn a living. For example, in some contexts, women and girls with limited education and no savings behind them may have very few options other than seeking employment as a domestic worker (which often involves going to live in someone else’s home, a long way from their own community) or in the sex industry (which may be relatively highly paid but also potentially dangerous and/or illegal). Both options involve low status work that is largely unregulated by the government, in locations that are hidden from everyday view (Pascoe 2008). Women and girls in these situations may have few options for change, and relatively little control over their working environments. These are just some of the many structural factors that help to explain why so many trafficking cases seem to involve the abuse of women and girls in private homes and in the sex industry.

Gender discrimination is not just about “women”. Children are also affected by gender stereotypes albeit in different ways. For example, in some contexts, small boys may be unwilling to report experiences of abuse if this means they will be perceived as “weak” or having “failed” their duty to their

families to migrate and earn enough money to make regular remittances. Criminal justice officials may also ignore or trivialize trafficking in boys. Men and boys are often expected to assume financial responsibility for their families, which means they will be prepared to do work that is dirty and dangerous, if it means they can feed their family, or to get a visa to live in another country where they think their family might have a better life (Heyzer 2002: 6). All of these gender-related factors have a significant impact on access to opportunity, the willingness of individuals to accept risk, their capacity to exercise meaningful choice in difficult circumstances and willingness to seek or accept help and enter into some dirty world which they never dreamt of.

Child Vulnerability:

Around the world, many children help their families by working to earn additional income. When the child is able to realise her or his right to health, education and a family life, this does not need to be a problem. However, children can be particularly vulnerable to abuse and exploitation, particularly if they do not have appropriate care-givers, such as their parents or other relatives, to help ensure their best interests. Also, there are some forms of work that are particularly harmful to children's development and welfare. This includes work that interrupts their education, that is harmful to their health, or that involves sexual or other forms of physical abuse and/or exploitation.

Cases of parents selling their children into trafficking situations have been reported in many parts of the world. More commonly, parents have been known to hand over their children to people whom they trust for a small sum of money. The traffickers often promise that the child will be well taken care of and given a good education, perhaps in exchange for some light domestic or farm work. It is thought that children living in situations of conflict, in

orphanages or with distant relatives, without a strong network of social or family support, may be especially vulnerable to exploitation and abuse including trafficking.

Push and Pull Factors:

The existence of violence and / or sexual abuse within the family is frequently identified as a “push” factor within the supply chain, especially in relation to children and young adults. There is also some evidence that trafficking may increase in situations of internal unrest and conflict. Certainly, the risk of harm from conflict, breakdown in civil society and absence of the rule of law can all combine to make victims even more vulnerable to trafficking situations. Conflict can also lead to internal displacement and the additional vulnerabilities that come when people are not near their homes and families.

Trafficking is generally described according to the push factors that lead to the child or adult leaving one place, and the pull factors that decide the place to which the trafficking victims move or are moved. Push factors typically include poverty, family break-up, violence or other dysfunction, lack of job opportunities, low education levels or the wrong skills for the jobs that are available, family pressures or a sense of responsibility to provide for the family, discrimination or marginalization including the very fact of being female. Sometimes a compelling push factor is simply the perception that life is better somewhere else, a perception often supported by the mass marketing and consumerism that has crept into even remote rural areas through increasing globalization of communications technology and advertising (CSEC World Congress).

Pull factors might include economic differentials that make even relatively poor neighbouring cities, regions or countries seem a likely source of livelihood, unmet demand for cheap and malleable labour, demand for

sexual services for example linked to tourism development or shifts in the supply of local women in the sex sector (for example, as a result of high HIV/AIDS prevalence). Trafficked children are often separated from their families, isolated in towns or countries unknown to them, further isolated if they are not able to speak the language of the community in which they end up, put into illegal and thus risky and frightening situations, incarcerated, badly fed, denied access to health and other services and, in many instances, exploited by means of coercion, violence or abuse of authority. Those children who are not trafficked directly into commercial sex may nevertheless transit into commercial sex either through persuasion, fear or threats (CSEC World Congress).

Statelessness:

Statelessness or lack of citizenship may prevent children and adults from accessing state services and benefits such as education, healthcare and employment services and hinder their freedom of movement and access to legitimate labour markets within and across borders. These are all factors which increase a person's vulnerability to exploitation and trafficking. Lack of access to a birth certificate or some form of legal identity may also prevent trafficked persons from receiving the protection and support they need and complicate repatriation. It also makes it more difficult to establish whether or not the victim is a child.

These were some of the main factors which are deeply rooted with the trafficking of women and children since the fall of Soviet Union. As every coin has two faces, these causes gave rise to different impacts on the victims who are exploited within or outside the country, which will be explained in next chapter.

Chapter III

Impact of Trafficking on Russian Women and Child Victims

Trafficking is a multi stage process and on every stage of it victim's human rights are violated. They are tricked, sold, resold, exchanged, given instead of debt, forced into the most inhuman conditions. In many cases victims sell their assets to pay traffickers for their recruitment. Treated as commodities, victims are extremely vulnerable to physical and mental abuse and many diseases, including STD and HIV/AIDS. Individual traffickers and criminal chains reject all the human rights of victims and the "states violate the human rights of victims by not enacting / or enforcing those laws. Many governments re victimize the victim" (Reference Guide for Anti-Trafficking Legislative Review OSCE/ODIHR 2001). Sometimes governments see it as less important crime or do not want to see it at all and address it only under pressure of international community or in some cases civic society.

Russian women and children are known to have been trafficked to 40-50 countries around the world, including most European countries, North America, and parts of Asia and the Middle East. Trafficking also occurs within Russia. According to statistics from the Russian Federation's Ministry of Internal Affairs, the sex trade industry currently employs 150,000 women. Large Russian cities, as in Europe and other regions of the world, show a constant demand for commercial sex workers. German Salamov, a member of the Russian Research and Advisory Centre for AIDS Control and Prevention, reports that 64 percent of the male population uses sex workers on a more or less regular basis. Not only is this but coercion of children into prostitution frequently linked with child trafficking. Some experts believe that the numbers of minors involved in sex work are much

higher, estimating that in Moscow alone approximately 20-25% of the 100,000 engaged in sex work are minors. With regard to this it has been noted that every year tourists travel to Russia specifically for sex “entertainment” with children which doubles their demand. (One NGO conducting an outreach programme for sex workers estimates the percentage of minors among sex workers to be between 10 and 30 percent) (Mehdiyev, 2009).

Sexual abuse of children can take several forms – from their use in pornographic materials for sale, to their use in other countries and Russia itself as prostitutes. Lured by fake promises in fashion magazines, some schoolgirls rate prostitution high on the list of modern “professions” to pursue. They believe that prostitution and contact with rich businessmen will provide them with the kind of lifestyle that they could never expect otherwise (Mehdiyev, 2009).

St. Petersburg and the northwest region of Russia report a high incidence of sex tourism, which is widely advertised on the Internet and aimed at people from neighbouring Scandinavian countries. Prostitution is the most common form of child exploitation in the region. Frequent recruiting targets are street children or children from dysfunctional families. Once they're entrapped, they may end up in brothels and red-light districts as they get older. Recruiters prey on these children's situations, deceiving them into a life of dependency (Mehdiyev, 2009).

Despite myriad prohibitions against trafficking, worldwide networks marketing Russian women (and children) for prostitution continue to flourish. Trafficking in women from throughout previously Soviet Union and currently Russian Federation has exploded since 1989. Russia's growing sex trade has brought with it many detrimental social and environmental effects in terms of physical and emotional abuse. There are now high

incidences of HIV/AIDS, sexually transmitted diseases, and unwanted pregnancies among trafficked Russian women. It is observed that trafficked women and children are not in a condition to ensure safe sex, have limited access to medical services for health checkups and follow ups and medical care (Osipova 2009).

According to the CATW, 90 percent of women arrested for prostitution or drug-related crimes in the Kaliningrad region of Russia are infected with HIV. It is very evident that trafficking has pernicious effect on the health of those people who become victims of human trafficking (Report of Angelcoalition 2006).

Absence of Social Safety Networks

Due to illegal nature of trafficking majority of victims are forced to work in severe conditions with extremely high scope of trauma without any means of protection, insurance or other social safety nets. Lack of any social protection is particularly true for trafficked women and children. The risk to victim's health and life cannot even be assessed (Tiurukanova 2006: 53). Identification of trafficking victims occurs not frequently in Russia. Physically, health complaints are often be chronic because treatment is rarely sought. Conditions include HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted infections. Infections or disfigurement caused by unsanitary and dangerous medical procedures, such as abortions performed by unqualified personnel. Bruises, scars and other signs of physical abuse and torture are evident, frequently being in areas that are not visible in their outward appearance, such as on the lower back. Display of psychological trauma like feelings of helplessness, shame, humiliation, shock, denial or disbelief is very often found. Individuals trafficked for the purpose of labour exploitation in particular, might suffer from Chronic backache, hearing, cardiovascular or

respiratory problems, weak eyes and other eye problems from working in dimly lit sweatshops (Tiurukanova 2006).

Violation of Right to Health

Noticeably trafficking violates basic health rights such as the right to health care; the right to receive information concerning the impact on human health of varying activities or products; and the right to timely medical and disease-prevention assistance. Trafficking victims run a higher risk of acute medical conditions or infection due to inadequate sanitary conditions or unsafe practices (e.g. unprotected sex), and exposure to drugs or substances, sometimes given against their will.

Use of force and threat of violence against the victims result in both physical and psychological trauma which have long-term impact on health of individuals. Researches also indicate that the victims have cases of clinical depression, post traumatic conditions and depression requiring hospitalisation. In fact sexual violence is also being inflicted on pregnant women that at times leads to problematic pregnancies, miscarriage, haemorrhage and in certain cases suicides (WHO Report 2002).

Especially with regard to trafficked children in prostitution, it leads to irreparable damage to their physical and psychological development. The trafficked children do not get an opportunity to develop human skills which facilitate healthy behaviours, responsible attitudes to their own lives, and aversion to risky behaviour. Therefore it is to be highlighted that trafficking for sexual exploitation, the risk to women's reproductive and general health is particularly great. It usually stems from early motherhood which generally affects future reproductive ability. This detrimental impact on health can be passed on subsequent generations and it means negative impact is long term. (WHO Report 2002)

Trafficking and HIV/AIDS

HIV/AIDS and trafficking are mutually correlated. But analysis of the interrelationships between human trafficking and HIV is difficult due to limited and unreliable statistics available. It is to be noted that Sharp increases in the HIV incidence rate were also registered in 1997 and 1999. The majority of those infected with HIV are young people under 30 years, with the epidemic moving beyond concentration within specific risk groups to a more rapid spreading among the general public (Seltsovsky et al 2004).

Inadequate awareness of HIV/AIDS and the prevalence of risky behaviour among the general public, especially young people are highlighted by Open Health Institute experts as key factors for the high risk of further spread of HIV among the general public. While in Russia official statistics currently suggest that the number of HIV-positive women is much lower than men, the number of HIV-positive women is growing fast, with women comprising 43.3% of new infections in 2005. Women's vulnerability to HIV-infection is increased through many gynaecological infections (Nedzelsky 2007) as well as by unequal power relations between genders, in which women are not always in control of their sexual behaviour. HIV-positive women are subject to more severe discrimination and public hostility and are routinely stigmatised as "fallen women" and "spreaders of infection," being blamed for the communication of HIV among heterosexuals (Nedzelsky 2007). This problem is particularly acute for women engaged in sex work. Women's fear of becoming outcasts forces them to hide the fact of their infection, which increases the latency of the problem and ultimately accelerates the spread of the epidemic.

Drug abuse among sex workers, up to 90%, makes commercial sex work a high risk group for potential HIV infection. In light of the growing HIV epidemic, another hazardous trend has been the growing demand for child

sex services, as children are considered to be safer sexual partners. The danger of child sex trafficking has therefore grown (Mokhova 2002).

Women, trafficked for sexual exploitation, are exposed to a much greater risk of HIV infection, as they have no powers to govern their sexual behaviour. General disinterest in the women's health by those who control them (usually the trafficking networks) also further exposes these women to high risk of HIV infection. Its root lies in the fact that unsafe sex is more expensive, so traders may force women to provide services under such conditions, or the women themselves may agree to risk their health for the sake of the money. Cases exist of women in the sex industry who have been forced to provide sexual services following abortions which were conducted on the same day (Mokhova 2002).

For the same reasons, women recruited for sex work are unlikely to be offered an HIV test or to have a test while they are working in the sex industry. This is particularly true for victims of sex trafficking within Russia. It can also be added that risk of HIV infection is much greater for so-called mobile sex workers, especially for sex trafficking victims, rather than for sex workers living in their home countries. Especially the other dimension is that it also leads to transmission of HIV/AIDS to other countries where the victims are forced to live and trade sex for traffickers (ILO Report 2002)

Increasing Sex Tourism and Pornography

It can be estimated that 70 per cent of prostitutes in Russia enter prostitution at the age of 14-15 and that encouragement of minor girls from rural areas or provincial towns and of young girls with learning difficulties into the sex industry is a growing trend. Trafficked children are used for prostitution, pornography and other kinds of sexual exploitation. These children are lured

or abducted into sexual slavery by trafficker and have to undergo the abuse including: rape, beating, displacement, exposure to HIV/AIDS and a life with no future.

The omissions in Russian legislation in offering children legal protection against sexual exploitation and, over the last few years, the more severe punishments being handed out in Europe and the United States in relation to crimes involving the sexual exploitation of minors have given rise to a new type of crime in Russia, "child sex tourism". Under these crimes, tourists travel to Russia specifically for sex "entertainment" with children. Until 2001, the Russian Criminal Code did not have any specific provision on child pornography and child sex tourism (Tiurukanova 2006: 52). Therefore due to lack of any legislative acts and in presence of vast trafficking networks, Russia emerged as a favourite spot for sex tourism and child prostitution. With every passing year the market for child pornography based on the trafficked children continued to thrive and make increasing profits.

Pornography is also blooming on the internet. US expert, Donna Hughes, estimates that approximately 40 percent of users visit porn sites with almost 25 percent of them being users of child pornography (Hughes 1998). Some experts have calculated that more than half of the child pornography on subscription-only sites on the global internet is produced in Russia, with revenues from this business amounting to tens of thousands of US dollars every month. Owners of the most famous sites claim their profit amounts to be between 500 and 1000 percent (Gurdin 2002: 24). A characteristic of Russian child pornography is its cruelty in relation to child "models," including scenes of torture and killing (ECPAT International Final Report 2003: 25). In fact there are pornographic sales of porn films with 8 or even 6 year old children participating. In this series Moscow is also becoming a

destination site for child sex tourists (T'syrkun 2004). Experts estimate that the total number of children involved in pornography production in Russia to be tens of thousands.

Impact on Children:

Some of the impact on trafficked children is psychological abuse, trauma, fear of being unsafe or unprotected, lack of trust in other people, and resentment towards other. Right to freedom, education, and right not to be subjected to torture are snatched away from the children. A usual and universal phenomenon is seen that as soon as children are trafficked, their education comes to a halt as the education of victim is not on the priority list of trafficker but extracting money out of flesh trade is their priority.

Impact on physical and mental development is also disastrous. Child prostitutes, as discussed previously, have a retarded physical and mental development as they do not get the security of supportive family and friends. Instead, they have to work for days and nights and live in extremely shabby and inhuman conditions where they are not allowed to interact with one another. In some instances it has been observed that many young trafficked girls are financially supporting their families more than what they could do before. But such instances of clear transactions are quite rare where the earning capacities of women have increased (Tiurukanova 2006: 53).

Legal Consequences of Trafficking

Women who are victims of trafficking may also face legal consequences. Frequently, when victims of trafficking come to the attention of local authorities, they are detained or deported for immigration violations or for violating other local laws. As a result, many victims fear going to the authorities to report abuse. Trafficking victims often do not want to risk being returned to their home country, where they may face continued

economic hardship as well as social stigmatization. Victims may also fear retaliation by the traffickers, either against themselves or their families. Traffickers will frequently use threats of retaliation to control women who have been trafficked (Tiurukanova 2006: 89).

This situation not only represents a serious danger for the victim but also impedes the ability of law enforcement to address the problem. Victims who are deported are unable to cooperate in the prosecution of the criminals involved in the trafficking. Both the European Union and national governments have recognized the need to grant victims of trafficking special protection because of their crucial role in the investigation and prosecution of trafficking cases.

To address some of these concerns, many countries in Europe including Russia are making temporary visas available to the trafficking victims if they are willing to testify against the traffickers. Even if they are willing to testify, the women are often sent back after the trial has ended. Some countries, however, are creating procedures and regulations that would allow women to apply for permanent residency based on their status as trafficking victims.

Changes in Value System along with Changes in Economic System

Changes in values and beliefs in community of origin have been stressed upon and needs to be focussed as a major impact of trafficking on Russian Society. Impact is that as the dependent population of children gets involved in the trafficking networks (which otherwise would have soon become earning population) there is shortage of labour as per future requirements and noticeable slackening of working population and human resource available in nearby future. This population due to unavailability of better skills and training remains a low skilled population that cannot contribute

much to the nation and they rather contribute to the shadow economy. While the overall size of the informal or “shadow” economy is estimated to comprise 22-40% of Russia’s GDP, sectors exist where the shadow economy accounts for 60-80% of the sectors. This shadow economy thrives on the low cost of unprotected sections, comprising mostly of migrant and most marginalised sections of society (Hughes 2000).

Agents in this sector maintain highly informal and criminalized relation and demand as per supply is met through criminal relations. Based on requirement women are employed in the most informal sectors which are most vulnerable to uncontrolled exploitation, such as the leisure and entertainment industries, the sex industry, and social and domestic services. The shadow economy creates its own economical and social sphere equipped with the entire necessary infrastructure: communication, information, and other services. This infrastructure includes hidden flows of money and illegal mechanisms for obtaining required resources. In short the exploitation of women under this shadow economy continues for a long time period (Hughes 2000).

Not only the families of trafficked victims that have turned up all economic resources available for child are at times forced to run from one end to another and are further forced to resort to other means of bribing officials for their active search and eventually as most of the households are from lower income groups they lose massive portion of their income and eventually in certain cases get involved in same rap of trafficking (Hughes 2000).

Also Trafficking deprives child victims the privilege to exercise their wide range of rights, including the right to belong/identity, the right freedom, education, healthcare, to rest and leisure as well as the right not to be subjected to torture, or cruel and inhuman degrading treatment. When children are first recruited to be trafficked, they may leave home peacefully

or by deception or violence, as well as abduction and application of drugs to secure children's obedience (Hughes 2000).

This exploitative economic system brings a direct effect on the value systems of the individual and community at large. Change in perception, values and beliefs at individual and community level become quite common and society witnesses a rapid change in systems. In fact trafficking to other regions further forces women and children to adjust to social systems and adapt to language and culture that are not even their own (as per noted in victims that are being trafficked to Norway, Sweden, UAE, Japan) and usually at times in case of inability to adjust they develop psychological adjustment related problems and conceptual clarity of right and wrong is lost. Similarly after going back to home the same victim and trafficker somewhere promotes the given lifestyle (with only positive images) to the community and the community slowly starts to accept it and families at large get involved in the selling of their own women and children (Hughes 2000).

Following are the few examples to understand the ways and consequences of trafficking in women and children in Russia:

A 19-year old woman named Lena from the Russian Far East who wanted to travel and earn money is one of the victims. She responded to a newspaper advertisement for a work and study program in China, as did several other Russian women. A month after their arrival in Jukhai, China, she started working in restaurants to support her studies. Meanwhile her passport was confiscated like others. They were told they would have to pay US\$15,000 each for the return of their passports. One woman from the group was sold to another criminal group and transported to Macau to work as a prostitute. Throughout their ordeal, Lena and the other women were subjected to beatings, imprisonment, and hunger. They had no money, and no way out. The women were eventually forced to work as entertainers in local

restaurants, hotels and night clubs. Fortunately, Lena and her friends did manage to escape from their Chinese bosses, but they received little help from Russian consulates and Chinese officials when they appealed for assistance to return home to Russia. Lena and the other women were again forced to work as prostitutes for an additional three months before making enough money to leave China (Caldwell 1997).

Another girl was Svetlana from Russia who came to Turkey via Ukraine with her friend who promised her a glorious job. Next day a man came in a car, forcefully took her to an isolated place, and tried to rape her. When she cried and sought for help, she was beaten very brutally and the man told her that he paid 3000 Euros. He was Turkish, but spoke Romanian. He told her that if she didn't want to work for him as a prostitute then he would just sell her to another place. He also told her that he can't send her home. When she went back to flat, her friend who brought her there was gone. She never saw her again. She was 18. The clients would cut her with knives. They used drugs. After a month and a half, she was able to pay off the 3,000 euros, but then they sold her to another guy, saying that her debt was now 4,000 euros. This time she was sold to an Azerbaijani woman. She was locked up. She had to be with 15 men a day, sometimes even 20. They would beat her until she fainted, then throw water on her and tell her it was time to work. There was nothing she could do. They had guards watching her at all times. It was impossible to leave (Ursu 2008).

In 2002, a 16 year old girl was kidnapped from her home town in the former Soviet Union. She had met a young who gave her alcohol. The drink contained soporific (a sleeping drug) which made her unconscious. When she woke up, she did not remember what had happened and found herself in St. Petersburg. There she was driven to an apartment where she was forced to have sex with a number of men and also filmed for pornographic movies.

After she was trusted by the traffickers and was allowed to go outside, she escaped and was detained by the police. The brothel operators were arrested for running the prostitution business, but not charged for kidnapping, as there was no proof. The victim was eventually sent back to her home town (ECPAT Europe Law Enforcement Group Case Study Report 2004).

A 16 year old girl trafficked from Azerbaijan to Moscow by a pimp who supplied her with false documents. She was beaten, raped and forced into prostitution. When she was allowed to call home, ashamed, she informed her family that she had got a job as a cook. When she could no longer stand the humiliation and abuse, she stabbed her owner several times with a knife and was consequently sent to jail. During her detention, friends of the pimp visited her and threatened that if she provided any evidence of their operation, they would harm her sister (ECPAT Europe Law Enforcement Group Case Study Report 2004).

The impact of women and child trafficking shows the need of a very effective and sustainable legislation, which is still a prime concern in the Russian Federation. Further to this, we will see the role of Russian Government, NGOs and international community while addressing this issue.

Chapter IV

Combating Trafficking in Women and Children: Response of Russian Government and Civil Society

The exploitation of women and children is a long standing problem acknowledged to cause misery, hardship and degradation. The global community has committed itself in numerous international legal documents to guarantee respect for human dignity and to take steps to prohibit trafficking in person. Despite these steps the phenomenon persists. Trafficking of women and children for exploitation purposes continues to be a serious global problem, including Russia. In order to stop exploitation of persons, in particularly women and children, through human trafficking, many governmental policies, legislations and efforts has been taken. Simultaneously NGOs and international agencies have been working on many developmental programmes in Russia. In the development of all anti-trafficking programmes a key requirement must be that such programmes strive towards becoming coordinated, consistent and systematic to achieve sustainable effects (OSCE Report 2007).

To combat the diverse forms of global human trafficking, 5 U.S. departments, USAID, and at least 15 international organizations have provided assistance to governments and civil society organizations in more than 100 countries including Russia. Assistance generally aimed to enhance efforts to:

1. Prevent human trafficking through public awareness, outreach, education, and advocacy campaigns;
2. Protect and assist victims by providing shelters as well as health, psychological, legal, and vocational services; and

3. Investigate and prosecute human trafficking crimes by providing training and technical assistance for law enforcement officials, such as police, prosecutors, and judges.

These categories of interrelated victim-centred assistance activities – prevention, protection, and prosecution are commonly referred to as “the three Ps.” Each type of assistance is viewed as critical for reducing the incidence of human trafficking (United States Government Accountability Office Report 2007: 11).

Prevention is a major effort to combat trafficking in women and children which can take place in various ways. Further, we will examine some of the same preventive ideas to fight trafficking. Historically, efforts focused on public awareness campaigns that inform and educate communities in source and destination countries about trafficking in women and children, so that they can identify victims or specifically warn migrants and other vulnerable populations.

Today, prevention encapsulate cross-cutting endeavours that include: rectifying laws that omit classes of workers from labour law protection; providing robust labour enforcement, particularly in key sectors where trafficking is most typically found; implementing measures that address significant vulnerabilities such as birth registrations and identification; carefully constructing labour recruitment programs that ensure protection of workers from exploitation; strengthening partnerships between law enforcement, government, and nongovernmental organizations to collaborate, coordinate, and communicate more effectively; emphasizing effective policy implementation with stronger enforcement, better reporting, and government-endorsed business standards; and tackling this global crime at its root causes by monitoring product supply chains and reducing demand for commercial sex.

The state seeks to implement promising practices in prevention by partnering with and funding the efforts of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) around the world.

The effort to prevent human trafficking is closely intertwined with protection and prosecution measures. Effective law enforcement and protection practices are essential to ensuring stronger prevention policies, which can deter the occurrence of trafficking in women and children (US State Department Report on Human Trafficking 2009)

Protection is a key to the victim-centred approach pursued by the international community in efforts to combat modern slavery. Key victim protection efforts include the “three Rs” -rescue, rehabilitation, and reintegration.

Prioritizing the rights and needs of victims provides a roadmap that goes beyond the initial rescue, restores survivor’s dignity, and provides an opportunity for productive lives. The International Programs section works to build the capacity of governments and NGOs to enhance victim protection in scores of countries worldwide. Victim identification measures are integral in implementing the victim-centred approach. Proactively identifying victims and training first responders are of paramount importance to a country’s ability to tackle this grave human rights abuse. Under the TVPA (Trafficking Victims Protection Act), governments have a responsibility to enable identified trafficking victims to remain in the country, work, and obtain services without fear of detention or deportation for lack of legal status or crimes that the trafficker made them commit (US State Department Report on Human Trafficking 2009).

In addition, governments should not subject victims to impediments to obtaining proof of citizenship or to immigration relief. Safeguards should be

put in place to ensure the protection of survivors, as well as their family members who may be in harm's way (US State Department Report on Human Trafficking 2009).

Protecting victims translates into effective partnerships between law enforcement and service providers, not only immediately after rescue but also as they work together to facilitate participation in criminal justice and civil proceedings.

Rehabilitation efforts help provide emergency assistance and services; effective placement in stable, long-term situations; and access to educational, vocational and economic opportunities for survivors of modern slavery. Reintegration efforts include voluntary repatriation for trafficking victims and assistance in their home communities (US State Department Report on Human Trafficking 2009).

Prosecution of traffickers is the third element of the “3 Ps” paradigm by which the world pursues this shadowy crime. In order to combat the globalization of this criminal behaviour, international policies and practices that encourage civil participation and cooperation with trafficking victims in the prosecution of traffickers have to be developed. Human trafficking laws must provide serious penalties against traffickers, including provisions for the confiscation of property and compensation for victims. At the same time, training is needed to ensure that an insensitive investigation and prosecution process does not further traumatize trafficking victims (US State Department Report on Human Trafficking 2009).

Technical cooperation among countries and international law enforcement agencies is essential for investigating the extent and forms of trafficking and documenting activities of international criminal organizations. Special

training is needed to develop the skills of local law enforcement agencies in the area of investigation and prosecution.

Source, transit, and destination countries should provide support mechanisms for trafficking victims involved in judicial activities. These would include extended witness protection services and opportunities to institute criminal and civil proceedings against traffickers. Destination countries should have a system of social support for victims and consider residency permission on humanitarian grounds for trafficking victims who cannot return home and/or cooperate with prosecutors (Human Trafficking.org 2008).

It is also important that the police, prosecutors, and courts ensure that their efforts to punish traffickers are implemented within a system that is quick and respects and safeguards the rights of the victims to privacy, dignity and safety (Human Trafficking.org 2008).

Key Participants in the System of Combating Human Trafficking:

Development of a comprehensive and systematic anti-trafficking response requires the active involvement and interest of all agencies, both governmental and within civil society, whose activities are relevant to addressing trafficking issues in one way or another. International agencies are playing a very crucial role in combating human trafficking.

State Social Welfare Services:

It is a major contributor to the system in combating human trafficking. Their main task is to prevent situations which make an individual vulnerable. These agencies include the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Health and Social Development and their affiliated departments and services, including: employment services, child welfare agencies, social protection

agencies, authorities in charge of implementing youth policy, family and childhood centres, providing assistance to victims of domestic violence, and educational institutions. International human trafficking initiatives are spread to Russia via the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Russia officially assumed obligations before the international community in relation to combating human trafficking. Russian Federation Government's domestic political activity against human trafficking started advocacy from the international community for Russia to adopt domestic legislation in line with international anti trafficking standards. Active steps by the Russian Federation Ministry of Foreign Affairs was focused on collection of information on the problem from Russian consulates abroad; and Russia's position regarding anti-trafficking activities was developed and presented in the international community (Korunova 2000).

Russian and International NGOs:

Numerous NGOs exist today throughout Russia's regions that provide substantial assistance to human trafficking victims; these NGOs have varying work profiles, from specialising in combating human trafficking to having a broader profile where they provide assistance to victims of different forms of violence. They have played a critical role in providing crisis response assistance, including psychological support, to victims of violence. According to the First All-Russian Assembly of NGOs working in the field of anti-trafficking, there are approximately 100 such NGOs in Russia today. The majority of funding for these NGOs comes from international donors (Tiurukanova 2006).

NGOs frequently have the expertise effective application of human rights and victim-centred approaches requires close collaboration with civil society members needed by law enforcement authorities and governmental agencies for effective victim-centred responses, underscoring the importance of

cooperation of law enforcement authorities with NGOs. Currently, cooperation with NGOs largely depends on the “good will” of the investigator or senior investigating officer. There is a need to institutionalise the role of NGOs and other civil society members in providing victim assistance throughout an investigatory process. In addition to a regulatory document, making these functions part of the investigator’s official duties, a list of addresses of relevant governmental agencies, non-government and international organisations is essential. Law enforcement authorities could use this list as reference for contacting during the investigation and for directing a trafficking victim for counselling or assistance (Tiurukanova 2006: 96).

The type of assistance provided to both potential risk groups and victims of human trafficking varies among these organisations. As a rule, types of assistance include components such as counselling, psychological support and rehabilitation, and legal assistance. More “in-depth” types of assistance and rehabilitation (e.g. shelters or institutional care) can be provided by NGOs only with state financial and institutional support. This condition is also true of social support provided to victims regarding post-rehabilitation, i.e. assistance in finding employment, social adaptation, and professional training and development. This type of assistance involves Interviews at the Social Rehabilitation Centres (Tiurukanova 2006: 96).

State social services are major contributors to the system of providing protection and assistance to human trafficking victims. Long-term work requiring qualified specialists and financial expenditure, which to-date Russian NGOs are unable to provide. The reasons for NGOs’ inability to conduct such services include:

1. Lack of state support, including financing;

2. Existing finance conditions from, and financial policy of, donors, which discourage the implementation of long-term programmes; and
3. Lack of NGO staff's experience in these areas.

Special programmes for preventing human trafficking victims from returning to risky situations are also important because, in the opinion of many experts, those who have been abused once become particularly vulnerable to a repetition of abuse. Apart from lack of resources, a particular problem for NGOs is the lack of close relations with state authorities.

Law enforcement authorities' reluctance to cooperate with NGOs can be explained as follows:

- Underestimation regarding the seriousness of human trafficking problems;
- Lack of understanding of NGOs' roles in identifying human trafficking offences and dealing with human trafficking victims;
- Traditional mutual distrust between NGOs and state authorities, in particular, law enforcement authorities;
- Reluctance to make work more transparent and visible to civil society;
- Corruption among law enforcement authorities.

Although the enactment of legislation has increased state authorities' attention to human trafficking issues both at the federal and local levels, attitudes toward victims still need improvement. Victims, who are mostly people on the fringes of society, are still characterised to some extent as law breakers. Cooperation with NGOs could improve the situation; however, effective cooperation requires reinforcement for collaboration formulated on an institutional basis, through a mechanism such as legislation. NGOs'

involvement in work with human trafficking victims should not rely on the “good will” of law enforcement authorities (Mehnikova 2005: 38-43).

International organisations contribute greatly to the provision of assistance to human trafficking victims. In Russia, IOM’s programme provides support in voluntary return and reintegration of human trafficking victims. Between March 1999 and December 2004, IOM assisted 3,892 victims of trafficking, 64 of whom were Russians (1.6 percent). In Russia, the IOM programme has four main blocks of activity:

- Organising repatriation;
- Organising reception of a victim by his/her country of residence; specialised centres and shelters need to be organised to meet human trafficking victim’s specific needs.
- Reintegration and assistance (e.g. counselling, medical and psychological assistance, and organisation of shelters); and
- Monitoring.

Apart from IOM, which provides direct services for human trafficking victims, there is a variety of other international organisations involved in this work, as sponsors of anti-trafficking projects run by Russian NGOs. However, for the reasons mentioned above, most financing goes on short-term trafficking prevention programmes (e.g. awareness-building campaigns, publication of materials, organisation of conferences and seminars, training sessions, etc.). Real assistance and close support to human trafficking victims cannot be achieved within the confines of such short-term programmes, targeted at producing an immediate effect. Some NGOs carry out specific projects to assist victims, other than providing psychological support through telephone hotlines. The Angel Coalition project, which set

up shelters in Saint-Petersburg, Murmansk, Petrozavodsk and Kazan, deserves particular note (Tiurukanova 2006).

A group of NGOs have also assisted in repatriation and reintegration of human trafficking victims under the USAID/IREX programme, "Stop Trafficking in Women". This group includes women's crisis centres in Stavropol, Smolensk, Moscow, Krasnodar, Bryansk, and Altai. The Nizhny Tagil NGO, Women's Crisis Centre "Lana," has provided psychological support and other assistance to parents of young women and girls trafficked abroad for sexual exploitation. However, such programmes are still far too few (Tiurukanova 2006).

Russian Federation Legislations against Trafficking:

The first MIA report on the events of 2000-2002 related to anti-trafficking legislative activity against human trafficking begun with the drawing up of a draft law "On combating Human Trafficking" Article 127.1 of the Russian Federation Criminal Code, resulting in criminalisation of human trafficking; Article 127.2 of the Russian Federation Criminal Code, resulting in criminalisation of the use of slave labour

First Conference in the Russian Federation on the problems on Human Trafficking was publicly addressed in 1997 concluding a project by non-profit-organisation, Global Survival Network (USA), and the substantial efforts have been taken by both government agencies and civil society. In 2000, Russia signed the UN Convention against Transnational Organised Crime and its supplementary Protocol on trafficking in Persons, with ratification in March 2004. During this period Russia also legally defined trafficking of human beings within its criminal court. Forums such as government interagency and anti trafficking conferences like the All Russian Assembly of Anti Trafficking NGOs have fostered dialogue among decision

makers and the establishment of strategies to better combat trafficking in human beings.

Russian Federation legislation against human trafficking is made up of the ratification by Russia of relevant international documents; regional statutes, such as within a CIS framework; and Russian federal regulations. The draft federal law "On Combating Human Trafficking," which is being reviewed also would provide substantial direction for human trafficking responses. Given that Russia adopted human trafficking legislation only in recent years, there has not been a sufficient amount of judicial practice for a substantive analysis. Trafficking in human beings has long been recognized throughout the world as a form of slavery. It has also been condemned as one of the most fundamental of all human rights abuses.

Although victims of trafficking are, in fact, protected under numerous international articles and conventions, the unfortunate fact remains that both national and international enforcement mechanisms are weak. Many countries themselves do not have specific laws on trafficking in human beings, let alone on trafficking in women. Moreover, the countries that do have specific laws do not always convict traffickers for their crimes, mainly due to the difficulties of compiling sufficient evidence and testimony.

Russia's new Criminal Code does contain several articles that directly relate to human trafficking: Article 132, "Violent Actions of a Sexual Nature;" 133, "Coercive Actions of a Sexual Nature;" and 240, "Enticing Persons into Prostitution". From the few prosecutions initiated in 2004-05 under article 127.1, only a handful reached the courts with the same. However, as is the case throughout many parts of the world, it is the enforcement of Russia's Criminal Code that is lacking.

The situation concerning the trafficking of children is worthy of particular consideration. Russia's former criminal code article 152 (trafficking in minors), repealed after the enactment of article 127.1, was not only "easier" for investigation and prosecution (as under article 152, there was no evidence requirement to prove existence of "exploitation"), but also for court's proceedings and sentencing. Experts believe that since the repeal of this article, the number of convictions of "trafficking in apparent minors" (article 127.1, paragraph 2, point. b) has fallen sharply.

International Legal Mechanisms for Combating Human Trafficking:

There is no doubt that governments throughout the world (in both recipient and sender countries) have a moral and legal responsibility, both to pass meaningful legislation that protects victims of trafficking, as well as to fight against corruption and complicity at the national and local levels of government and law enforcement. It is also the responsibility of the individual countries' immigration services to initiate more control and protection over the number of illegal immigrants and migrants. However, as many domestic and international organizations maintain, an international coordination of actions is necessary in promoting the rights and protection of migrant workers and to effectively combat trafficking. This would include definitive actions by national/local governments and immigration officials, as well as by multilateral organizations such as the World Trade Organization (WTO), International Labour Organization (ILO), International Organization for Migration (IOM), United Nations (UN), and other like institutions that possess the means to make substantial changes.

Currently there is not a lack of international legal mechanisms in place that prohibit slavery and the slave trade, and this includes the trafficking in women and children. Following are some of the international legal instruments:

1. The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
2. The Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and of the Exploitations of the Prostitution of Others
3. The Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women
4. The Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women
5. International Labour Organization (ILO) Conventions
6. The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
7. UN Charter-based Mechanisms
8. Slavery Convention and the Supplementary Convention on the Abolition of Slavery, the Slave Trade and Institutions and Practices Similar to Slavery

However, the circumvention or complete disregard for these legal mechanisms is a problem throughout the whole of the global sex trade, not just in Russia. Adherence is necessary in order to bring about positive changes that, ultimately, could eradicate such an atrocious activity as trafficking in women, or at least offer more solid protection for the victims.

In addition to international legal mechanisms, several countries are currently adopting new or amending existing national laws in order to strengthen sanctions against traffickers.

Human Trafficking Conventions Applicable in the Russian Federation:

Following are the conventions applicable in the Russian Federation to fight against trafficking in person (Tiurukanova 2006; Lukyanova 2006):

- 1949 UN Convention for the Suppression of Traffic Persons and of Exploitation of Prostitution of Others
- 1926 Slavery Convention, with 1953 amendments

- 1956 UN Supplementary Convention on the Abolition of Slavery, the Slave Trade and Institutions and Practices Similar to Slavery;
- 1989 UN Convention on the Rights of the Child;
- 2000 UN Convention against Transnational Organised Crime and its supplementing protocols- i.e. Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children; and Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Air and Sea
- 1959 ILO Convention №105 Concerning the Abolition of Forced
- CIS Convention on Human Rights and Basic Freedoms
- Agreement of CIS Countries on combating Transnational Organised Crime
- Agreement of CIS countries on combating Illegal Migration
- The RF Constitution
- The RF Criminal Code
- The Federal Law on state protection of victims, witnesses and other participants in criminal court proceedings.
- The RF Labour Code Russian Federation legislation against human trafficking comprises of relevant international documents, regional statutes and Russian federal Regulations (Lukyanova 2006).

Calendar of Main Events related to Anti-Trafficking in the Russian Federation:

Year	Events
1997	First conference in the Russian Federation on the problem of human trafficking, concluding a project by the not-for-profit organisation, Global Survival Network (USA), and the presentation of a report
1999	Russia participated in the OSCE's Istanbul summit and the Vienna session of the OSCE's Council of Foreign Ministers on combating human trafficking
2000	The signing by Russia of the Convention against Transnational Organised Crime and supplementary Protocols
2000- 2001	The adoption of anti-trafficking legislation in the USA (2000). The publication of annual reports (since 2001) on the human trafficking situation globally
20 April 2001	Session of the Russian Federation Government's Commission on the Situation of Women relating to the question of the trafficking of women (introduced into the Commission's agenda by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs).
Autumn 2001	Reports by ministries (MFA, MIA, MLSD, etc.) on the implementation of the Commission's resolutions
October 2001	Conference of the FRG Foreign Ministry and the OSCE's ODIHR "Europe against Human Trafficking" (promulgating the position of the RF MFA)
December 2001	OSCE Council of Foreign Ministers (Bucharest)

Chapter V

Conclusion

Through this research study we have broadly seen different aspects of Trafficking of Women and Children in the Russian Federation during the period of 1991-2001. Russian culture and life are uniquely fascinating. But today such magnificence, potential and wonder had been so dramatically overlapped to such tremendous terror - the terror of human trafficking. Today it is a global phenomenon which continues to receive increasing attention from International community. It is a steadily gaining legitimacy as a cause for which each country is struggling to fight. Trafficking of individuals affects some regions more predominantly than other depending on the economic and social infrastructure of the troubled area. Russia is one of those states of former Soviet Union, who has suffered its share of economic-political and social hardship since the collapse of communism and witnessed a subsequent rise in organised crime. In Russia organised crime and trafficking of women and children have a deeply involved connection, a darker world that has repeatedly proven to be highly dangerous, equally lucrative and almost impossible to infiltrate.

Trafficking is not only a matter of crime but it is an issue of human rights. Victims are exploited forcefully to utilize their services for different purposes like for sexual work, labour jobs like to work in factories, restaurants, farms etc. Else they are often sold to remove their organs. There are many forms of sexual exploitation; prostitution, sex tourism, production of pornography etc. Both women and children are exploited equally to serve this need. Victims who are trafficked could be innocent. They even do not know that they are trafficked. On the second hand there are victims who

willing get involved into this crime due to their crisis. There is another category which are neither innocent nor willing they are invisible.

There are different ways to recruit victims. Women seeking for employment give the criminals the easiest way to recruit them. Sexual industry uses physical or emotional methods to trap them. Advertisement is another means to attract women in the name of foreign jobs or studies. Marriage agency and bogus love are the common way to grab women into this industry. They are brought to different cities and even country and later are sold to the industry or directly to the brothel.

People generally confuse trafficking with smuggling. There is a huge difference between them. Smuggling involves illegal crossing of a person across boarder whereas in trafficking a person would be supplied within the country or across the boarder. Once the victim reaches the destination she or he is free to change the job and are free to leave. On the other hand once a victim is trafficked forcefully or by fraud, she is not allowed to leave that place as she has not agreed to any exploitation.

There are many reasons that cause trafficking of women and children in Russia. They all on one or the other hand had become a matter of concern equally. Migration is one of the resultant of the disintegration of Soviet Union. Russia rapidly became one of the largest countries of origin, transit and destination country of trafficking in the world. The fall opened free borders of the country penetrating illegal migrants from CIS countries. They hence become the bait for the traffickers who promise them attractive jobs. Another cause is economic and political instability after the fall of Soviet Union. People became vulnerable and helpless in their own country. Forget about modern technology, people badly suffered for their daily bread. Men ran out of the country leaving behind his family. Women were left with fewer options to support their children. It became a prime factor of

trafficking. Child was also accepted to become an earning member of the family instead of getting a good education. In Russia more women are unemployed than men. Also there is a difference of wages between them irrespective of the same profile.

Simultaneously, political instability also became one of the darkest features of trafficking in Russia. Corruption in new Russia was prominent. Fall of communist bloc and rise of new market policy gave a large platform to the officials for corruption. Mafias on the other hand supported it to their best. Corruption and trafficking are deeply interlinked. Many cases were seen where officials helped the traffickers to exploit the victim. Thus it is seen that economic decline, political instability, migration and social insecurities after the disintegration of the Soviet Union are some of the factors contributing to the proliferation of human trafficking in the Russian Federation

Young women and cheap workers are trafficked to Europe, USA, Canada, and countries of Africa, Asia and the Middle East. Transnational organizations of human traffickers make a huge profit. This criminal activity involves inside not only young women but also children. Victims of trafficking are subject to different inhuman treatments. Russia is a country which provides near 30 – 60 thousand of contemporary slaves every year. Human trafficking is conditioned by the difference in social state of the various sections of the population and also by the difference in level of people's living in various regions. Looking for a better life and job, people have to leave places of their permanent residence and travel to other regions and countries.

Russia due to weak family institute, unemployment graph and organized crime has become a country of origin on one hand. Whereas being a better country than other CIS regions it has also one of the source as well as transit

countries of trafficking in the world. Fantasy world of western glamour, chance to work in Hollywood and dream to live luxurious life turns many girls as a sex symbol in Pornography world. Battering, sexual violence and feeling of statelessness are some of the causes of trafficking.

The impact of trafficking is even harsh and irresistible. Absence of social Networks, violation of human rights and right to health are some of the consequences of human trafficking. Vulnerable diseases like HIV/Aids are very commonly seen in the victims who are trafficked for sexual exploitation. Women are more prone to get this infection as they are more exploited sexually than men.

Combating the human trafficking is a gigantic task, possible to be solved by any State, being even the most powerful, only in cooperation with the partners with other States, with international organizations. With all the possible controversies, with all the variety and differences of national interests of the States, in combating the human trafficking there is just one border line between the civilized world and the slavery, between the supremacy of the Law and the organized criminality.

Alarmed by the mounting numbers of women sold into illegal trafficking rings, a number of Russian non-governmental groups have organized a many project to raise public awareness about the issue.

The Government's anti-trafficking efforts today have largely been aimed at developing legislation that criminalises human trafficking. The most widely accepted international definition of human trafficking is in the "Palermo Protocol," which is a protocol to UN Convention against Transnational Organised Crime. Russia ratified this Protocol on March 24, 2004 and has implemented articles 127.1 and 127.2 into its criminal code to legal define

trafficking in human beings. Russia's criminal code definition on human trafficking is largely consistent with those in the Palermo Protocol.

But the situation on trafficking issues in Russia positively can be improved. It will be very difficult to remove trafficking at all, but it is possible to reduce. There are some recommendation by NGOs and international organizations like IOM or ILO. It is recommended to widen a relevant education of potential victims, tighten control over travel, dating, model and job agencies, improve social conditions of potential victims, strength family institute, and increase an international cooperation with anti-trafficking bodies of other countries. But two significant tasks should be done certainly; first of them reduce the demand in destination countries. The second objective is to improve social conditions in Russia, which seems to be very difficult as well. What could be done with huge army (about 4 or 5 millions) of homeless children. Organized criminal groups could be defeated in case of strong surveillance and international cooperation and data exchange. But if people live in bad conditions they will try go overseas and find a better conditions of life and thus they could get trapped in exploitation. That's why reducing demand also very important. Trafficked victims in destination countries can be lowered by taking some of the following measures:

In destination countries the use of illegal migrants as workers should cause to serious liability. Sanctions should be very serious. These sanctions should be directed to traffickers but not to victims (illegal workers or prostitutes). New ID cards or passport with electronic chips should be implemented. These ID cards should be used as payment mean. Different kind of data could be collected on the chip, law enforcement agencies should have an access to read relevant data like dates of entry and living country etc.

Tracing these data will let anti-trafficking bodies to determine whether exploitation could take place. It could be considered like intervention to

private life, but it seems to be the only way to control potential victims of trafficking. The amount of potential victims of trafficking in Russia is very significant – more than 5 million. Most of them unemployed women age of up to 29 years old and homeless or orphan children. Thus, situation is very urgent and all efforts should be done to secure both countries of origin and destination from totally unaccepted manifestation of contemporary slavery and evil crime like trafficking of women and children.

A comprehensive anti-trafficking approach requires a multi-lateral and coordinated response which should be founded on human rights principles and remains sensitive to issues of discrimination against women, children and minority groups. Information about human trafficking for young people who are not in direct contact with the education system is particularly important. Student groups should be encouraged to conduct training sessions in environments other than their own institutions. Further actions to enhance educators' roles in addressing human trafficking issues could include:

Implementation of regular teacher training programmes to strengthen and update educators' knowledge about human trafficking.

Expansion of the family-based care system for children without parental supervision should be monitored. Educators are encouraged to raise this issue and lend support to such initiatives undertaken by local governments.

Inclusion of compulsory course on anti-trafficking education in school's syllabus to provide knowledge to the children and young people to understand the problems related to it.

Adopt the framework in the Federal Law "On Combating Human Trafficking" (based on the draft bill developed by the State Duma Legislative Committee's Working Group) to supplement article 127.1 and article 127.2 of the Russian Federation's Criminal Code.

Review and amend legislation regarding child and women trafficking and pornography, ensuring that these provisions are in line with relevant international conventions and agreements to which Russia has ratified.

Review normative documents (e.g. law, regulations, or guidelines) regarding economic, social or other spheres, and when necessary, incorporates actions to address trafficking or slave labour within these documents.

Develop, pass and implement a National Plan of Action against women and children trafficking, which provides the working framework for responses coordinated among government agencies and civil society organisations and is developed with consideration of existing best practices of national action plans.

Establish a permanent, national coordinating mechanism that monitors trafficking situations, evaluates the efficiency of existing responses, and prepares annual federal government reports.

This work has sought to demonstrate that trafficking in women and the virtual buying, selling, and trading of women and children are growing and dangerous phenomenon throughout the Russian Federation. It has attempted to reveal the violent and degrading conditions that trafficked persons endure and to illuminate the numerous factors and conditions that have led up to this extraordinary crisis of conscience. It shows Trafficking has gender differentiated and specific impact such as sexual violence and exploitation, prostitution, beating, exposure of HIV AIDS etc. on women and children due to the prevalence of patriarchal stereotype and gender inequity in Russian society.

Whether through poverty, desperation, deception, or some combination of these factors, thousands upon thousands of Russian women are leaving their homes in search of livelihood abroad and ending up violently exploited, and

sometimes enslaved, in the international sex industry. Moreover, additional thousands of girls and boys as young as 12 and 13 years of age who live in the streets or in orphanages are natural prey for the entrepreneurs of the sex industry, who exploit these youngsters for pornography and prostitution.

This is not a crisis affecting a small handful of people, but, rather, a growing epidemic that is tainting civil society in Russia as a whole, as well as the societies of the receiving countries. Nonetheless, for the most part, neither lawmakers in Russia nor those in receiving countries are confronting or even acknowledging the breadth and depth of this crisis. It is hoped that reports such as this one will encourage lawmakers in Russia, the United States, western European countries and other participating nations to take proactive action to prevent trafficking in women and children. Such measures should include adoption of relevant laws backed by vigorous enforcement. Such laws must be drafted in ways which do not punish or further terrorize victims, but which define a clear zero-tolerance policy for recruiters, traffickers and pimps, and those who benefit financially from the sex trade.

Within Russia, agencies combating trafficking should be granted adequate resources to expand targeted prevention and information programmes for both urban and rural areas, together with victim assistance programmes. Undertaking bold and proactive measures such as these will not be easy for the *Duma*, or for the lawmakers of receiving countries. But ending the dehumanizing practice of trading in human beings is a critical next step in advancing the community of nations.

A balanced approach to anti-trafficking is essential, based on the adoption of comprehensive and continuous measures not only as regards prosecution but also in human trafficking prevention, and victim identification, protection and assistance efforts. A legal and institutional solution to the problem has to be found as a matter of priority. A comprehensive system of measures

needs to be developed to combat human trafficking, together with a corresponding state programme to implement them.

In the beginning of the study the following two hypotheses were set:

1. Economic decline, political instability, migration and social insecurities after the disintegration of the Soviet Union are some of the factors contributing to the proliferation of trafficking of women and children in the Russian Federation.
2. Trafficking has gender differentiated and specific impact such as sexual violence and exploitation, prostitution, beating, exposure of HIV AIDS etc. on women and children due to the prevalence of patriarchal stereotype and gender inequity in Russian society.

This study has proved that both the hypotheses set above are positive and valid.

To conclude further, Russia, like so many other countries in the world, is a patriarchal society in that its ideological and cultural norms and behaviours have a tendency to discriminate against its women. Though communism touted equality for women during Soviet times, this was never realized, and the current reality is that many Russian women have been marginalized, both in the workplace and at home. Thus, the recent explosion in the sexual exploitation of Russian women, either through coercive measures or by choice to enter the sex industry, is not entirely surprising. Whether it is due to the country's unstable economic and legal environments, or whether it is a woman's personal choice that compels her to enter into such an industry, the end result is an illegal and dangerous activity that adds significantly to the deterioration of this country's culture.

Appendix

Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (2000)

Preamble

The States Parties to this Protocol, declaring that effective action to prevent and combat trafficking in persons, especially women and children, requires a comprehensive international approach in the countries of origin, transit and destination that includes measures to prevent such trafficking, to punish the traffickers and to protect the victims of such trafficking, including by protecting their internationally recognized human rights, Taking into account the fact that, despite the existence of a variety of international instruments containing rules and practical measures to combat the exploitation of persons, especially women and children, there is no universal instrument that addresses all aspects of trafficking in persons, concerned that, in the absence of such an instrument, persons who are vulnerable to trafficking will not be sufficiently protected.

Recalling General Assembly resolution 53/111 of 9 December 1998, in which the Assembly decided to establish an open-ended intergovernmental ad hoc committee for the purpose of elaborating a comprehensive international convention against transnational organized crime and of discussing the elaboration of, inter alia, an international instrument addressing trafficking in women and children, Convinced that supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime with an international instrument for the prevention,

suppression and punishment of trafficking in persons, especially women and children, will be useful in preventing and combating that crime, Have agreed as follows:

I. General provisions

Article 1

Relation with the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime

1. This Protocol supplements the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime. It shall be interpreted together with the Convention.
2. The provisions of the Convention shall apply, mutatis mutandis, to this Protocol unless otherwise provided herein.
3. The offences established in accordance with article 5 of this Protocol shall be regarded as offences established in accordance with the Convention.

Article 2

Statement of purpose

The purposes of this Protocol are:

- (a) To prevent and combat trafficking in persons, paying particular attention to women and children;
- (b) To protect and assist the victims of such trafficking, with full respect for their human rights; and

(c) To promote cooperation among States Parties in order to meet those objectives.

Article 3

Use of terms

For the purposes of this Protocol:

(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, harbouring or receipt of a child for the purpose of exploitation shall be considered "trafficking in persons" even if this does not involve any of the means set forth in subparagraph (a) of this article;

(d) "Child" shall mean any person under eighteen years of age.

Article 4

Scope of application

This Protocol shall apply, except as otherwise stated herein, to the prevention, investigation and prosecution of the offences established in accordance with article 5 of this Protocol, where those offences are transnational in nature and involve an organized criminal group, as well as to the protection of victims of such offences.

Article 5

Criminalization

1. Each State Party shall adopt such legislative and other measures as may be necessary to establish as criminal offences the conduct set forth in article 3 of this Protocol, when committed intentionally.

2. Each State Party shall also adopt such legislative and other measures as may be necessary to establish as criminal offences:

(a) Subject to the basic concepts of its legal system, attempting to commit an offence established in accordance with paragraph 1 of this article;

(b) Participating as an accomplice in an offence established in accordance with paragraph 1 of this article; and

(c) Organizing or directing other persons to commit an offence established in accordance with paragraph 1 of this article.

II. Protection of victims of trafficking in persons

Article 6

Assistance to and protection of victims of trafficking in persons

1. In appropriate cases and to the extent possible under its domestic law, each State Party shall protect the privacy and identity of victims of trafficking in persons, including, inter alia, by making legal proceedings relating to such trafficking confidential.

2. Each State Party shall ensure that its domestic legal or administrative system contains measures that provide to victims of trafficking in persons, in appropriate cases:

(a) Information on relevant court and administrative proceedings;

(b) Assistance to enable their views and concerns to be presented and considered at appropriate stages of criminal proceedings against offenders, in a manner not prejudicial to the rights of the defence.

3. Each State Party shall consider implementing measures to provide for the physical, psychological and social recovery of victims of trafficking in persons, including, in appropriate cases, in cooperation with non-governmental organizations, other relevant organizations and other elements of civil society, and, in particular, the provision of:

(a) Appropriate housing;

(b) Counselling and information, in particular as regards their legal rights, in a language that the victims of trafficking in persons can understand;

(c) Medical, psychological and material assistance; and

(d) Employment, educational and training opportunities.

4. Each State Party shall take into account, in applying the provisions of this article, the age, gender and special needs of victims of trafficking in persons, in particular the special needs of children, including appropriate housing, education and care.

5. Each State Party shall endeavour to provide for the physical safety of victims of trafficking in persons while they are within its territory.

6. Each State Party shall ensure that its domestic legal system contains measures that offer victims of trafficking in persons the possibility of obtaining compensation for damage suffered.

Article 7

Status of victims of trafficking in persons in receiving States

1. In addition to taking measures pursuant to article 6 of this Protocol, each State Party shall consider adopting legislative or other appropriate measures that permit victims of trafficking in persons to remain in its territory, temporarily or permanently, in appropriate cases.

2. In implementing the provision contained in paragraph 1 of this article, each State Party shall give appropriate consideration to humanitarian and compassionate factors.

Article 8

Repatriation of victims of trafficking in persons

1. The State Party of which a victim of trafficking in persons is a national or in which the person had the right of permanent residence at the time of entry

into the territory of the receiving State Party shall facilitate and accept, with due regard for the safety of that person, the return of that person without undue or unreasonable delay.

2. When a State Party returns a victim of trafficking in persons to a State Party of which that person is a national or in which he or she had, at the time of entry into the territory of the receiving State Party, the right of permanent residence, such return shall be with due regard for the safety of that person and for the status of any legal proceedings related to the fact that the person is a victim of trafficking and shall preferably be voluntary.

3. At the request of a receiving State Party, a requested State Party shall, without undue or unreasonable delay, verify whether a person who is a victim of trafficking in persons is its national or had the right of permanent residence in its territory at the time of entry into the territory of the receiving State Party.

4. In order to facilitate the return of a victim of trafficking in persons who is without proper documentation, the State Party of which that person is a national or in which he or she had the right of permanent residence at the time of entry into the territory of the receiving State Party shall agree to issue, at the request of the receiving State Party, such travel documents or other authorization as may be necessary to enable the person to travel to and re-enter its territory.

5. This article shall be without prejudice to any right afforded to victims of trafficking in persons by any domestic law of the receiving State Party.

6. This article shall be without prejudice to any applicable bilateral or multilateral agreement or arrangement that governs, in whole or in part, the return of victims of trafficking in persons.

III. Prevention, cooperation and other measures

Article 9

Prevention of trafficking in persons

1. States Parties shall establish comprehensive policies, programmes and other measures:

(a) To prevent and combat trafficking in persons; and

(b) To protect victims of trafficking in persons, especially women and children, from revictimization.

2. States Parties shall endeavour to undertake measures such as research, information and mass media campaigns and social and economic initiatives to prevent and combat trafficking in persons.

3. Policies, programmes and other measures established in accordance with this article shall, as appropriate, include cooperation with non-governmental organizations, other relevant organizations and other elements of civil society.

4. States Parties shall take or strengthen measures, including through bilateral or multilateral cooperation, to alleviate the factors that make persons, especially women and children, vulnerable to trafficking, such as poverty, underdevelopment and lack of equal opportunity.

5. States Parties shall adopt or strengthen legislative or other measures, such as educational, social or cultural measures, including through bilateral and multilateral cooperation, to discourage the demand that fosters all forms of exploitation of persons, especially women and children that leads to trafficking.

Article 10

Information exchange and training

1. Law enforcement, immigration or other relevant authorities of States Parties shall, as appropriate, cooperate with one another by exchanging information, in accordance with their domestic law, to enable them to determine:

(a) Whether individuals crossing or attempting to cross an international border with travel documents belonging to other persons or without travel documents are perpetrators or victims of trafficking in persons;

(b) The types of travel document that individuals have used or attempted to use to cross an international border for the purpose of trafficking in persons; and

(c) The means and methods used by organized criminal groups for the purpose of trafficking in persons, including the recruitment and transportation of victims, routes and links between and among individuals and groups engaged in such trafficking, and possible measures for detecting them.

2. States Parties shall provide or strengthen training for law enforcement, immigration and other relevant officials in the prevention of trafficking in persons. The training should focus on methods used in preventing such trafficking, prosecuting the traffickers and protecting the rights of the victims, including protecting the victims from the traffickers. The training should also take into account the need to consider human rights and child- and gender-sensitive issues and it should encourage cooperation with non-governmental organizations, other relevant organizations and other elements of civil society.

3. A State Party that receives information shall comply with any request by the State Party that transmitted the information that places restrictions on its use.

Article 11

Border measures

1. Without prejudice to international commitments in relation to the free movement of people, States Parties shall strengthen, to the extent possible, such border controls as may be necessary to prevent and detect trafficking in persons.

2. Each State Party shall adopt legislative or other appropriate measures to prevent, to the extent possible, means of transport operated by commercial carriers from being used in the commission of offences established in accordance with article 5 of this Protocol.

3. Where appropriate, and without prejudice to applicable international conventions, such measures shall include establishing the obligation of commercial carriers, including any transportation company or the owner or operator of any means of transport, to ascertain that all passengers are in possession of the travel documents required for entry into the receiving State. 4. Each State Party shall take the necessary measures, in accordance with its domestic law, to provide for sanctions in cases of violation of the obligation set forth in paragraph 3 of this article.

5. Each State Party shall consider taking measures that permit, in accordance with its domestic law, the denial of entry or revocation of visas of persons implicated in the commission of offences established in accordance with this Protocol.

6. Without prejudice to article 27 of the Convention, States Parties shall consider strengthening cooperation among border control agencies by, inter alia, establishing and maintaining direct channels of communication.

Article 12

Security and control of documents

Each State Party shall take such measures as may be necessary, within available means:

(a) To ensure that travel or identity documents issued by it are of such quality that they cannot easily be misused and cannot readily be falsified or unlawfully altered, replicated or issued; and

(b) To ensure the integrity and security of travel or identity documents issued by or on behalf of the State Party and to prevent their unlawful creation, issuance and use.

Article 13

Legitimacy and validity of documents

At the request of another State Party, a State Party shall, in accordance with its domestic law, verify within a reasonable time the legitimacy and validity of travel or identity documents issued or purported to have been issued in its name and suspected of being used for trafficking in persons.

IV. Final provisions

Article 14

Saving clause

1. Nothing in this Protocol shall affect the rights, obligations and responsibilities of States and individuals under international law, including international humanitarian law and international human rights law and, in particular, where applicable, the 1951 Convention and the 1967 Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees and the principle of non-refoulement as contained therein.

2. The measures set forth in this Protocol shall be interpreted and applied in a way that is not discriminatory to persons on the ground that they are victims of trafficking in persons. The interpretation and application of those measures shall be consistent with internationally recognized principles of non-discrimination.

Article 15

Settlement of disputes

1. States Parties shall endeavour to settle disputes concerning the interpretation or application of this Protocol through negotiation.

2. Any dispute between two or more States Parties concerning the interpretation or application of this Protocol that cannot be settled through negotiation within a reasonable time shall, at the request of one of those States Parties, be submitted to arbitration. If, six months after the date of the request for arbitration, those States Parties are unable to agree on the organization of the arbitration, any one of those States Parties may refer the

dispute to the International Court of Justice by request in accordance with the Statute of the Court.

3. Each State Party may, at the time of signature, ratification, acceptance or approval of or accession to this Protocol, declare that it does not consider itself bound by paragraph 2 of this article. The other States Parties shall not be bound by paragraph 2 of this article with respect to any State Party that has made such a reservation.

4. Any State Party that has made a reservation in accordance with paragraph 3 of this article may at any time withdraw that reservation by notification to the Secretary-General of the United Nations.

Article 16

Signature, ratification, acceptance, approval and accession

1. This Protocol shall be open to all States for signature from 12 to 15 December 2000 in Palermo, Italy, and thereafter at United Nations Headquarters in New York until 12 December 2002.

2. This Protocol shall also be open for signature by regional economic integration organizations provided that at least one member State of such organization has signed this Protocol in accordance with paragraph 1 of this article.

3. This Protocol is subject to ratification, acceptance or approval. Instruments of ratification, acceptance or approval shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of the United Nations. A regional economic integration organization may deposit its instrument of ratification, acceptance or approval if at least one of its member States has done likewise. In that instrument of ratification, acceptance or approval, such

organization shall declare the extent of its competence with respect to the matters governed by this Protocol. Such organization shall also inform the depositary of any relevant modification in the extent of its competence.

4. This Protocol is open for accession by any State or any regional economic integration organization of which at least one Member State is a Party to this Protocol. Instruments of accession shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of the United Nations. At the time of its accession, a regional economic integration organization shall declare the extent of its competence with respect to matters governed by this Protocol. Such organization shall also inform the depositary of any relevant modification in the extent of its competence.

Article 17

Entry into force

1. This Protocol shall enter into force on the ninetieth day after the date of deposit of the fortieth instrument of ratification, acceptance, approval or accession, except that it shall not enter into force before the entry into force of the Convention. For the purpose of this paragraph, any instrument deposited by a regional economic integration organization shall not be counted as additional to those deposited by member States of such organization.

2. For each State or regional economic integration organization ratifying, accepting, approving or acceding to this Protocol after the deposit of the fortieth instrument of such action, this Protocol shall enter into force on the thirtieth day after the date of deposit by such State or organization of the relevant instrument or on the date this Protocol enters into force pursuant to paragraph 1 of this article, whichever is the later.

Article 18

Amendment

1. After the expiry of five years from the entry into force of this Protocol, a State Party to the Protocol may propose an amendment and file it with the Secretary-General of the United Nations, who shall thereupon communicate the proposed amendment to the States Parties and to the Conference of the Parties to the Convention for the purpose of considering and deciding on the proposal. The States Parties to this Protocol meeting at the Conference of the Parties shall make every effort to achieve consensus on each amendment. If all efforts at consensus have been exhausted and no agreement has been reached, the amendment shall, as a last resort, require for its adoption a two-thirds majority vote of the States Parties to this Protocol present and voting at the meeting of the Conference of the Parties.

2. Regional economic integration organizations, in matters within their competence, shall exercise their right to vote under this article with a number of votes equal to the number of their member States that are Parties to this Protocol. Such organizations shall not exercise their right to vote if their member States exercise theirs and vice versa.

3. An amendment adopted in accordance with paragraph 1 of this article is subject to ratification, acceptance or approval by States Parties.

4. An amendment adopted in accordance with paragraph 1 of this article shall enter into force in respect of a State Party ninety days after the date of the deposit with the Secretary-General of the United Nations of an instrument of ratification, acceptance or approval of such amendment.

5. When an amendment enters into force, it shall be binding on those States Parties which have expressed their consent to be bound by it. Other States

Parties shall still be bound by the provisions of this Protocol and any earlier amendments that they have ratified, accepted or approved.

Article 19

Denunciation

1. A State Party may denounce this Protocol by written notification to the Secretary-General of the United Nations. Such denunciation shall become effective one year after the date of receipt of the notification by the Secretary-General.
2. A regional economic integration organization shall cease to be a Party to this Protocol when all of its member States have denounced it.

Article 20

Depositary and languages

1. The Secretary-General of the United Nations is designated depositary of this Protocol.
2. The original of this Protocol, of which the Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish texts are equally authentic, shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of the United Nations. In witness whereof, the undersigned plenipotentiaries, being duly authorized thereto by their respective Governments, have signed this Protocol.

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