



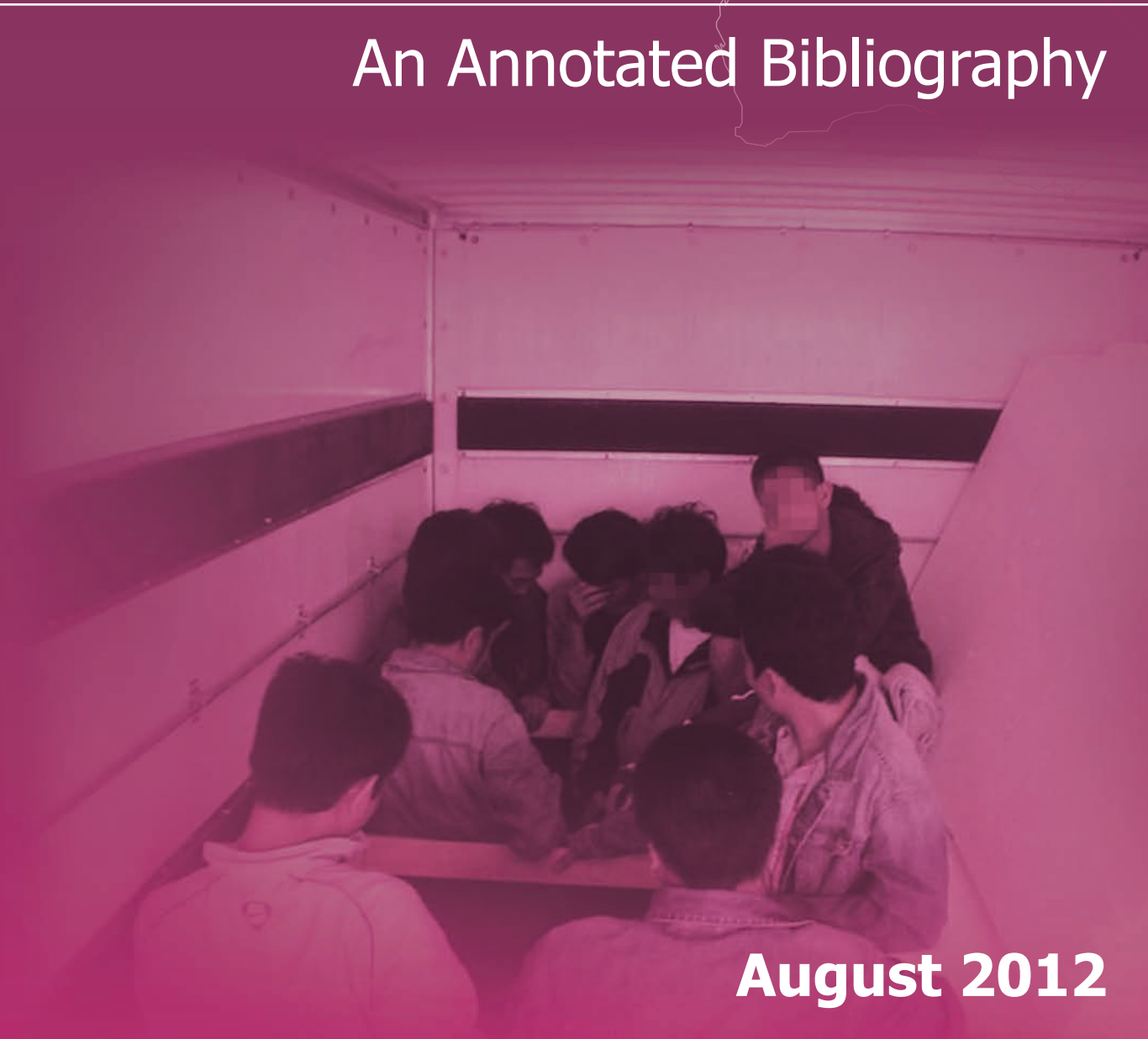
**UNODC**

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime



# Migrant Smuggling in Asia

## An Annotated Bibliography



**August 2012**

Knowledge Product: 2



# MIGRANT SMUGGLING IN ASIA

***An Annotated Bibliography***

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# Migrant Smuggling in Asia

## **An Annotated Bibliography**

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of the Regional Centre for East Asia and the Pacific

**United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime**



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## Abbreviations and Acronyms

ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
BEFARE	Basic Education for Awareness Reforms and Empowerment
CIS	Commonwealth of Independent States
COMCAD	Center on Migration, Citizenship and Development
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
HRCP	Human Rights Commission of Pakistan
IIED	International Institute for Environment and Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMISCOE	International Migration, Integration and Social Cohesion
IOM	International Organization for Migration
ISS	Institute of Social Sciences
KWAT	Kachin Women's Association Thailand
Lao PDR	Lao People's Democratic Republic
Migrant Smuggling Protocol	Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, supplementing the UN Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime
MOU	Memorandum of Understanding
NGO	Nongovernmental Organization
NHRC	National Human Rights Commission
NRM	National Referral Mechanism
SEPOM	Self-Empowerment Program for Migrant Women
Trafficking in Persons Protocol	Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children, supplementing the UN Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNESCAP	United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
UN.GIFT	United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNIAP	United Nations Inter-Agency Project on Human Trafficking
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
YCOWA	Yaung Chi Oo Workers' Association

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# Introduction

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) conducted the research in support of the Bali Process, which is a regional, multilateral process to improve cooperation against migrant smuggling, trafficking in persons and related forms of transnational crime. The research focused in particular on fourteen countries: Afghanistan, Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, the Maldives, Myanmar, Pakistan, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Thailand and Viet Nam (the project countries).

The research had three key objectives:

- (1) identify existing knowledge about migrant smuggling with regard to the project countries;
- (2) summarize and synthesize existing knowledge about migrant smuggling, thereby making it easier for decision makers to access key data and information; and
- (3) identify knowledge gaps, thereby making it easier to clearly identify research priorities.

The research involved a systematic search of multiple bibliographic databases, library catalogues and websites, to locate empirically-based infor-

mation about migrant smuggling (and to a lesser extent about irregular migration and trafficking in persons) in the project countries. This was followed by a thematic review of all of the information that was located.

The research identified 154 sources that met the research criteria, which are described in **Tables I and II**. The sources were then used as the basis of a thematic regional review and thematic country studies, which are published in UNODC (2012) *Migrant Smuggling in Asia. A Thematic Review of Literature*.

A summary of each of these sources is provided in this publication. The researchers allocated key words for each of these sources that reflect the research criteria. These key words are part of the 154 summaries.

The research was conducted within the framework established by the *United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime* (UNTOC), supplemented by the *Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air* (Migrant Smuggling Protocol) and the *Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women*

**Table I: Key words for subjects covered**

Key word	Description
Irregular migration	movement that takes place outside the regulatory norms of the sending, transit and receiving countries
Trafficking flows	numbers/ <i>quantity</i> of trafficked persons being moved, and/or <i>direction</i> of these movements
Smuggling	facilitating the illegal entry/stay of another for profit, and document offences to achieve this
Concepts	use and usefulness of concepts of migrant smuggling, trafficking in persons, or irregular migration
Methodology	research methodologies used in research on irregular migration or migrant smuggling
Quantitative assessment	size of irregular migration or smuggling flows (not TIP flows: these are covered above)
Routes	geography of irregular migration or migrant smuggling
Profiles of smugglers	geographical, demographic, socio-economic characteristics of smugglers, and/or their motivations
Profiles of irregular migrants	geographical, demographic, socio-economic characteristics of irregular migrants, and/or their motivations
Profiles of smuggled migrants	geographical, demographic, socio-economic characteristics of smuggled migrants, and/or their motivations
Smuggler-migrant relationship	how migrants portray or perceive smugglers; the nature or quality of the relationship; and/or factors that impact on that relationship

Organisation of smuggling	the organisational or business structures in smuggling operations; relationships between actors in smuggling operations; involvement in other criminality; specialisation / professionalism of smugglers; influences on organisation
Modus operandi of smuggling	methods of recruitment, payment, transfer of criminal proceeds, transportation, use / misuse of documents in smuggling process, role of corruption; factors that result in changes to modus operandi of migrant smuggling
Fees and payment for smuggling	fees paid by migrants, factors that determine fees, how migrants mobilize fees
Human and social costs of smuggling	death toll, trauma, stranded migrants, socio-economic impact of mobilizing fees for smuggling, increasing vulnerability to trafficking
Factors that fuel irregular migration	push and pull factors for irregular or smuggled migrants; the risks and rewards for smugglers (i.e.: factors that drive them toward getting involved in smuggling or away from it)
West Asia	Geographic focus: from / to / within / through
South Asia	Geographic focus: from / to / within / through
South-East Asia	Geographic focus: from / to / within / through
East Asia	Geographic focus: from / to / within / through
Afghanistan	Geographic focus: from / to / through
Cambodia	Geographic focus: from / to / through
China	Geographic focus: from / to / through
India	Geographic focus: from / to / through
Indonesia	Geographic focus: from / to / through
Lao PDR / Laos	Geographic focus: from / to / through
Maldives	Geographic focus: from / to / through
Myanmar / Burma	Geographic focus: from / to / through
Malaysia	Geographic focus: from / to / through
Pakistan	Geographic focus: from / to / through
Singapore	Geographic focus: from / to / through
Sri Lanka	Geographic focus: from / to / through
Thailand	Geographic focus: from / to / through
Vietnam/Viet Nam	Geographic focus: from / to / through

Table II: Definitions of research methodology applied in allocating key words

Key word	Description
Quantitative	“Quantitative research is a means for testing objective theories by examining relationships among variables. These variables can be measured, typically on instruments, so that numbered data can be analysed using statistical procedures” (Creswell, 2009, p. 233 <sup>1</sup> ).
Qualitative	“Qualitative research is a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. The process of research involving emerging questions and procedures; collecting data in the participants’ setting; analysing data inductively; building from particulars to general themes and making interpretations of the meaning of data” (Creswell, 2009, p. 232).
Mixed	A mix of both quantitative and qualitative methods were used.
Unknown	It is not clear from the source precisely what research method was used. However, there is some information in the source to suggest it involved primary research.

<sup>1</sup> Creswell, J.W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches (3rd ed.)*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

*and Children* (Trafficking in Persons Protocol). As such, migrant smuggling is understood to mean:

the procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit, of the illegal entry of a person into a State of which the person is not a national or permanent resident;

and

enabling a person who is not a national or permanent resident to remain in the State concerned without complying with the necessary requirements for legally remaining, through any illegal means (Articles 3(a) and 6(1)(c) of the Migrant Smuggling Protocol).

Trafficking in persons is understood to 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 (see further, Article 3 of the Trafficking in Persons Protocol).

Where the person is under 18 years of age, no deceptive means are required (Article 3(c) and (d) of the Trafficking in Persons Protocol).

For further information about the research methodology, please refer to the UNODC (2012) report *Migrant Smuggling in Asia. A Thematic Review of Literature*.

# Annotated bibliography

**Ahmad, A. N. (2008a). Dead men working: Time and space in London's ('illegal') migrant economy. In: *Work, Employment and Society*, 22(2), pp. 301–318.**

**Key words:**

Pakistan  
Irregular migration, Smuggling, Human and social costs of smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This report integrates the reviewed literature on irregular migration and the working conditions of smuggled migrants with in-depth interviews with a group of Pakistanis working in London's migrant economy. The intent is to describe the specific forms of risk and "precarity" facing smuggled migrants in this particular context. The report begins with a discussion of the methodology issues that ensued when dealing with a population reluctant to be identified. Despite the problems, 21 semi-structured interviews were carried out during the course of the study, although this number included several regular migrants as well as employers. The inclusion of the latter two groups allowed for comparisons and different perspectives in the analysis.

Findings from the study delineate both similarities and differences in the conditions endured by regular and irregular migrants. Both migrant groups experience long hours, poor working conditions and a certain amount of insecurity, but irregular migrants must adapt to ever-changing circumstances, given the instability of life in their enclave. Although both types of migrants experience similar difficulties, irregular migrants' problems are exacerbated due to their status. For example, they need to pay off smugglers who facilitated their journeys as well as escape notice of authorities empowered to deport them. These burdens are both psychological and material. In essence, they become "prisoners of monetized time", which impedes the hope of upward mobility.

**Ahmad, A. N. (2008b). The labour market consequences of human smuggling: 'Illegal' employment in London's migrant economy. In: *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 34, pp. 853–874.**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan, Pakistan  
Concepts, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This paper challenges the notion that smuggled migrants invariably are abused and exploited by both smugglers and employers. Although the author acknowledges that abuse and exploitation represent the realities of many smuggled migrants, an argument is made for a more nuanced portrait of smuggling, especially when it is equated with trafficking in persons. Three primary issues are explored: The first focuses on labour market outcomes for smuggled and/or irregular migrants and how these experiences differed from migrants who were not smuggled or were legal residents. The second is the issue of abuse as well as the usefulness of the terms "smuggling" and "trafficking", as defined by the Trafficking in Persons and Migrant Smuggling Protocols. Finally, the author looks at the labour market and social relations in light of the situation encountered in London's migrant economy.

The research involved semi-structured interviews with 20 individuals, including migrant workers from Afghanistan and Pakistan, employers and migrant organizations. Participants were identified through both snowball and direct approach techniques. This group included seven smuggled migrants (Afghans and Pakistani) as well as seven employers, all Pakistanis. For contrast purposes, four regular migrants were interviewed.

The research results generated four issues relevant to understanding the experiences of migrants: (a) the context of reception: arrival and absorption, (b) employment outcomes: the impact of legal status and mode of entry, (c) job vs. work – the structure of the labour market and (d) trafficking: employer-employee relations. Each issue supports the general argument of the paper, that generalized depictions of irregular migrants being coerced into forced labour are invalid. For example, regarding arrival and absorption, the researcher reveals the importance of social networks and how they “cushion” what might otherwise be a difficult arrival for smuggled migrants and facilitate movement into the labour market. Many of the migrants in the study earned “normal” wages and even increased their earnings over time. The research results are also discussed in terms of policy, especially for the need to avoid homogenous answers to the issue of irregular migration.

**Ahmad, A. N. (2008c). *The romantic appeal of illegal migration: Gender, masculinity and human smuggling from Pakistan*. In: M. Schrover et al. (eds.), *Illegal migration and gender in a global and historical perspective*. IMISCOE research: Amsterdam University Press.**

**Key words:**

Pakistan

Concepts, Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Methodology, Profiles of irregular migrants, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This book chapter presents an analysis of Pakistani migration networks with a specific aim to illuminate the intersecting dynamics of gender and smuggling from Pakistan to the West. Based on qualitative research conducted between 2003 and 2006 in England (London), Italy and Pakistan, the main source of data consists of 60 life stories from Pakistani migrants from Punjab province and Mirpur district. The data is divided into three cohorts; the first consists of Pakistanis who migrated to Britain, most of them regularly, as young adults between 1960 and

1980. The second cohort is almost all men (there are two women) who migrated to Britain between 1991 and 2003. The third cohort consists of men between the ages of 20 and 54 who left Pakistan in their early 20s and 30s for Italy. Only 10 interviewees in total were women. Unlike the men, none of the women entered irregularly because, the author contends, the vast majority of smuggled migrants from Pakistan to Europe are male.

The research reveals the importance of cultural and social norms, not just for deciding who is regular but also in terms of the agency of the people involved. There is relatively little independent migration of women from or within Pakistan, even though it is not explicitly forbidden. Women’s mobility is highly restricted in Pakistani society, but at the same time, growing numbers of middle and lower middle-class men from rural Punjab set off for Europe, in spite of the extensive laws in place to prohibit it. The author also highlights how the consequences of migration for the women who stay behind are uncertain. Women often experience greater seclusion and confinement in their homes once their households are lifted out of poverty by remittances. Some migrant men use their resources to impose stricter purdah (keeping women separate from men) and to increase their own social position within their community, in which confining women to the home confers honour and prestige to the household.

**Akee, R. K. Q., Basu, A. K., Chau, N. H. and Khamis, M. (2010). *Ethnic fragmentation, conflict, displaced persons and human trafficking: An empirical analysis*. Bonn: Institute for the Study of Labor.**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan, Pakistan

Concepts, Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Quantitative

**Summary:**

There are numerous reports that examine the issue of ethnic conflicts and their impact on international



trafficking in persons. Most of the studies focus on a specific country or area. Large-scale investigations looking at the global situation are lacking. The quantitative study described in this book on the links among ethnic fragmentation, conflicts and internally displaced persons represents a first step in the needed direction. A major goal of the research was to reveal the impact of ethnic fragmentation and conflict on international trafficking as a result of internal and international displacements.

Using multiple regression analysis, the researchers took datasets from several sources (such as the U.S. Department of State and UNHCR reports) to explore how such variables as ethnic, linguistic and religious fragmentation are related to trafficking in persons in both host and source countries. Additional variables included GDP of host/source countries, presence of internally displaced persons in source countries, commonality of borders and regions and the nature of conflicts (external/internal). Significant positive predictors were yielded by the analysis (such as higher GDP in host countries, external conflicts in source countries, presence of internally displaced persons or refugees in source countries, common border and a non-landlocked host country); however, the authors note several paradoxical findings that call for further study. For example, the researchers found that internal conflicts reduce the likelihood of trafficking in persons, while external conflicts exacerbate the problem. No specific policy implications from the results are presented, although the findings offer promise in this direction.

**Allan, G. M. and Szafran, O. (2005). Health of Chinese illegal immigrants who arrived by boat on the West Coast of Canada in 1999. In: *Journal of Immigrant Health*, 7(4), pp. 233–238.**

**Key words:**

China  
Human and social costs of smuggling, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This article presents a review and descriptive analysis

of the findings from medical screening examinations conducted on 589 irregular migrants from China who arrived on the West Coast of Canada by boat in 1999. The group included smuggled migrants, smugglers and the ships' crews. The Canadian Navy conducted single-day medical screening exams to identify and treat acute and urgent medical concerns. According to the authors, the findings are a reminder to medical personnel to look for unusual marks, infectious diseases and signs of abuse. Additionally, the findings provide lessons for policymakers and decision makers to plan and improve the immediate medical responses that are provided to irregular migrants who arrive by boat.

The authors reviewed all the medical reports that were prepared for each migrant and created a non-identifiable database. The descriptive analysis consists of frequency distributions and percentages of demographic data, medical examination findings and investigations. A Chi-squared test, which is a statistical hypothesis test, was used to test for the differences in frequency of common conditions (such as tuberculosis) or potential abuse conditions (such as bruising) by age category, sex and ship.

The analysis revealed that the migrants were predominantly young male adults. According to the medical findings, most of them appeared to be in relatively good health and free of serious illness. This finding, the authors argue, supports the assumption that health and vitality play a role in the selection of smuggled migrants because many of them are expected to work long hours to pay off the smuggling fee. The most prevalent medical conditions were dermatological, head/neck and dental problems, trauma and urogenital. Recently induced trauma was more prevalent among the females than the males. Some of the migrants indicated that they had been threatened, beaten or raped aboard the boat.

The article focuses on the results of the medical screening and is thus addressed to professionals in the medical field. However, it also provides information on the smuggling process. According to the findings, (non-refugee) smuggled migrants travelling by boat are predominantly young healthy men with good prospects for work, as opposed to the refugee population that appears to be in worse physical condition. Some details of the journey from China to Canada are included (30+ days at sea) along with in-

sight on the living conditions and the abuse (physical) on the boats.

According to the authors, the findings of the medical conditions are limited by a number of factors: the unexpected arrival and required rapid response led to challenges, including inadequate interpreter services, inadequate and inconsistent history taking (which can provide valuable information about abuse and trauma) and a lack of clarity about responsibility for following up. Additionally, migrants were diagnosed solely on the physical exam from a single encounter, which likely led to some inaccuracy in diagnosis and excessive prescribing.

The article highlights the possible risks and hazards of smuggling that irregular migrants who undertake boat journeys may encounter and the importance of standardized migration screening exams to detect both illness and injury.

**Aoyama, K. (2009). *Thai migrant sex workers: From modernization to globalization*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.**

**Key words:**

Thailand

Concepts, Factors that fuel irregular migration, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This book highlights the grey area that exists between trafficking for sexual exploitation and migrant sex work by looking at the sex trade in Japan and the involvement of Thai women. The author studied the parallel between trafficking for sexual exploitation and women who migrate to work in the sex industry to support them and their families. The research involved a series of interviews with current and former Thai sex workers in the Japanese sex industry and their relatives in an attempt to understand the sex workers' experiences in the international sex trade. The examination of the complexity of the women's lives and the factors that influenced their decision making regarding the sex work and/or migration sheds light on the problematic nature of being labelled as either a "victim" of trafficking or a free

agent. The research is presented in the context of the feminist debate about sex work/prostitution, which focuses on whether or not commercial sexual transactions should be regarded as a form of "work" or a form of violence and the role of women's agency in decision making.

The research was based on the concept of trafficking in persons from the Trafficking in Persons Protocol. In addition to the 22 interviews conducted in Thailand and Japan, the researcher reviewed relevant secondary material.

The researcher was introduced to her interviewees through volunteer work at two Thai NGOs (EMPOWER in Bangkok, supporting sex workers in Bangkok and SEPOM in Chiang Rai Province, supporting Thai migrants returning from working in Japan's sex industry) and through visits to various sex industry venues in Bangkok and meeting sex workers willing to be interviewed. The researcher also conducted fieldwork in Tokyo, where she met three Thai women who had worked or were working in the Japanese sex industry and who were willing to be interviewed.

In terms of methodology, the researcher notes the influence of Maggie O'Neill, a sociologist who undertakes research with sex workers in the United Kingdom using a participatory action-research method. This is a feminist research method whereby the researcher participates in the field, with a particular group of people (the targets of the research) taking action regarding the research topic, develops methods for conducting the research, uses them and then presents the research in cooperation with the group members.

The researcher concludes that there is a middle road between sex work and trafficking for sexual exploitation and that this is the empirical reality for Thai women working in the Japanese sex industry. Each Thai woman's experience of the Japanese sex industry was different. The differences are more apparent between women who were trafficked and exploited and women who had voluntarily entered the sex industry to support themselves and their families, although grey areas existed between the two. The research argues that there is no single pattern of agency in sex work but multiple routes and experiences, underscoring that grey area between sex work and trafficking for sexual exploitation.

**Arif, G. M. (2009). *Recruitment of Pakistani workers for overseas employment: Mechanisms, exploitation and vulnerabilities*. Geneva: International Labour Organization.**

**Key words:**

Pakistan  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Quantitative assessment, Profiles of irregular migrants, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This report reflects a study of regular and irregular migrant workers from Pakistan to the Gulf States that relied on surveys, focus group discussions and in-depth interviews with returning workers. The primary purpose was to examine the recruitment process in Pakistan and subtopics, such as how migrants were recruited, socio-economic profiles and employer practices, as well as government policy, provisions and regulations for workers. The results indicate that most returnees worked more than one contract, earning an income that was higher than what they had attained in Pakistan. Respondents who migrated with assistance from overseas employment promoters appear to have prospered more than those recruited through other agencies or through irregular migration. Despite the positive findings, however, the in-depth analysis of the situation reveals several problematic issues. A prime example is the tendency for employers to change migrants' contracts once they arrived at their destinations, typically to the detriment of the workers. Others included migrants' understanding of their rights, special dangers for unauthorized workers and recruiters' disrespect of the laws. Recommendations emanating from the study include: the creation of working conditions agreements with both sending and receiving countries, increased transparency in contracts, improved control and supervision of recruiting agents and more active protection of workers by Pakistani embassy officials in the Middle East.

**Arnold, D. and Hewison, K. (2005). *Exploitation in global supply chains: Burmese workers in Mae Sot*. In: *Journal of Contemporary Asia*, 35(3), pp. 319–340.**

**Key words:**

Myanmar, Thailand  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article provides an in-depth discussion of the situation of Myanmar migrant workers in Mae Sot, Thailand. Included are several case studies that illustrate the exploitive experiences and working conditions of the Myanmar migrants working in garment and textile factories in Mae Sot. The central argument is that Myanmar workers who are employed in low-skilled sectors, including factories, fisheries, plantations, agriculture and other areas, are often exploited by their Thai employees due to their economic and political vulnerabilities.

The case studies describe the dynamics of particular labour disputes between migrant workers and their employers in Mae Sot. Information relating to the case studies was provided by the Yaung Chi Oo Workers' Association (YCOWA) and the Action Network for Migrants. Both organizations assist Myanmar migrant workers involved in labour disputes.

The authors note that although the case studies summarize selected events in specific factories, they are not comprehensive in terms of discussing organizational activities of the YCOWA and Action Network for Migrants, the workers' actions or labour problems in Mae Sot. The case studies are supplemented with information derived from discussions and interviews with YCOWA and Action Network representatives, the workers, the media and other reports.

The research exposed the vulnerabilities of Myanmar migrant workers in Thailand to labour exploitation. The authors argue that this vulnerability stems from migrant workers' inability to organize in trade unions or benefit from the protection of NGOs that work to enforce the labour rights of migrant workers. This is due to gaps in Thai labour policy and practices regarding labour laws and the protection of migrant workers. Corruption among local Thai police also contributes to the exploitation of migrant workers in Thai workplaces. The article notes that Myanmar workers choose to migrate to Thailand regularly and

irregularly to work because of the greater economic opportunity, the possibility of higher wages and/or the flee from political persecution.

**Asian Development Bank. (2009). *Broken lives: Trafficking in human beings in Lao People's Democratic Republic*. Manila: Asian Development Bank.**

**Key words:**

Lao PDR, Thailand

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This report presents findings from research that sought to clarify and expand on what is known about trafficking in persons in two north-western provinces of Lao People's Democratic Republic (Bokeo and Luang Namtha) and to identify directions that will help in promoting safe migration, reducing risk and preventing the trafficking. The research set out to identify the full range of social and ethnic conditions that influence migration and mobility among a number of targeted villages in the two provinces.

The research appears to have been detailed in an earlier unpublished manuscript and an earlier participatory poverty assessment. The Asian Development Bank report does not include methodology details used in the original research. However, it does include an annex with interview guidelines that indicate that semi-structured interviews were conducted with villagers and migrants; it is not clear who was interviewed or how many interviews were conducted. The interview guidelines also indicate that the participants were asked about their cultural setting, gender status, socio-economic factors, health and education levels, radio broadcasts, mobility, survival skills in Thailand and personal experiences in migrating, observed signs of social upheaval, programmes that specifically target HIV and trafficking in persons, legal frameworks on trafficking in persons and tourism.

The targeted villages for the study were selected to achieve maximum diversity of situations and village

conditions, including ethnic composition, if villages were new (relocated) or old, the location of the village in relation to the Thai border and urban areas, if the village was on a main road or way off the road; the village's involvement with tourism (Sing District in Luang Namtha only) and other social factors (factories located in the village or red-light districts). The villages included were in the Meuang Moeng, Ton Pheung, Pak Tha and Houay Sai districts in Bokeo and the Sing and Long districts in Luang Namtha.

The report argues that trafficking in persons is linked to economic development; specifically, forced relocation as a result of government policy associated with development has made some villagers more vulnerable to trafficking (those who migrate are thus vulnerable to being trafficked). Those villagers not forced to relocate were found unlikely to migrate, whereas some ethnic groups subjected to relocation were more likely to migrate (there were other ethnic groups subjected to relocation who were not likely to migrate), given their close proximity to the Thai border. The report notes that modernization is a great pull factor for migration. Ethnicity and material and economic factors were prime determinants of migration, particularly for women and girls.

**Asis, M. M. B. (2004). *Borders, globalization and irregular migration in Southeast Asia*. In: A. Ananta and E. N. Arifin (eds.), *International Migration in Southeast Asia*. Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.**

**Key words:**

Cambodia, China, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Singapore Thailand, Viet Nam  
East Asia, South-East Asia

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Quantitative assessment, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This chapter argues that a stronger Asian approach is necessary to address migration and, more specifically, irregular migration flows. Through a study of the situation in two countries of origin, Indonesia and Philippines, and two countries of destination, Malaysia and Thailand, the chapter demonstrates

that irregular migration is the result of factors in both source and receiving countries. The analysis is based on data derived through a survey, which was carried out in all the four countries. In each of these countries 100 migrants were surveyed who were in or had been in an irregular situation; in addition, 327 interviews were carried out in Thailand. The respondents were not selected randomly, but the method of selection is not detailed. Additional interviews were conducted with government officials, NGO staff, community members, recruiters and intermediaries. Most of the data collection took place in the last quarter of 2000. In addition to the survey, a literature review was conducted. The author concludes that irregular migration may be the outcome of inadequate international norms, which recognize the right to out-migration but not in-migration.

The author points out that regular and irregular migration are driven by similar forces that occur in both the country of origin and of destination. In countries of origin, limited employment opportunities and poverty motivate people to migrate, but intermediaries, such as social networks and migration services, are vital in actually bringing about the migration. In destination countries, the demand for migrant workers is regulated by migration policies. The chapter largely dwells on policy issues and includes discussion of the migration policies of various countries in the region.

Various forms of irregular migration were recorded in the study, including overstaying and changing passport information. The study examined the estimated magnitude and characteristics of the irregular migration flows between the selected countries and looked into individuals' decision-making process in choosing to migrate irregularly. The role of social networks in facilitating migration is emphasized. The study also found that irregular migration has been shown to encourage shadow service providers, including for forged documents.

The chapter provides a good basis for understanding how irregular migration arises. It is also useful for insight on the broader characteristics of irregular migrants and the factors that motivate them to choose irregular channels. Various forms of irregular migration are discussed, but smuggling is not explicitly mentioned.

**Azam, F. (2009). *Human trafficking, human smuggling and illegal migration to and from Pakistan: Review of government policies and programmes*. Islamabad: Basic Education for Awareness Reforms and Empowerment, ActionAid Pakistan and the European Commission.**

**Key words:**

Pakistan

South Asia

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Methodology, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Profiles of irregular migrants, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Profiles of smugglers, Quantitative assessment, Routes, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

The policy review reflected in this report relies on extensive interviews with government officials and international development agency and NGO officers, what limited data exists on trafficking in Pakistan and a literature review to identify gaps in current policies and obstacles to their enforcement. It further includes analysis of the effectiveness of those policies by examining what results they have achieved. The recommendations provided speak to how those initiatives could be strengthened. The review is part of the project Promotion of Rights, Capacity Building Measures and Initiatives to Curb Illegal and Temporary Migration, Including Human Smuggling and Trafficking and focuses on the current policies and programming of the Pakistan Government on irregular migration.

The review opens with core definitions and descriptions concerning trafficking in persons, migrant smuggling and related drivers and then contextualizes the case of Pakistan in relation to global trends in irregular migration. The author presents data and corresponding analysis that illustrates the challenges, noting that while Pakistan is recognized to be a significant area for trafficking in persons, the lack of statistical information limits an understanding of the scale of such practice.

The review also outlines global and regional standards for government action on irregular migration, policies and legal instruments to control trafficking in persons and migrant smuggling and the means available to support regular migration. This information is complemented with a discussion on the appropriateness of those strategies for Pakistan and the challenges in implementing current programming. The review includes recommendations for both donor and government actors on how to strengthen current and future initiatives, including Pakistan's Draft National Migration Policy.

**Balzer, H. and Repnikova, M. (2010). Migration between China and Russia. In: *Post-Soviet Affairs*, 26(1), pp. 1–37.**

**Key words:**

China  
Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article looks at what amounts to a timid level of Chinese migration to Russia amid the alarmist claims of Russian politicians and media since 1991 that Russia has been the target of Chinese expansion through large-scale regular and irregular migration. The article explores the reality of why a seemingly win-win migration situation did not generate more labour migration.

The research involved fieldwork in China and Russia. Literature on migration issues was collected in the Chinese city of Harbin, from libraries, universities, the provincial and the city academies of social science and government offices. Interviews were conducted at the major border crossing points of Heihe, Manzhouli, Suifinhe and Donning in the far east of China with local officials responsible for trade and commerce; businessmen engaged in trade, the recruitment of contract labour and exports of labour to Russia; and Chinese vendors in the special commercial zones. In the far east of Russia, in Vladivostok, Khabarovsk, Blagoveshchensk, Ulan-Ude, Irkutsk and Birobidzhan, unstructured interviews were conducted with local officials, NGO workers involved in migration issues and Chinese nationals

working in local markets, agricultural plantations and construction sites. The authors also interviewed Russian officials and researchers in Moscow, Vladivostok and Khabarovsk.

The authors conclude that despite the rhetoric of Russian political figures and media, the scale of Chinese migration to Russia has been quite modest. They argue that the failure to establish a stable community of Chinese migrants in Russia during a period when it might have been possible to develop mutual beneficial and sustainable cross-border relationships makes future large-scale migration less likely. Thus, the limited scale of Chinese labour migration to Russia represents a missed opportunity rather than a threat. The limiting factors include restrictive and shifting Russian legislation, the availability of large numbers of alternative Russian-speaking foreign workers, lagging economic development in far eastern Russia, weak cross-border economic relationships in North-East Asia and a tense atmosphere created by the exploitation of the migration issue by Russian politicians and media. Despite a shared border that stretches 4,300 kilometres and the apparent geographical ease, Chinese migrants prefer to take on the expense and risk involved in reaching destinations such as the United States or Europe, while the number of Russians working and living in China may already exceed the number of Chinese in Russia.

This article highlights the disconnect between Russian rhetoric and the reality of Chinese migration into Russia. Although it does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling, it presents a good overview of Chinese migration to Russia since 1991, with some reference to Chinese irregular migration.

**Bartolomei, M. R. (2010). Migrant male domestic workers in comparative perspective: Four case studies from Italy, India, Ivory Coast and Congo. In: *Men and Masculinities*, 13(1), pp. 87–110.**

**Key words:**

India  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

These four case studies describe and analyse the dynamics of domestic service by males. The particular case studies presented involved the experiences of workers from Italy, Congo, India and Ivory Coast. The countries were selected to represent transnational, intrastate and interstate migration, respectively. The case studies also reflect interviews with 355 domestic migrant workers and participant observation. By focusing on the nature of the work, employee/employer relationships and reasons for leaving one's homeland to seek this type of work, the researcher identified four types, or models, of domestic service: the caregiver-economic model, the servant-social status gap model, the cultural gap model and the cook-ethnic gap model.

Although the models are designed to capture the uniqueness of each setting, they picked up the similarities as well. For example, despite the nature and circumstances of their employment situation, the workers constructed "masculine" characterizations that supported their notion of being household "breadwinner" by working in a domestic setting. The analysis of the similarities also leads to a deeper and complex understanding of such issues as the role of ethnicity, hegemonic masculinity and social reproduction. The research was not designed to produce policy recommendations; rather, it set out to look at the relationship between migration and social reproduction. In the end, the report offers a different perspective on how labour is viewed.

**Basic Education for Awareness Reforms and Empowerment (BEFARE). (2009). *Baseline study on illegal migration, human smuggling and trafficking in Pakistan*. Retrieved from [www.befare.org/Baseline%20Survey.pdf](http://www.befare.org/Baseline%20Survey.pdf) (accessed 10 January 2012).**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan, India, Myanmar, Pakistan  
South Asia

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Methodology, Modus operandi of smuggling, Profiles of irregular migrants, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Smuggling, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This report presents the baseline research required for the project "Promotion of Rights, Capacity Building Measures and Initiatives to Curb Illegal and Temporary Migration, Including Human Smuggling and Trafficking" (C-PRISM) in Pakistan. The research was to help fill the empirical research gap on irregular and smuggled migrants as well as trafficked persons; it provides information on estimated numbers, flows, migrants' reasons for moving and profiles of trafficking victims. Primary data collection was carried out in Karachi, Peshawar, Quetta and Rahimyar Khan and Swabi districts. Semi-structured interviews with migrants and experts were used to develop three questionnaires, one each for trafficked victims, irregular migrants and organization officials. Data was then gathered from 131 irregular migrants and 172 victims of trafficking. The survey findings are supplemented with information from secondary sources, including national and international research, media reports and reports from government and local organizations.

The report thus shows that the majority of irregular migrants in Pakistan are from Afghanistan, Bangladesh and Myanmar. Karachi is a more common destination due to urban labour market. There are no clear estimates on the number of irregular Pakistani migrants abroad, although data suggests that most irregular migrants come from a few concentrated areas of Punjab Province, such as Gujrat, Gujranwala, Mandi Bahauddin and Sialkot. The most common abroad destinations are the United Arab Emirates, Greece, Islamic Republic of Iran, Saudi Arabia, Turkey and the United Kingdom. According to the numbers analysed through the research, more irregular Pakistani migrants have been deported from Turkey, followed by Oman and the United States. In terms of trafficking, the baseline findings suggest that the Bengali as well as Afghan Pashtun and Hazara migrants are more at risk than migrants from other areas.

The research also reveals inadequacies in the policies developed for irregular migration, migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons; it also corroborates the known gaps in research. The concluding recommendations urge the standardizing of data collection and reporting and better coordination among agen-

cies. They also encourage a comprehensive nationwide assessment of capacity building needs for managing irregular migration, migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons. Overall, the study provides useful information, although at times the results are confusing and not well articulated.

**Belanger, D. (2010). *Les mariages avec des étrangères en Asie de l'Est: Trafic de femmes ou migration choisie?* In: *Population et Sociétés* (469), p. 104–108.**

**Key words:**

China, Viet Nam  
East Asia  
Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Unknown

**Summary:**

This article examines the phenomenon of bride migration in East Asia due to the growing number of men who have difficulty finding a spouse in their home country. The demographic consequences are also evaluated.

The research method is not explained. The study compares various data sets on the issue and draws from secondary sources.

According to the research, a growing number of East Asian men marry a bride from a foreign country. Despite a decline in recent years, these unions still represent a significant proportion of marriages. Women from China make up the largest group of foreign brides in all three countries (Japan, the Republic of Korea and Taiwan Province of China). Vietnamese constitute the second largest group in Taiwan Province of China and the Republic of Korea, while Filipinas are the second largest group in Japan. International matchmaking agencies have pivotal roles both in the sending and receiving countries and largely contributed to the strong increase in mixed marriages from the early 1990s to the mid-2000s. Some receiving countries have reacted by implementing control mechanisms for matchmaking agencies, such as in Taiwan Province of China, where only non-profit agencies are authorized to operate. The article concludes that the phenomenon of bride migration

leads to an increasingly diversified population in the receiving countries and constitutes a major challenge for governments and societies.

The author notes the debate as to whether this form of movement constitutes trafficking in persons but does not come to any conclusion. According to the author, some governments, such as in Viet Nam, approach all bride migration as either trafficking in persons or opportunistic desertion (taking advantage of the system to settle abroad). The author reports that cultural mores exist regarding arranged marriage and acknowledges the difference between marriages arranged between families and marriages brokered by commercial agencies. Because the author does not directly address the issue of whether or not these marriages involve any element of exploitation, the article does not provide any insight as to whether or not these marriages could in fact be categorized as trafficking situations.

The article focuses on bride migration and its implications for receiving societies, and thus does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling.

**Bilecen, B. (2009). *Human smuggling networks operating between Middle East and the European Union: Evidence from Iranian, Iraqi and Afghani [sic] migrants in the Netherlands.* In: *COMCAD Working Papers* (62).**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan  
Concepts, Organization of smuggling, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This report offers analysis on the involvement of transnational networks in the process of migrant smuggling from the Middle East and West Asia into the European Union, with special reference to the Netherlands. Iraq, Islamic Republic of Iran and Afghanistan were chosen to represent the Middle East and West Asia because an increasing number of asylum seekers in Europe originate from these countries.



To address the role of social networks in migrant smuggling operations, the research analysed migrant smuggling from an organized crime perspective rather than a human rights, migration management or business perspective. According to the author, the organized crime perspective is most relevant for operational aspects.

The analysis draws on secondary data and information from semi-structured interviews with smuggled migrants conducted in the Dutch cities of Amsterdam, Rotterdam and Nijmegen. Of the 11 smuggled migrants interviewed, five were from Iraq, three from the Islamic Republic of Iran and another three from Afghanistan. The report does not provide detailed information on the variables or issues designated for data collection through the interviews. There is recognition, however, of the difficulty in interviewing smuggled migrants, particularly regarding how they came into contact with their smugglers.

The article concludes that within the sample examined, irregular migrants made extensive use of friendship and kinship networks rather than exclusively using the services of transnational organized crime groups. Most of the migrants interviewed reported they had established contact with smugglers in transit countries on their own and negotiated an agreement for help in migrating; they connected with the smugglers, they said, by simply inquiring around and using their friendships and ethnic or kinship ties.

However, the author does not completely exclude the involvement of organized crime groups. The interviews, for example, revealed that two Afghan migrants used the services of large transnational organized crime groups to get to the Netherlands.

The report highlights the importance of independent smugglers and small criminal smuggling groups in the process of migrant smuggling from the Middle East and West Asia. It also accents how migrants self-manage their travels through ethnic kinships and friendships. Due to the rather small sample, though, the findings are not considered representative.

**Blackburn, A. G., Taylor, R. W. and Davis, J. E. (2010). Understanding the complexities of human trafficking and child sexual exploita-**

**tion: The case of Southeast Asia. In: *Women and Criminal Justice*, 20(1-2), pp. 105–126.**

**Key words:**

Cambodia, Thailand  
South-East Asia  
Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article reports on research that probed the complex problem of sexual exploitation of children in Cambodia and Thailand. The research explored the factors that drive the sexual exploitation of children, locations where it is most prevalent, how handlers sell sex with children, the differences and similarities between Cambodia and Thailand regarding the sexual exploitation of children and government and NGO responses to the phenomenon.

The qualitative research relied on field observations and interviews with law enforcement officials, NGO representatives and women and children victims of exploitation in the sex industries of Cambodia and Thailand: The researchers conducted more than 100 interviews with government officials between June 2004 and the end of 2006, with follow-up interviews conducted until 2009. Most of the government officials interviewed were police officers or from justice ministries primarily in Cambodia and Thailand but also in Australia, Japan and the United States. The researchers interviewed 80 NGO representatives working with adult sex workers and child victims of trafficking in Cambodia and Thailand. They also interviewed 80 young women and children whom they met inside brothels or in police or NGO custody following a police investigation and/or raid.

For the field observation, the researchers visited massage parlours, brothels and strip bars and even filmed with video cameras. The video footage was shown to government officials, which led to criminal investigations and the prompting of law enforcement action.

The researchers note some limitations of the research methodology, including that the observations took place over a relatively short period of time.

The researchers conclude that the prostitution of children occurs across South-East Asia, particularly in Cambodia and Thailand, where there are many business operations profiting, including brothels, strip bars and massage parlours. The research suggests that the business of selling sex, including sex with minors, is being driven further underground due to the tightening of laws and greater attention to the issue. There is limited discussion on the role of police corruption in the operation of the sex industry.

The researchers note how easy it was for them to “buy” sex with prostituted female children aged 7–16 for the relatively cheap sum of USD 2 to USD 35, but that such services were easier to purchase in Cambodia than in Thailand. They found that most of this type of business is conducted in a range of venues associated with the sex industry, such as brothels, strip bars and massage parlours, as opposed to openly on the street. The researchers conclude that the demand for sexual services, including sex tourism, compounded by poverty dynamics, continues to encourage the trafficking of women and children into the sex industries in Cambodia and Thailand.

The article does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling, but it does give examples of trafficking flows into and out of Cambodia, mostly from Cambodia to Malaysia, Thailand and Viet Nam as well as internally (rural to urban areas). The report cites the estimates that put the number of women and children who are being prostituted or engaged in sex work in Cambodia as low as 40,000 and as high as 500,000; in Thailand, of the estimated 2 million women and children in the sex industry, some 30,000–75,000 are children being prostituted.

**Blanchet, T. (2005). Bangladeshi girls sold as wives in North India. In: *Indian Journal of Gender Studies*, 12(2–3), pp. 305–334.**

**Key words:**

India

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Routes, Smuggling, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This multifaceted study describes the lives of 112 Bangladeshi girls and women who were sold as wives, mostly to men in Uttar Pradesh, India. The statistics derived from extensive interviews with those girls and women reveal useful information, such as age when migrated/trafficked, destination, religious identity, education level, reasons for marrying and contact with natal family after marriage. Data are also presented describing the dalals and dalalis — persons who engage in matchmaking and/or the trafficking of girls and women for marriage.

Although the statistics offer insights into the issue, it is the rich narratives of the girls’ and women’s life stories that speak to the complexity of the situation. Using the reviewed literature and those stories, the author shows how factors such as culture, religion and economics interact in influencing who is sold, who buys girls and young women and how they are treated as wives. Because the goal of the investigation was to describe and analyse the lives of girls and women sold as wives, there is no attempt to offer policy recommendations. However, the depth of the report provides important insights for policymakers.

**Brees, I. (2008). Refugee business: Strategies of work on the Thai-Burma border. In: *Journal of Refugee Studies*, 21(3), pp. 380–397.**

**Key words:**

Myanmar, Thailand

Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article critiques the encampment policies of a number of countries hosting significant, long-term populations of refugees. Under these policies, refugees are considered to be a burden and are restricted to camps where they are taken care of by UNHCR but cannot legally work. The author draws on her research on the situation of Myanmar refugees and irregular migrants living and working in Thailand to highlight the complex realities that result from encampment policies. Under Thai government policy, Myanmar refugees, who have lived on the Thai side of the border for 20 years, are required to remain in

camps for protection and assistance; those who live outside of the camps are considered to be irregular migrants. The author argues, however, that this strict distinction between camp refugees and those who live outside is not reflected in reality. She notes that camp refugees have found various strategies to access work outside of the camps, as have those living “illegally” outside of the camps. She also acknowledges that other actors, including local government officials and employers, have been complicit in either tolerating or facilitating refugees’ access to work, thereby further undermining the strict distinction between camp refugees and irregular migrants. The author explains that rather than being a burden, Myanmar refugees have a strong and positive impact on the Thai economy because of their willingness to engage in low- skilled work. Additionally, Myanmar refugees and irregular migrants who are employed to work in the Thai economy could make an even greater contribution if they were afforded labour protection and rights.

The article draws on fieldwork from the Thai border towns of Tak and Mae Hong Son and interviews with more than 150 Myanmar refugee households and five focus group discussions with Myanmar refugees. The focus of the interviews and discussion groups and the kind of information and data gathered from these research methods is not explained within the article. The researcher does say that she engaged in ethnographic observation of the refugees by spending time with them, both inside and outside of the refugee camps, including in some of the refugees’ homes.

The research demonstrates that there is a significant number of Myanmar refugees and irregular migrants working in Thailand with very limited human and labour rights protections extended to them under Thai law — despite the significant contribution they make to the Thai economy. Many of them work illegally and are therefore vulnerable to exploitation.

The article does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling because it does not discuss migration methods used by Myanmar migrants to travel (irregularly) to Thailand. However, it does provide evidence of irregular migration from Myanmar to Thailand and the plight that many Myanmar migrant workers experience after they arrive.

**Busza, J. (2004). Sex work and migration: The dangers of oversimplification: A case study of Vietnamese women in Cambodia. In: *Health and Human Rights*, 7(2), pp. 231–249.**

**Key words:**

Cambodia, Viet Nam  
Concepts, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article explores the situations and experiences of Vietnamese sex workers in Svay Pak, a distinctively ethnic Vietnamese village just outside Phnom Penh in Cambodia. The article uses the example of Svay Pak as a case study to illustrate how some anti-trafficking interventions fail to take into account the diverse realities of women’s lives.

The concept of trafficking in persons used for the analysis is based on the Trafficking in Persons Protocol.

The article draws on data originally collected as part of a larger study in 2000–2002 to evaluate the impact of a social intervention (a drop-in centre and associated health and community activities) for sex workers in the brothels in Svay Pak village.

The data was drawn from 28 in-depth interviews with sex workers as well as 15 participatory workshops (with 72 total participants) that addressed women’s pathways into sex work. The in-depth interviews focused on individual experiences and opinions relating to entering and engaging in sex work; the workshops elicited group norms and common discourse surrounding migration and conditions of sex work. The data analysis focuses on prior knowledge and expectations of sex workers, entry into sex work, views on sex work and the risk of exploitation and violation of human rights.

The author acknowledges some potential sources of bias in the sample as well as possible issues with the validity of some data. Given the marginalizing of the sex worker community and the difficulty of accessing potential participants, the sample for the study was self-selected. In addition, participants were generally

reluctant to discuss problems associated with brothel managers or to admit if they were younger than 18 years.

The research findings fuel the argument that some anti-trafficking interventions harm rather than help women who are vulnerable to trafficking because they do not take into account the women's motivations or reasons for migration. Migration to Svay Pak is often an independent decision on the part of a young woman and supported by friends and family networks. The women often know that they will be working in the sex industry. According to the author, anti-trafficking interventions often do not address this reality and consequently contribute to abuses of sex workers' human rights and exacerbate vulnerabilities to HIV infection and other adverse sexual health outcomes.

The research indicates that many Vietnamese women had prior knowledge of Svay Pak and its reputation for employing Vietnamese sex workers. Although there is a general assumption that the majority of the Vietnamese sex workers in Svay Pak were trafficked, the research shows that many of them chose to engage in such work because it is financially lucrative, although the women were often held in debt bondage until they could repay their purchase price. Working in the sex industry in Svay Pak is a reality for many young southern Vietnamese women who come from situations of poverty; poverty and financial gain were the two most reported factors for Vietnamese women to migrate to Svay Pak.

The article does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling. It does serve to show a strong and traditional migration route for many rural poor Vietnamese women from southern Viet Nam to Svay Pak, Cambodia. However, it is not clear if these women are irregular migrants. There is some discussion in the article of debt bondage and deception of some women who migrate with the assistance of a brothel manager or intermediary.

**Ceccagno, A., Ratrelli, R. and Salvati, A. (2010). Exploitation of Chinese immigrants in Italy. In: G. Yun (ed.). *Concealed chains: Labour exploitation and Chinese migrants in Europe*. Geneva: International Labour Organization (Vol. 1).**

**Key words:**

China

Irregular migration, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This chapter explores the labour exploitation of irregular Chinese migrants in Italy. The researchers focused on legal and illegal activities of Chinese migrants to understand how non-conformity, illegality and crime influence the life and work situations of migrants in Italy and how the development of illegality may be encouraged by the migratory phenomenon.

The report draws on multiple sources of information, including analysis of legal and court documents, fieldwork on illegal and criminal activities, fieldwork on working conditions within the ethnic niche and among Chinese entrepreneurs and analysis of the interaction between migrants and the local society. The qualitative fieldwork on illegal and criminal activities of Chinese nationals (including irregular migrants) in Italy was conducted from 1996 to 2006. It included several meetings with informants and migrants involved in illegal activities as well as regular interaction with law enforcement and crime prevention institutions in Italy. To assess the living and working conditions of Chinese migrants in Italy, the authors reviewed the empirical results of research conducted by the "Spinner group" from 2000 to 2005, which particularly focused on businesses operated by Chinese migrants. This group conducted about 100 qualitative in-depth interviews, mainly on the internal organization of ethnic workshops and irregular forms of work and labour and organized multiple meetings with more than 30 Chinese entrepreneurs each year.

The chapter also is based on some 100 in-depth interviews with Chinese entrepreneurs and labourers conducted by one of the authors between 2002 and 2006. The interviews focused on new working trends among Chinese entrepreneurs, working and living conditions in ethnic workshops, interaction with local entrepreneurs and the conditions of second-generation migrants and their role in the family business.

The authors found that the relationship between Chinese migrants and smugglers can be characterized as “business-like”. Smuggling groups operate as service providers and often work side by side with traditional family networks. Once in Italy, the connection between migrants and smugglers dissolves and migrants have to find employment on their own. Thus, the authors argue that the smugglers are not involved in the trafficking of persons because their relationship with the migrants ends upon entry into the country. However, migrants who are unable to rely on significant social relationships may experience acts of violence by international networks, including kidnapping, ransom and coercion.

The chapter reveals that Chinese migrants working within the “Chinese niche” are forced to work in precarious conditions with limited time for their personal lives. These labour arrangements allow employers to obtain a hugely competitive position in the Italian market by circumventing local laws. The authors also detected a shared willingness and consent from Chinese workers to accept any working arrangements no matter how harsh and degrading they may be. The authors argue that the relationship between Chinese employers and employees evolves from exploitation to dependence and finally to interdependence. They also argue that amnesties have contributed to a degeneration of the relationship between Chinese migrants and local society and have encouraged illegality in relations between migrants.

**Chantavanich, S. (2008). *The Mekong challenge: An honest broker – Improving cross-border recruitment practices for the benefit of government workers and employers*. Bangkok: International Labour Organization.**

**Key words:**

Cambodia, Lao PDR, Thailand  
Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This report examines the effectiveness of the laws and policies on the recruitment of migrant workers from Lao People’s Democratic Republic and Cambodia to Thailand by examining the experiences of regular

and irregular migrant workers. The report uses the bilateral Memoranda of Understanding on Cooperation in Employment of Workers between Thailand and Lao PDR and Thailand and Cambodia (signed 2002 and 2003, respectively) as a policy basis from which to discuss the ineffectiveness and inefficiency of formal recruitment methods for Lao and Cambodian migrant workers wanting to work in Thailand when compared with informal recruitment methods. The research focused on migrants working in the construction, manufacturing and food processing sectors in Thailand.

The report draws on research commissioned by the International Labour Organization in Cambodia, Lao PDR and Thailand on the implementation of the bilateral MOUs to compare the processes of regular and irregular recruitment of migrant workers between the two sending countries. The research involved a quantitative survey as well as in-depth interviews with regular and irregular Lao and Cambodian migrants in Thailand and those migrants who had returned home, migrant recruiters, government officials, NGO workers and other actors in the recruitment process. A standard questionnaire was developed and used by three research teams based in each of the three countries for the interviews with 177 regular and 160 irregular migrants from Cambodia and Lao PDR.

The most significant finding is that irregular migration channels are more flexible and more efficient than regular migration channels and recruitment processes. Through the research and its analysis of the formal and informal recruitment processes, the researchers conclude that regular migration channels did not afford better protection or working conditions for those wanting to migrate to Thailand for work. In addition, regular recruitment channels to facilitate migration and working opportunities in Thailand often came at a high cost and with a long procedural time frame.

The report does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling. However, it provides information about the formal and informal recruitment and migration channels and methods used between Cambodia and Lao PDR to Thailand and some information on the cost of recruitment services. The researchers also present a strong argument as to why current migration management policies between the

three countries are failing, primarily because the demand for migrant workers in Thailand is high and the supply of workers is strong but the formal recruitment channels are slow, cumbersome, expensive and not necessarily any safer for workers than the informal channels.

**Chin, J. (2007). Patterns, trends and government policies: Understanding irregular migration from China. In: E. A. D. Aryeetey (ed.). *Testing global interdependence: Issues on trade, aid, migration and development*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.**

**Key words:**

China

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Irregular migration, Routes, Profiles of irregular migrants, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This book chapter explores the patterns and trends in Chinese irregular out-migration and presents the Chinese Government's response and policies towards irregular migration channels and migration-sending regions.

The chapter draws on the author's ethnographic research in various coastal villages and towns in southern China, with a special reference to Fuzhou city, which, according to the author, represents one of the major sources for irregular out-migration in China. Over several years, the author conducted face-to-face interviews with more than 150 people using a standardized questionnaire, which the author had drafted and memorized. The author carried a digital recorder to help accurately document all informal conversations.

All interviews and conversations were arranged and conducted within the context of personal networks. The data collected through the interviews, conversations and observations were classified and saved on a computer. To identify further areas for closer examination and in-depth analysis, the author also systematically read and analysed news reports published in China, Taiwan Province of China and Hong Kong (China).

The author notes that the viewpoints and data presented in this chapter were mainly collected from the author's interviews, observations and informal conversations with various people involved in irregular migration activities, including former irregular migrants and their family members, migrant smugglers, border police officials, grocery store owners, peddlers, bank staff, fortune tellers, taxi drivers, motorcycle couriers, hotel doormen, fishermen and local residents as well as government officials at various levels. The author explains that only a few representative examples and figures were selected from individual years.

The study found that the irregular migrants from China mainly hailed from Fuzhou city (Fujian Province), Wenzhou city (Zhejiang Province) and three provinces in north-eastern China (Heilongjiang, Jilin and Liaoning). The author detected three important similarities in the source regions in southern China: access to money (borrowed from relatives or underground lenders or informal credit associations), clandestine transportation channels and international migration networks. Additionally, those geographic areas have a long history of out-migration and locals seeking adventures abroad. In contrast, out-migration is a relatively new phenomenon for the north-eastern areas and is mainly driven by unemployment.

According to the author, there are at least three types of irregular migration from China: organized smuggling, overstaying a legal visit and marriages of convenience. New trends are also enumerated. The study concludes that the current policies adopted by both Western countries and China cannot effectively address or stop the waves of irregular migration from China. Unless economic disparities between China and Western countries are greatly reduced, the Chinese irregular migration flows are likely to continue.

The chapter provides a good overview of relevant issues concerning Chinese irregular out-migration and smuggling, including migration flows, regions and countries of destination, fees and payments, migration patterns and trends, factors that fuel irregular migration and profiles of irregular migrants along with the Chinese Government's response and policies.

**Chin, J. (2008). Human smuggling and trafficking in the Taiwan strait: Security predicament or political dilemma? In: M. A. W. Curley (ed.). *Security and migration in Asia*. New York: Routledge.**

**Key words:**

China

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Profiles of smugglers, Routes, Trafficking flows, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This book chapter examines migrant smuggling and the trafficking of persons in the Taiwan Strait as a case study to test the utility of treating migration flows and policies in East Asia as security issues. Statistics are used from the Taiwanese Immigration Office. The chapter concludes that migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons in the Taiwan Strait is a political dilemma rather than a security issue.

The historical background for irregular migration flows from China to the Taiwan Province of China since the thawing of relations in the late 1980s is analysed. These movements have mainly been motivated by the gap in wealth between the China and Taiwan Province of China, which has fuelled waves of migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons. The author introduces the geographic origins of the irregular migrants and examines why the overwhelming majority hails from Fujian Province.

The author explains that smuggling operations have evolved over time and provides detailed information of the ever-transforming operations of smugglers. Since the late 1980s, smuggling activities have shifted from small fishermen's enterprises to criminal syndicates. Smuggling from Fujian Province is typically organized by small migration or criminal networks based on ethnic, kinship or friendship affiliations. This is because the "snakeheads" (underworld entrepreneurs) only trust relatives, fellow villagers or friends to pay the last instalment of the smuggling

fee and not report them to the police. However, the human costs of trafficking operations are rising. The snakeheads are reportedly respected by local residents because they have assisted their fellow villagers in becoming wealthy.

The chapter provides information on the smuggling process between China and Taiwan Province of China. Various smugglers' methods are described as well as the relationship between smugglers and migrants and the status that smugglers enjoy in their communities. The information on the evolution of smuggling organizations since 1987 is also very relevant. Smuggling fees are not described. Sometimes it is unclear if the author is discussing smuggling or trafficking methods because they seem to be related.

**Chu, J. Y. (2006). To be "emplaced": Fuzhounese migration and the politics of destination. In: *Identities*, 13(3), pp. 395–425.**

**Key words:**

China

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article explores what it means to be "emplaced" (as opposed to being "displaced") for both Chinese migrants and people who remain behind. In doing so, the article intends to correct what the author perceives as an overemphasis on "displacement" in the migration literature. By examining the experiences and perceptions of those who "remain behind" in China and comparing this with the experiences and perceptions of those who migrate, the author argues that the greatest feelings of displacement are actually experienced by those who feel trapped at home and unable to migrate. The author explores non-economic factors that fuel the desire of Chinese people from Fuzhou city to migrate despite the physical dangers and economic costs of travelling through migrant smuggling networks.

Drawing on anthropological theories of exchange and value, the author broadens the existing economic analysis of the risks and rewards of Fuzhounese

migration by demonstrating how the aspirations of the subjects of the study were shaped by various and often entangled regimes of values.

This ethnographic study draws on data collected during 14 months of fieldwork in a migrant-sending rural village near Fuzhou city, where 85 per cent of households have at least one member living in the United States. During this time, the author lived and worked in the village and collected data through taped interviews and informal conversations with relevant actors and from village and district reports and self-published memoirs.

The key finding of this unusual research is that for the Fuzhouese subjects in the study, the ultimate form of displacement was seen and experienced as a result of immobility rather than physical departure from the home. In addition to economic motives, the desire to migrate was shaped by values tied to state building projects and local hierarchies of status, gender, kinship and religion. For example, Fuzhouese spend their overseas remittances predominantly on the restoration and building of non-productive and non-income-generating elaborate temples and houses rather than investing in local economic activities.

The article does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling; however, it highlights the importance and role of non-economic factors that contribute to the irregular out-migration from Fuzhou city.

**Clarke, M. (2009). Over the border and under the radar: Can illegal migrants be active citizens? In: *Development in Practice*, 19(8), pp. 1064–1078.**

**Key words:**

Myanmar, Thailand

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article highlights the inability of irregular Myanmar migrants in Thailand to be active in their new communities because of their irregular migrant sta-

tus. The author argues that the irregular migration status has a negative impact on the ability of those migrants to influence and contribute to a sustainable development policy through which they could benefit most. The author states that the poorest populations are often the least able or likely to participate in the decision-making processes that affect them and uses the case of irregular Myanmar migrants in Thailand to support the argument. The lack of participation is attributed to lack of political and legal support for Myanmar migrants who want to become active participants in a community, a high level of mobility among the irregular Myanmar migrant population, a low level of trust in government and authorities due to the threat of deportation and a lack of protection from exploitation and harassment from authorities. The author discusses the importance of NGOs as “advocate guardians” in assuming a role in the community on behalf of irregular Myanmar migrants in Thailand.

The article is based in part on a meta-review of lessons learned by a Thai-based NGO offering medical and health support to Myanmar migrants. The NGO could not be named because of the nature of its work with Myanmar migrants. No other information on the research method is given.

The author notes that irregular Myanmar migrants do not aspire to be active participants in the community despite the fact that doing so could work to improve their livelihoods and living conditions in Thailand. This is due to their irregular status and the need to remain as “invisible” as possible to escape the attention of Thai authorities and possible deportation.

The article does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling; however, it provides insight into the frequency with which irregular migration routes from Myanmar to Thailand are used. The author notes that border crossing is more like moving from one village to another, with some Myanmar residents crossing back and forth daily for work. The author also notes some of the push-pull factors that prompts Myanmar migrants to cross the border to Thailand irregularly, including the political turmoil in Myanmar and Thailand’s economic prosperity and employment opportunities. There is a brief discussion on the methods used by Myanmar migrants to travel to Thailand, which are



mostly linked to networks of family and friends and not third parties, such as traffickers and/or smugglers.

**Constable, N. (2009). Migrant workers and the many states of protest in Hong Kong. In: *Critical Asian Studies*, 41(1), pp. 143–164.**

**Key words:**

China, Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand  
Routes

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article analyses the factors that permit public protests by migrant workers and shape their form and content. A case study examining the Consulate Hopping Protest and Hall of Shame Awards event in Hong Kong (China) are used as ethnographic examples of domestic workers' protests. Because protests by migrants are rare in Hong Kong (China), the author looked into why it occurs. The author argues that migrant workers' protests and activism are shaped by inter-ethnic worker affiliations and Hong Kong (China)'s situation as a post-colonial "global city". The author concludes that migrants' protests are tolerated in Hong Kong (China) because they do not threaten the broader economic interests of Hong Kong (China) and its citizens, unlike other protests in Asia.

Trafficking in persons and migrant smuggling are not addressed and irregular migration is only briefly touched upon. However, the article does address regional migration flows and migrating routes that domestic workers take to find jobs, which could include irregular channels. The various motivations for seeking out domestic work are described and the use of regular processes is quantified. Government involvement in promoting the migration of domestic workers (in particular focusing on Indonesia) is examined.

The article's main focus is placed on migrants' situations within the country of origin. National policies governing migrant workers are also addressed. The specific focus on Hong Kong (China) limits the article's relevance for the Asian region, due to the uniqueness of conditions in Hong Kong (China).

Although the article does not specifically address migrant smuggling or irregular migration, the information on regular domestic workers provides background for understanding the broader migration issues in the region.

**Crawford, M. E. (2010). *Sex trafficking in South Asia: Telling Maya's story*. New York: Routledge.**

**Key words:**

India  
South Asia  
Concepts, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

Focusing on the case of Nepal, this book provides a critical feminist analysis of trafficking for sexual exploitation. Using the reviewed literature along with stories collected during her fieldwork, the author shows how the social construction of trafficking for sexual exploitation is influenced by gender, caste and social class. She asks whose voices are heard when sex trafficking is defined and described because, the author argues, structural forms of power disadvantage certain groups of women and girls, increasing their vulnerability to trafficking. The concept of trafficking for sexual exploitation and its representation in the discourse is the focus of her analysis. She discusses how the media and development practitioners construct narratives of a credible victim, one who is blameless, naive and innocent and thus deserving of assistance. The author concludes that the dominant construction of the trafficked women in Nepal reflect Western stereotypes of generic "third world women". In the final chapter, she suggests a number of ways forward, including the promotion of evidence-based policies and programmes with rigorous outcome assessments and evaluations, more reflexion in the research and the adoption of a human rights approach to trafficking for sexual exploitation. In this regard, the book holds value for researchers and practitioners alike.

**Crinis, V. (2005). *The devil you know: Malaysian perceptions of foreign workers*. [Paper in**

**special issue: A. Kaur and I. Metcalfe (eds.). *Migrant Labour in Southeast Asia: Needed, Not Wanted.*] In: *Review of Indonesian and Malaysian Affairs*, 39(2), pp. 91–111.**

**Key words:**

China, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand, Singapore

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants, Routes

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This paper examines media representations of foreign workers in Malaysia from the 1970s to the present, specifically focusing on Indonesian workers. The author argues that even though Indonesian migrant labourers have significantly contributed to the economic development of Malaysia, they are demonized by the Malaysian media. There is thus a conflict between economic interests in Malaysia, which favour cheap foreign labour, and the perception that foreign labour undermines Malaysia's social stability and wages for national labourers. The research for the paper is based on Malay and English language newspaper sources and augmented by personal communication with employers of foreign domestic workers. The specific framework used to analyse the articles is not specified. Labour migration studies and national statistics are used as additional sources of data. The article concludes that undocumented labour migration into Malaysia remains an issue.

According to the paper, Indonesians enter Malaysia irregularly with the help of family and friends and middlemen operating illegally. Bilateral policies between Malaysia and Indonesia to combat undocumented migration are examined, although Indonesians are described as preferring irregular channels to avoid bureaucratic processes. The paper focuses mainly on the public discourse on the issue of foreign labour and emphasizes the feminization of labour migration flows from Indonesia to Malaysia as well as Malaysian policy for hiring maids. Since the 1990s, according to the author, the discourse on Indonesian and Filipino maids has become increasingly sexualized and they are increasingly portrayed as a threat to the family.

The paper mainly examines the country of destination's perception of migrant workers and does not explore the issue of irregular labour migration in detail. While Indonesian workers reportedly prefer irregular routes through family connections and middlemen, the process of irregular migration itself is not further examined. The role of the middlemen is not addressed in more detail and it is left open as to what role they actually have. The paper does not provide any new data on irregular migration or migrant smuggling.

**Crock, M., Saul, B. and Dastyari, A. (2006). *Future seekers II: Refugees and irregular migration in Australia.* Sydney: The Federation Press.**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan, Cambodia, China, Indonesia, Sri Lanka, Viet Nam

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Profiles of irregular migrants, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Profiles of smugglers, Quantitative assessment, Routes, Smuggling, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

The purpose of this chapter is to review the situation of migrant smuggling and trafficking of persons into Australia and the Australian policy response to these crimes. The case study of the SIEV X (a fishing boat with around 400 asylum seekers largely from Iraq and Afghanistan travelling from Indonesia to Australia that sank in 2001, drowning 353 of them, including children) is used to demonstrate how smuggling to Australia takes place, how the Australian Government responded to the case, what kind of people were smuggled and what happened to the smugglers. Information on the SIEV X accident stems from a transcribed interview with one of the survivors one week after the boat sank. Statistics are cited from UNHCR and NGOs, but no methodology is explained. The chapter defines "people smuggling" according to the Australian Department of Immigration, whereas "people trafficking" is defined according to the Trafficking in Persons Protocol.

The chapter provides information on alleged smuggling fees from various countries and regions of origin. Smuggling is thought to be carried out by organized criminal groups in southern China, Indonesia, Jordan, Lebanon, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore and Thailand. Smugglers are usually involved in related criminal activities, such as document fraud, illegal prostitution and migration agent malpractice. Risks and hazards to smuggled migrants are listed, using the case of the SIEV X as an example. The chapter also provides detailed information on why migrants chose to migrate through smuggling channels — mainly attributed to long bureaucratic processes and the lack of access to the asylum procedure.

The chapter sheds light on the methods of smuggling operations to Australia, including financial and human costs. Factors exacerbating smuggling flows are also discussed. However, the SIEV X incident is the only specific case study of smuggling detailed, and it is unclear whether the findings from this case can be applied to most smuggling flows to Australia. Although smugglers are stated as forming organized criminal groups, it is unclear to what degree they are organized and what form this organization takes.

**D'Amato, G., Gerber, B. and Kamm, M. (2005). *Menschenschmuggel und irreguläre Migration in der Schweiz*. In: *SFM – Forschungsbericht 37*.**

**Key words:**

China

Fees and payment for smuggling, Modus operandi of smuggling, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Routes, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This paper analyses different forms, backgrounds and dynamics of migrant smuggling to and through Switzerland. The paper uses migrant smuggling as defined by the Swiss Aliens Act.

The research involved more than 40 face-to-face interviews with practitioners and experts of federal agencies, NGOs and research institutes. The purpose of these interviews was to gain knowledge about mi-

grant smuggling into and through Switzerland and related issues. In addition, the situation regarding migrant smuggling was examined in three cantons, at Zurich's international airport and at the federal level.

The research finds that Switzerland is a country of destination as well as a country of transit, and smuggled migrants often arrive via the Balkans and Adriatic routes. From there, they try to cross the unguarded border on foot, guided by a smuggler. The research found that unauthorized crossings have also increased at the western border of Switzerland, but the southern and eastern borders also remain attractive to migrants. Most of the smuggled migrants originate from the Balkans and the Kurdish areas of Turkey and to a lesser extent from Africa, the Caucasus, the Middle East, Moldova and Ukraine.

Often, migrants from China and Sri Lanka use Swiss airports as transit areas, where they are provided with new documents by smugglers and continue their journey to Canada, the United Kingdom or the United States. Experts in this study suspect that in about half of the smuggling cases, the smuggler is either related to or acquainted with the smuggled migrant. The remaining cases are predominantly characterized by mom-and-pop organizations, which operate in border areas. According to the study, the Swiss authorities do not know of any professional smugglers or organized smuggling "mafias" operating in the country, with the exception of the Zurich airport. The report identifies various problems concerning data collection and combating migrant smuggling, such as the lack of legal protection for smuggled migrants willing to make a statement and the prohibition of phone tapping, which makes it difficult to combat migrant smuggling. Furthermore, the lack of current data makes it impossible to accurately assess the scope, pattern and overall situation of migrant smuggling in Switzerland. The inherent problem of the Swiss federal system, which demands that resolutions must be implemented over several levels, produces unclear jurisdictions, which results in different responsibilities and punishments for smuggling, depending on the canton. The offence of migrant smuggling is punished differently in the cantons. The study concludes that Switzerland lacks national coordination measures and necessary international cooperation. According to the authors, Switzerland's restrictive migration policy ensures that the services of migrant smugglers remain attractive.

The paper provides a profile of Chinese irregular migrants using Swiss airports as transit areas as well as routes, fees and misuse of documents. The paper also makes reference to smuggled migrants from Pakistan and Sri Lanka; however, no detailed information is provided.

The paper is based on interviews with experts, which results in limitations regarding the knowledge gained on migrant smuggling. The study presents little information on root causes, motives, flows of migrant smuggling and irregular migration in general.

**Datta, P. (2004). Push-pull factors of undocumented migration from Bangladesh to West Bengal: A perception study. In: *Qualitative Report*, 9(2), pp. 335–358.**

**Key words:**

India

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

Large-scale migration from Bangladesh to India has been ongoing since the partitioning of Bengal in 1947. Reasons for this migration, such as the political instability fostered by the Bangladesh liberation war in 1971, are well documented. What have not been studied are the push-pull factors that influenced migration in recent years, especially since 2000. Using qualitative methods, especially in-depth interviews, the author of this paper used open-ended questions to glean respondents' views on various issues relating to the impact and motivating factors in irregular migration. Key informants included political leaders, administrators, physicians and demographers. The push-pull dichotomy was further delineated by subcategories. Push factors were discussed in terms of economics and demographics as well as social, political and law and order dimensions. Economic pull factors were discussed as a single category; however, an umbrella category was created to focus on demographic, social and geographic factors. A unique category, not found in the "push" analysis, was political and religious influences in migration. Each category, in both the push and pull dimensions, was analysed

further, with percentages regarding the importance and reasons why a given category was consequential in understanding the issue of migration. A brief list of possible policy implications is also presented.

**David, F. (2008). Trafficking of women for sexual purposes. In: *Research and Public Policy Series (Vol. 95)*. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology.**

**Key words:**

Thailand

Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This report provides insight into the issues, barriers and challenges that have arisen in the trafficking of persons cases in Australia to date, either in relation to victim detection or the investigation or prosecution of offenders. Reflecting the funding source (the Australian Office for Women), the research had a particular focus on the trafficking of women for sexual services.

The research involved a literature review, a review of court transcripts and semi-structured interviews with individuals who have worked directly with victims of trafficking in Australia, including victim support workers, investigators and prosecutors. Interviews sought information on the issues, challenges or barriers that have arisen in known trafficking cases, along with lessons learned regarding victim identification and the investigation and prosecution of offenders.

The report provides information about the available administrative data from the Australian Government's anti-trafficking response, including the number of referrals from the Department of Immigration to the specialist police, the number of police investigations and assessments and prosecutions. The report notes a number of instances involving Thai women trafficked into Australia; 62 of the 88 victims of trafficking in the Australian Government's victim-support programme were Thai women.

Findings of the research include that cases have primarily come to the attention of the Australian

Federal Police specialist anti-trafficking unit partly as a result of government activity (primarily referrals from the Department of Immigration) but also through trafficked persons having sought help. For example, in some cases, trafficked persons called the emergency police number “000”, went to local police stations, contacted their embassy in Australia or asked the men they met in brothels to help them. While migration-compliance activities have led to a number of referrals, there are competing views about the impact of these activities. In particular, there is a concern that this has led to the “back-door” re-introduction of law enforcement involvement in the sex industry, a policy that was scrapped many years earlier in favour of policies of decriminalization or legalization on harm-minimizing grounds.

The trafficking cases have been complex and have not met stereotypical views about the experience of trafficking. Women have been detained and controlled through subtle means, but some of their situations have been far from clear-cut. In some instances, there was an unresolved tension between wanting to respect women’s agency and recognizing that women can be operating in situations of constrained choice, which could be exploited. Police noted that the detected cases did not match stereotypes about high-end organized crime and that cases of trafficking had been detected in both the legal and illegal sex industries.

Investigators and prosecutors emphasized the importance of a high-quality victim support programme, giving examples of how the lack of it hindered early investigations. Other issues have included the need to increase the use of interpreters in the programme, a perceived variability in the quality and type of services offered, limited opportunities for family reunification and the need for more legal advice for clients.

Prosecutors reflected on a number of challenges that have arisen. In particular, prior inconsistent statements (a victim’s initial statement differs from her final signed statement) have been a major hurdle, allowing the defence easy ammunition to discredit the trafficked person — the key witness in the prosecution. Prosecutors also noted various gaps in the Australian legal framework that led to inconsistent protection for victims of trafficking giving evidence in court.

The report includes recommendations, including a re-conceptualizing of the visa framework to accom-

modate situations in which women (who are not in stable or regular migration situations) need help but do not want to talk to the police; clarifying the time frames for moving women into different visa categories; funding culturally appropriate services for women so that trafficked women can access services outside of the criminal justice system; and ensuring a level of quality control with the victim support service. The authors also recommend developing standard operating procedures for the Australian Federal Police specialist team working on trafficking issues, expanding police training to give more focus on working directly with victims of crime and monitoring the impact of the anti-trafficking response, including its impact beyond the target audience of both victims of trafficking and offenders.

**David, F. (2010). Labour trafficking. In: *Research and Public Policy Series (Vol. 108)*. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology.**

**Key words:**

China, India, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand  
Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This report examines what is known about labour trafficking in Australia, based on reported crimes and on information about unreported crime. It provides an assessment of the known or likely incidence of trafficking in persons that can occur in the agriculture, cleaning, hospitality, construction and manufacturing industries or in less formal sectors, such as domestic work and other home help.

The research involved a literature review, content analysis of court reports and court transcripts, a media search on alleged forced labour or slavery cases and interviews with relevant government officials (police, prosecutors, labour regulators) and non-government organizations (unions, church organizations, community organizations and people within ethnic community networks).

The research findings indicate that while the degree of trafficking for labour in Australia remains unknown,

there have been instances of unreported and unrecognized labour trafficking, suggesting the existence of both underreporting and a lack of awareness among front-line agencies and services that certain exploitive practices are criminal under Australian law. The report presents examples involving the abuse or exploitation of migrants from many countries, including China, India, Malaysia and Philippines. The author notes that the cases of unreported labour trafficking exist in an environment of broader unlawful conduct perpetrated against migrant workers in Australia and suggests that responding to this broader environment will help to curb the “breeding ground” for more extreme instances, such as slavery and forced labour.

The report notes the importance of intermediaries and agents in the travel and recruitment processes to Australia and also once migrants are working in Australia, with situations in China, Malaysia and Singapore singled out. The broader context within which opportunities for offending and risks for victimization appear to be present was also outlined. In particular, the role of intermediaries in facilitating access to what might be described as risky migration pathways, involving payment of exorbitant fees to brokers and agents overseas, and the role of diasporas as both a source of protection and as a site of potential exploitation are cited.

The report highlights the importance of focusing not only on extreme cases of exploitation but also on more numerous, readily detectable cases that are perhaps precursors to more extreme conduct or contribute to the creation of an environment that tolerates exploitation. The research also suggests that the effective regulation of this issue will likely require an approach that addresses a gradation of exploitive practices, grounded not only in criminal law but in labour law. The report emphasizes the importance of ensuring that front-line agencies (such as local police, labour inspectors and unions) are aware of the relevant federal anti-trafficking response and that federal agencies are aware of the potential for cooperating with relevant state and territory agencies.

**Dewey, S. (2008). *Hollow bodies: Institutional responses to sex trafficking in Armenia, Bosnia and India*. Sterling, Virginia [USA]: Kumarian Press.**

**Key words:**

India  
Concepts, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

Based on qualitative research conducted during her time with the International Organization for Migration (IOM), the author of this book raises questions about the institutional responses to and definitions of trafficking for sexual exploitation at the international and local levels. Three countries — Armenia, Bosnia-Herzegovina and India — are analysed as case studies to show how the global problem plays out at the local level and why millions of dollars in aid is having little impact on the lives of women who are trafficked into the sex trade. The author interviewed a range of actors, from bar workers in India to embassy officials in Armenia. From donor-driven agendas and restrictions imposed on NGOs to corrupt officials and the political motivations that underlie counter-trafficking initiatives, the author sheds light on the institutional flaws that enable trafficking for sexual exploitation to continue. Victims of trafficking, she argues, are often invisible to staff of international organizations. Faceless figures are constructed as hollow bodies to be filled with assumptions and stereotypes by agency staff and policymakers. Her ethnographic research illustrates that trafficking victims do not share a monolithic set of experiences that can be addressed by the same blueprint approach.

One of the reasons why counter-trafficking interventions fail, the author argues, is because sustainable, long-term economic support is not offered to trafficking victims. The author highlights the Economic Rehabilitation of Trafficked Victims programme developed by IOM India as an exception. The programme is praised because it addresses the need to provide financial independence to women forced into prostitution to ensure they do not become victims of trafficking again. The final chapter offers a discussion of how trafficking is a global phenomenon highly localized in nature. The author stresses how neoliberal economic models have exacerbated social inequalities by creating a commodity culture. It is hardly surprising, she concludes, that individuals also become commodities available for sale.

**Düvell, F. and Jordon, B. (2005). Documented and undocumented immigrant workers in the UK: Changing environments and shifting strategies. In: F. Düvell (ed.), *Illegal immigration in Europe: Beyond control* (pp. 48–74). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.**

**Key words:**

India

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This chapter centres on two groups of migrants in the United Kingdom, both regular and irregular, from Poland and India. The authors were interested in why members of these distinct groups came to the United Kingdom and how they arrived, their experiences in finding work, how they avoided detection and what factors influenced their decisions. The investigation was carried out during two time periods, 1998–1999 (Poles in the United Kingdom) and 2000–2003 (Indians in the United Kingdom). The sample consisted of 25 interviews with Polish migrants, plus 10 more at a later date. Eleven Indian work permit holders were also interviewed. Data are presented describing the sample in terms of age, gender and employment.

The responses from each group are analysed separately because the circumstances under which they entered the United Kingdom were different; however, similarities are apparent along with the contrasts. Some differences were expected because of the way in which the migrants entered the United Kingdom. For example, most Polish migrants came on tourist visas whereas Indian migrants held work permits. In terms of differences, a key finding is that members of both groups presented themselves as rational market actors and their behaviours reflected that position. Another similarity is the role that interpersonal relationships played in making the decision to migrate as well as providing support once they arrived in the United Kingdom. The authors also note that undocumented workers from both groups (Polish and Indian) did not differ markedly in their attitudes and behaviours from those workers who held work permits, except for obvious situations (such as avoid-

ing detection). Although no specific policy recommendations are presented, the authors question why individuals are treated differently in spite of similar features.

**Ferguson, S. (writer). (2010). *Smugglers' paradise. On Four Corners*. Australia: Australian Broadcasting Corporation.**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan, Indonesia, Malaysia

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Profiles of smugglers, Routes, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

(media – non-empirical)

**Summary:**

This documentary from the Australian Broadcasting Corporation sets out to expose the business of migrant smuggling from Indonesia to Australia. The research method was not empirically scientific but investigative journalism. With the assistance of a recognized Iraqi refugee in Indonesia waiting to be resettled with his family to Australia, the journalist team investigates the workings of the smuggling business within Indonesia and records numerous smugglers and corrupt Indonesian officials on hidden camera. Although this source is not an example of social science research in the usual sense, it nonetheless serves to expose migrant smuggling routes and methods never addressed by academic researchers.

To reveal the underground channel of smuggling from Indonesia to Australia, the Iraqi refugee used his contacts with other refugees to get in touch with smugglers in charge of marine operations to Australia. Posing as an interested passenger, the Iraqi refugee collected information about the organization of smugglers, their methods and various fees charged for smuggling services. Smugglers spoke openly of their cooperation with corrupt Indonesian officials in the Department of Immigration or police force. The Iraqi refugee also met with several of these officials, still feigning interest in gaining passage to Australia. The encounters were filmed on hidden camera and aired in the broadcast. Non-

English interviews were translated for the purpose of the broadcast.

The investigative documentary reveals that the migrant smuggling business from Indonesia to Australia depends on corruption within such Indonesian institutions as the Department of Immigration and the police force and military. Although Australia and Indonesia are cooperating to build detention centres for asylum seekers and refugees to prevent them from travelling to Australia with the assistance of smugglers, Indonesian officials regularly accept bribes to release individuals or groups. In addition, officers from the police force and military are revealed to be directly involved in assisting with smuggling operations, including captaining boats. The smugglers, all of whom were male, appeared to largely work on their own, each with his own ties to corrupt officials. The documentary did not display any evidence of hierarchical smuggling organizations.

The documentary provides a wealth of information on a topic largely neglected by empirical literature: the smuggling of Middle Eastern and West Asian migrants from Indonesia to Australia. While mention is made of this phenomenon in academic sources, the topic is not addressed in detail and does not provide any insight as to the workings of these smuggling operations and migrants' motivations for using the services. Most academic sources instead focus on smuggling within the context of labour migration to other South-East Asian countries.

The greatest strength of the documentary is its exposure of individual smuggling operations through the use of hidden cameras. Through this technique, smugglers and corrupt officials are displayed talking freely about their "business". However, there is no evidence that additional research was undertaken to ascertain whether these interviews can be considered representative of smuggling operations from Indonesia to Australia. Because the method is journalistic as opposed to academic, its usefulness as empirical research is limited. Nonetheless, it clearly reveals that a wealth of information exists regarding these smuggling flows that has not yet been adequately addressed by academic research.

**Ford, M. (2006). *After Nunukan: The regulation of Indonesian migration to Malaysia.***

**In: A. Kaur and I. Metcalfe (eds.), *Mobility, labour migration and border controls in Asia.* New York: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 228–247.**

**Key words:**

Indonesia, Malaysia  
Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Smuggling, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

In 2002, the Malaysian Government deported almost 400,000 undocumented Indonesian workers, thus creating a humanitarian crisis. One of the affected areas was Nunukan, a small island on Kalimantan's east coast (Indonesia). The humanitarian crisis became a critical incident in the management of Indonesia's migration flows to Malaysia and a focal point reflected in this chapter. The overall goal of the investigation was to examine the Malaysian Government's management of Indonesian labour migration and the Indonesian Government's response. A special emphasis was placed on the Government of Indonesia and the provinces given newly implemented regional autonomy.

The initial section of this four-part chapter uses government data to describe labour flows of both regular and irregular migrants. The Malaysian Government's migration policies that led to the 2002 mass deportation are subsequently discussed. The final sections describe and analyse the Indonesian Government's policies before and after the Nunukan incident. Data in the final sections are drawn from government sources, but NGO reports and interviews with key informants are used as well. No specific information about the interview sample and data-gathering procedures is provided.

The initial response of the Indonesian Government was to transfer the expelled migrants who were living in Nunukan to other locations; however, a large number remained and were placed in camps run by labour-sending companies. The ensuing problems for the migrants, such as health and security, were compounded by the stress placed on the local community. The Government ignored the issue until media reports prompted action, but subsequent action



was minimal. Because of pressure brought by activists, the Government eventually enacted a series of laws and policies to help migrants, and bilateral and multilateral negotiations also began. The author then traces the progress of these efforts, including their impact. An important finding is that the Indonesian Government continues to respond in a centralized manner, to the detriment of transit provinces.

**Gembicka, K. (2006).** *Baseline research on smuggling of migrants, in, from and through Central Asia.* Vienna: International Organization for Migration.

**Key words:**

Afghanistan, China, India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka East Asia, South Asia, South-East Asia Fees and payment for smuggling, Irregular Migration, Methodology, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Routes, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This report expounds on the trends of smuggling of migrants in, from and through Central Asia, including the routes, patterns and most susceptible groups. In this study, Central Asia refers exclusively to Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan.

The specific method of “vector” approach (cross referencing different sources) was used within the study, indicating the volume and patterns of smuggling of migrants. The primary research methodology was based on a survey, including face-to-face interviews, mailed questionnaires, literature reviews, official records and demographic surveys. The data gathered through the surveys were evaluated by local researchers and their analysis composed in national country reports. In Kyrgyzstan, the research was prolonged in order to assess additional phenomena, such as the transit of Bangladeshi migrants through the country.

The report concludes that Central Asian countries are mainly transit channels for migrants from South and South-East Asia on their way westward. Some

of the reasons for smuggling routes through Central Asian countries include relatively low technical capacity to detect irregular migrants, long porous borders, the existence of diaspora communities in the countries of transit and destination and logistical prerequisites, such as direct air routes through the region. Although it was not possible to quantify the smuggling of migrants into the region, it was possible for the researchers to establish trends and patterns of the smuggling movement. However, Central Asian countries are not only transit countries but also countries of origin and increasingly countries of destination for smuggled migrants from China and Afghanistan. This is due to the higher standard of living in some of those countries. The governments of Central Asian countries have taken some steps to manage and regulate migration and to prevent the violation of migrants’ rights. Nevertheless, the report points out that much improvement is needed. For example, none of the countries have criminalized the smuggling of migrants in their national law.

According to the report, assessing the extent of irregular migration is particularly challenging because of missing, unreliable or unavailable data. Thus, the three country chapters in this report differ due to varying availability of information.

The country chapters provide valuable insights into the context of migrant smuggling and highlight smuggling routes, the organization of smuggling, fees and profiles of smuggled migrants. Each country chapter includes a list of recommendations from national migration authorities and local NGOs. The report also provides general background information on the smuggling of migrants, distinguishes the phenomenon from trafficking in persons and irregular migration and elaborates on its link to human rights.

**Ghosh, B. (2009).** *Trafficking in women and children in India: Nature, dimensions and strategies for prevention.* In: *The International Journal of Human Rights*, 13(5), pp. 716–738.

**Key words:**

India

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Smuggling, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

The major goals of this article are captured well by the title. Focusing on the country of India, the author is concerned with the nature of trafficking, especially of women and children, as well its scope. The author offers a large number of in-depth recommendations for ameliorating the situation. The data from which the analysis is built derives from government sources to depict not only the breadth and depth of the problem but also such issues as the underreporting of trafficking and crimes against women and children. The official statistics are contrasted with studies carried out by external researchers that dispute the government findings, especially the underreporting. These latter investigations challenge government reporting by examining such issues as police corruption, category definitions (for example, what is kidnapping?) and problems with reporting (such as the reluctance of traumatized victims to testify or even report crimes).

With this background, the author then turns her attention to the specific area of West Bengal to delve more deeply into the topic. In this second level of analysis, case studies are used to explore both the reasons and the modalities of trafficking. Another research team reported the three cases, but no mention is made how the researchers worked. The factors regarding the trafficking of women and children are discussed in terms of the push-and-pull nature and they include economic, educational and socio-cultural reasons.

The final section of the article offers 11 strategies for prevention. As the author points out, the changing nature of migration and mobility means prevention cannot be handled by governments alone; proposals are made for both international and national efforts and for short-term and long-term measures to halt trafficking.

**Gibbins, B. (2010). Remembering the SIEV X: Who cares for the bodies of the stateless,**

**lost at sea? In: *Public Historian*, 32(1), pp. 13–30.**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan, Indonesia

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Profiles of irregular migrants, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article discusses the Australian debates surrounding the creation of a memorial for those who died on the SIEV X, a small fishing vessel traveling from Indonesia to Australia carrying about 400 asylum seekers that sank in international waters in 2001. Specific focus is laid on how supposed “enemies” or “illegal migrants” are perceived as posing a threat to Australian national borders. The author is a public historian who took part in the campaigns to erect the SIEV X memorial in Canberra. The article draws on the author’s experience in the campaign as well as interviews with SIEV X survivors, Australian parliamentary debates, secondary literature and media sources.

The author examines other maritime tragedies in Australian history, comparing the cases mourned by the Australian public with those that escaped public attention. Generally, European victims were mourned while non-European nationalities were ignored. The article also provides insight on why the passengers of SIEV X chose to migrate via irregular channels; many passengers’ fathers or husbands had received asylum status in Australia but were not allowed and would never be allowed to bring their family over, according to the national legislation. Thus, irregular migration was seen by many of the SIEV X passengers as the only way to reunite their families. Because of the poor condition of the boat, some would-be passengers refused to board in Indonesia. Some were forced to board at gunpoint by the Indonesian police. The author argues that first the Tampa case (in which shipwrecked asylum seekers were rescued by a Norwegian container ship, the M.V. Tampa, in 2001 and later refused entry into Australian waters), followed by the terrorist attack on the World Trade Center (one month before the

SIEV X sinking) led to an anti-refugee policy stance in Australia. Also, the Temporary Protection Visa, which was introduced in 1999 as a way to deter migrant smuggling, denied refugees many of the rights guaranteed by the United Nations Convention on Refugees, such as family reunion. These are seen as reasons leading up to the SIEV X tragedy and exacerbating the situation of irregular migration.

Although the article provides detailed information about the SIEV X incident, it is not clear whether this provides insight into other cases of irregular migration via sea to Australia or other destinations in the region.

**Gupta, J., Raj, A., Decker, M. R., Reed, E. and Silverman, J. G. (2009). HIV vulnerabilities of sex-trafficked Indian women and girls. In: *International Journal of Gynaecology and Obstetrics*, 107(1), pp. 30–34.**

**Key words:**

India  
Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This succinct article discusses a well-documented qualitative study that explored the HIV vulnerabilities of women and girls who had been trafficked to Mysore in India's Karnataka state for sexual exploitation. Specifically, the authors explored the existence and operation of mechanisms by which the risk of HIV infection is heightened within this group. Data-gathering procedures involved a sample of 71 persons who were presented as survivors of trafficking for sexual exploitation. Staff of the organization providing shelter interviewed the women and girl survivors, who also were given HIV tests. Slightly more than 45 per cent of them tested positive. Both interviews and tests were normal procedures for the shelter. Sixty-one cases were analysed for the research in the end because 10 individuals turned out not to be at the shelter because of trafficking for sexual exploitation.

The research revealed six themes regarding sources of risk for HIV infection: (1) women and girls traf-

ficked for sexual exploitation lack autonomy; (2) the use of rape as a tool for sex work; (3) chronic sexual violence and inability to refuse sex; (4) chronic sexual violence and inability to negotiate condom use; (5) substance use; and (6) inability to access health care. Each category is elaborated to provide a fuller explanation of its significance. The research challenged some strategies currently used to combat HIV in the context of trafficking for sexual exploitation (such as simply distributing condoms). The authors recommend a more extensive HIV prevention programme, one that takes into account the multiple factors influencing risk.

**Hameed, S., Hlatshwayo, S., Tanner, E., Turker, M. and Yang, J. (2010). *Human trafficking in India: Dynamics, current efforts and intervention opportunities for The Asia Foundation*. San Francisco: The Asia Foundation.**

**Key words:**

India  
South Asia  
Methodology, Routes, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This report was produced for The Asia Foundation to inform the creation of its anti-trafficking in persons programming in India. It presents a discussion of the dynamics of trafficking in persons in India, including drivers and root causes of the problem as well as impacts and relevant legal frameworks. The findings demonstrate widespread occurrence of trafficking in persons and note that the issue is a serious, national problem that requires further attention.

The research findings demonstrate serious flaws in India's legal framework on trafficking. These weaknesses are further compounded by challenges in governance and limited resources. Capacity to prosecute cases is quite limited due to a lack of knowledge and awareness on how to register cases or collect evidence appropriately; police in India are reported as not prioritizing trafficking as an offence to be registered. A lack of support for prosecution is also reflected in the findings of the review of government anti-trafficking

initiatives, with the bulk of support classified as for prevention and protection.

The researchers from Stanford University used a two-stage process: Available data on trafficking in persons were first reviewed, as was secondary information and a preliminary review of the legal frameworks (an interesting contribution of the report is a graphic representation of the strengths and weaknesses of the legal framework on trafficking in persons). The second stage involved interviews with officers from NGOs and donors (involved with the issue of trafficking in persons in India) to collect information on challenges and good practices. An appendix is included that details both the interview scripts and results.

Both stages of research were supported by a literature and policy review. The research findings were compiled and used to determine policy alternatives and recommendations for The Asia Foundation to consider when developing its trafficking in persons programming and looking for prospective partner organizations. The recommendations focus on the goals and context of The Asia Foundation specifically but can also be relevant to other organizations wanting to partner with the Foundation or strengthen their anti-trafficking in persons initiatives in India.

**Hasan, A. (2010). Migration, small towns and social transformations in Pakistan. In: *Environment and Urbanization*, 22(1), pp. 33–50.**

**Key words:**

Pakistan  
South Asia  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Quantitative assessment, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

Pakistan has been experiencing massive migration from Afghanistan, Bangladesh and India. This paper, which is based on a more extensive International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED) report, explores the migration patterns and their socio-economic and political effects. It further examines the links between immigration and emigration patterns, poverty and social and ecological elements

of different areas of Pakistan and considers the issues in the context of case studies from three small towns (Chiniot, Mithi and Uch).

Pakistan receives a larger number of migrants from other countries than the number of migrants who leave Pakistan. This trend has led to the migration phenomenon strongly affecting the sociology, economics and politics of regions receiving the migrants. While migration patterns in Pakistan are related to its diverse physical geography, the number of migrants moving from rural to urban areas is increasing. The paper highlights some of the social and physical impacts caused by this trend.

The paper discusses that while remittances from abroad have had a positive impact on the growth of Pakistan's GDP, the process has not benefited migrants and their families and has increased the rich-poor divide. Extended families of migrants were found to experience severe strains in relations, and while the immigration and emigration processes were found to promote the education and emancipation of women, they also led to the break-up of family structures and clans.

In Pakistan, the remittances were typically used to improve migrant lifestyles and infrastructure and strengthen social networks, particularly in urban areas, that are important in times of crisis. However, areas with improved lifestyles and higher rates of education suffered from a loss of political power and future leadership as more individuals from families of migrants or migrants chose to move to larger cities to benefit from the urban physical and social environments. The paper concludes with a call for addressing the issues relating to the processes and repercussions of migration, including corruption and trafficking in persons.

**Hastings, V. J. (2009). Illicit flows in the Hong Kong-China-Taiwan triangle. In: *Issues and Studies*, 45(2), pp. 185–220.**

**Key words:**

China  
East Asia  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This paper examines the illicit movement between Hong Kong (China) and Taiwan Province of China and discusses the effects on non-traditional security problems. The author argues that, because Hong Kong (China) reverted to Chinese rule and Taiwan Province of China increased its investment in China, the political, economic and cultural characteristics of the triangle have encouraged illicit flows of people and goods.

The paper draws on interviews with practitioners and experts in Taiwan Province of China and Hong Kong (China). Details about the sample size or selection process are not provided. In addition, the author examined police documents from Hong Kong (China), Philippines and China.

The author concludes that the illicit flows of people and goods within the Taiwan-China-Hong Kong triangle are shaped and exacerbated by several factors. First, political fragmentation combined with political hostility prevents effective communication among the three entities, despite their economic integration. Thus, smugglers are able to make use of the economic infrastructure between the States while, at the same time, the three States obstruct each other's anti-smuggling measures due to mistrust and hostility. Second, the political nature of their borders is specifically problematic in the case of China and Taiwan Province of China, specifically as China claims that Taiwan Province of China is part of the People's Republic of China while Taiwan Province of China considers itself as "de facto" independent.

Third, the important roles the three States have within the world economy means that the illicit flows that are exacerbated by conditions within the triangle are exported to other countries in Asia. Ultimately, the author argues, the conflict becomes a problem for the rest of the world because of the export flows of organized crime and smuggling. Thus, the hostility and political fragmentation result in a problem not just for the three States but also for much of the world.

The paper offers insight on irregular migration and migrant smuggling from China to Taiwan Province of China. According to the study, 90 per cent of all irregular migrants from China originated from the province of Fujian. The study also points to the complicity of some Fujian officials in migrant smuggling schemes.

The paper highlights the threats that illicit flows, including migrant smuggling, pose to the security of the region and to the world. It emphasizes the importance of cross-border police cooperation in combating illicit cross-border flows.

**Heckmann, F. (2004). *Illegal migration: What can we know and what can we explain? The case of Germany. In: International Migration Review, 38(3), pp. 1103–1125.***

**Key words:**

Afghanistan

Concepts, Methodology, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Profiles of smugglers, Routes, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This article first examines the methodological problems in the study of irregular migration relating to the lack of indicators, with special reference to Germany, and then looks at the social organization of the various forms of smuggling.

The author has borrowed concepts from market and networks theory and applies them to the analysis of migrant smuggling and irregular migration. For the analysis of migrant smuggling, the author draws on three case studies that were reconstructed from 12 in-depth expert interviews with police investigators.

The author concludes that the possibilities to empirically trace migrant smuggling, such as through official statistics on migration flows and populations, depend on nationally and historically specific conditions. Referring to Germany, the author argues that official statistics on apprehensions, asylum applications and criminal offences indicate trends of irregular migration and allow for the estimation of a minimum number of irregular migrants in the country. These possibilities are related to the existence of a rather strict border and an internal control regime in Germany.

The case studies outline the organization of the smuggling process used. They present a variety of forms of migrant smuggling: single actors, networks of smugglers and inter-organizational networks, each

of which operates under particular conditions, with particular implications for the smugglers as well as for their clients. Consequently, the author criticizes the theory of organized crime as the dominating actor in the discussion on migrant smuggling.

Although the article has no particular reference to migrant smuggling in or from Asia, it presents a case study that provides insight into Afghan smugglers operating in Germany.

**Heckmann, F. (2005). *The social organisation of human smuggling*. Warsaw: Centre for International Relations.**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan

Concepts, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Routes, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This report examines the types of social organization of smuggling operations, based on common characteristics. The research looked to test the “mafia hypothesis” (that smuggling is organized by “mafia-like” organizations that are centrally organized and hierarchical).

The research involved analysis of case studies, using “dimensions” identified by the research team. These dimensions covered: nationality, education and socio-economic status of smugglers; reconstruction of positions, functions and roles in the smuggling process; ethnicity of smugglers; mobilization and motivation of persons smuggled; ethnic composition of smuggled groups, forms of travelling, means of transportation; distances to be covered; forms of border crossing; and financial relations and transactions among people smuggled and smugglers. Data were collected from 20 interviews with experts and content analysis of 51 court cases on migrant smuggling.

The author questions the idea of a single, transnational and pyramid-like organized smuggling “mafia” and thus concludes that smuggling networks represent a different form of social organization. The research suggests there are at least three types of migrant smuggling: (1) self-organized irregular mi-

gration with support of smuggling services, (2) visa smuggling and (3) smuggling networks. Each type operates under particular conditions, with implications for the smugglers as well as for their clients.

The report contributes knowledge on migrant smuggling in a methodological and theoretical nature. However, it highlights the importance of examining the social organization of migrant smuggling. The report includes a brief case study that provides insight on Afghan smugglers operating in Germany.

**Hosen, M. N. (2005). *Governance of Indonesian labour and migration to Malaysia: An overview*. [Paper in special issue: A. Kaur and I. Metcalfe (eds.). *Migrant Labour in South-east Asia: Needed, Not Wanted*.] In: *Review of Indonesian and Malaysian Affairs*, 39(2), pp. 31–44.**

**Key words:**

Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore

South-East Asia

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Routes, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This paper provides an overview of migration governance in Indonesia, with specific focus on movements from Indonesia to Malaysia. Migration governance is examined from 1960 to the present day. The paper concludes that both Indonesia and Malaysia benefit from the economic contributions of regular and irregular migrant workers from Indonesia. The paper draws upon data from the Indonesian Ministry of Manpower as well as academic literature. No specific research methodology is detailed.

Factors for labour migration from Indonesia include the country’s lower per capita income compared with Malaysia, higher unemployment and a larger proportion of its population living below the poverty line. The two main channels for Indonesians seeking employment abroad are through labour recruitment companies or through recruiters or middlemen with ties to the labour recruitment company. Middlemen

play a very important role in remote rural areas and alert potential migrants to the possibilities of employment overseas. Middlemen also assist migrants to access the necessary paperwork for employment abroad and often falsify documents and information so that it meets government requirements. This includes falsifying a migrant's age, forging permission letters from parents or spouses, documents of residence, identification cards and birth certificates.

Smuggled migrants from East Java go through similar processes. Before departing by boat to Malaysia, they are kept in holding centres and have to negotiate payment with the captain while on board the boat. A middleman in Malaysia takes over upon arrival and takes the smuggled migrants to potential employers. This network is supposedly safe, simple, reasonably priced, faster and better organized in comparison to regular channels of migration. Good connections between employers in Malaysia and middlemen assure employment through this network.

Attempts by the Indonesian Government to protect migrant workers, especially women, by placing restrictions on their movement have been counterproductive and have led to irregular migration, in which migrants go without documentation and are more vulnerable to exploitation. Such restrictions also lead to an increase in corrupt officials through the related increase in bribery. The forging of documents, including birth and marriage certificates, identification cards and passports, is an industry in Indonesia.

This article provides detailed information on irregular migration processes from Indonesia to Malaysia and is a good source for understanding the process of migrant smuggling in both countries. Motivations for smuggling, fees, methods and smugglers' organization are discussed. However, it is not clear whether this can generally be applied to all migrant smuggling from Indonesia because the information is only provided on smuggling from East Java.

**Hugo, G. (2004). International migration in the Asia-Pacific region: Emerging trends and issues. In: D. S. Massey and J. E. Taylor (eds.). International migration, prospects and policies in a global market. New York: Oxford University Press.**

**Key words:**

Cambodia, China, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Thailand

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Organization of smuggling, Quantitative assessment, Routes, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This chapter presents an analysis of migration trends in the Asia-Pacific region, including undocumented migration and the migration industry, both of which involve the smuggling of migrants. The chapter concludes that international migration within Asia can be expected to become more institutionalized, both through government involvement and private sector agencies that facilitate migration to turn a profit. This is especially notable for unskilled and semi-skilled workers who have been greatly limited in their migration opportunities in the past. The chapter is based on statistics from governments, international organizations, academic literature and print media. Non-statistical information from academic articles is woven in. No specific research methodology is detailed.

The author states that undocumented migration in the region is especially notable in countries where strict migration regulations are combined with serious unskilled labour shortages, as is the case of undocumented migration from Indonesia to Malaysia. Migrant smuggling has also increased from China; an estimated 500,000 people have been smuggled out of the country. Thailand is a major destination for irregular migration from neighbouring countries. Estimated statistics are provided for the number of irregular migrants thought to be residing in various countries in the region during the mid to late 1990s.

“Gatekeepers” have a major part in international migration in Asia; many migration flows are facilitated by these agents. Gatekeepers include recruiters, lawyers, immigration officials and other agents and can be involved in facilitating regular or irregular migration. Due to the high profitability of migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons, syndicates formerly involved in the drug trade have expanded their operations into migration. The role of such groups can

be traced back to the slave trade and to the “contract coolie” trade. Recruiters have the lead role in convincing potential migrants to move, both regularly and irregularly. In migration from Indonesia to Malaysia, agents are highly organized and are crucial to facilitating migration. In cases of irregular migration between the two countries, the irregular migrant is passed along a chain of contacts, each of which receives a payment. This system is viewed as safe and is trusted more than official migration routes because the recruiter in the home village must deal with the results of failure of the system or of exploitation. Official channels are also often more costly and time consuming.

Because this chapter addresses the broad topic of international migration in the Asia-Pacific region, only a small section relates to irregular migration and migrant smuggling. But it provides useful information about the involvement of smugglers in the migration process in Asia and briefly addresses the organization of these agents and the motivation for using irregular channels over official ones. However, the chapter provides few details on migrant smuggling operations and limits itself to enumerating broader trends.

**Hugo, G. and Stahl, C. (2004). Labour export strategies in Asia. In: D. S. Massey and J. E. Taylor (eds.), *International migration, prospects and policies in a global market*. New York: Oxford University Press.**

**Key words:**

China, India, Pakistan, Thailand, Viet Nam  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Irregular migration, Routes, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This chapter examines the ways that governments in Asia intervene to influence migration. Motivations and strategies for exporting labour are analysed and such issues as migrants’ vulnerability, brain drain and reintegrating returning migrants are addressed. The chapter concludes that government activities significantly influence the scale and composition of regular and irregular migration; however, such migration

policies have been implemented in the absence of empirical data, and there is little analysis of their effectiveness. The chapter draws on statistics provided by the ILO, the World Bank, United Nations agencies and academics. Non-statistical information derives from academic articles and print media. No research methodology is detailed.

Official schemes to govern labour exportation also shape irregular migration flows and influence migrant smuggling. Private labour export industries composed of worker agencies, travel agents, lawyers and middlemen now exist in many Asian countries to facilitate migration. These agents assist migrants to migrate legally but take an even larger role in helping people to migrate irregularly. The authors posit that irregular migration could not exist without such private sector activities. The private labour export industry is highly developed and organized in many countries and sometimes involves criminal organizations. Bans on migration of certain groups, even if they are intended to protect migrants, tend to channel those flows into irregularity instead of halting them.

Government intervention can also indirectly influence migration flows, specifically in the case of irregular migration, when sending or receiving countries tolerate its existence. Migrants may choose to migrate through irregular channels because they are more economically competitive than official migration schemes, do not require upfront payments and are less time consuming. Additionally, many middlemen reside in the village of origin and provide local accountability and security. Governments’ inability to develop and enforce effective schemes to combat forged documents also contributes to irregular migration.

The chapter is very useful in highlighting the role that government migration regulations have in influencing both regular and irregular migration flows. Smuggling enterprises can even mimic regular migration flows because of the established private labour export industries. The chapter does not address smuggling activities, such as methods or associated risks.

**Huguet, J. W. and Punpuing, S. (2005). *International migration in Thailand*. Bangkok: International Organization for Migration.**



**Key words:**

Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Thailand  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This research report presents an overview of international migration to, from and through Thailand. It discusses causes and consequences of migration trends through an exploration of regular and irregular migration to and from the country, refugees and asylum seekers and displaced persons within Thailand and the migration of Thai people abroad. It highlights the interaction between policies concerning migration management and migration trends.

The IOM definition of “irregular migration” is used. The definitions of “trafficking in persons” and “smuggling of migrants” are taken from the respective Trafficking in Persons Protocol and the Migrant Smuggling Protocol.

The research draws on an analysis of data from the Thai government registrations of migration workers from 2004, information from studies on international migration to Thailand and interviews with members of the IOM Thematic Group responsible for the development of the study (international NGOs), government officials and migrant workers. Field visits to Kanchanaburi and Samut Sakhon provinces, which have large migrant worker populations, were also conducted.

The report notes that while making a major contribution to the Thai economy, many migrant workers are vulnerable to abuse, lack adequate social protection and face exploitation at the hands of their employers. At the same time, the report notes that large numbers of Thai migrants working abroad (mainly in the Middle East and East Asia) are subjected to the same social and economic exclusion experienced by foreign migrant workers in Thailand. The report concludes that much more needs to be done at both the national and regional levels to optimize the contribution of foreign migrant workers in Thailand and also of Thai nationals working abroad, while protecting their fundamental human rights.

The report does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling. It does provide a comprehensive study of migration patterns and reasons for migration, both regular and irregular, into and out of Thailand.

**Human Rights Commission of Pakistan. (2010). *Human trafficking through Quetta: A report by Balochistan Chapter*. Lahore: Human Rights Commission of Pakistan.**

**Key words:**

Pakistan  
South Asia  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Profiles of irregular migrants, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Profiles of smugglers, Quantitative assessment, Routes, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This publication includes findings from a survey that the Balochistan Chapter of the Human Rights Commission of Pakistan (HRCP) conducted on trafficking cases handled by a designated court in Quetta over a four-year period. The data are supported with additional analysis and studies conducted by the HRCP Secretariat. The report presents statistical information on the volume and frequency of cases as well as case studies involving trafficking in persons and exploitation. Perspectives from experts on these issues are also presented.

The report recognizes that the majority of cases in the study were victims of trafficking from Punjab's Gujrat district and that this affected how representative the findings are. However, the report also includes brief elements of supporting information, including a discussion of engagement on trafficking in persons in the region and the handling of it in Pakistan. Detailed statistics on the trafficking cases handled by the Quetta court, including the ages of the accused, number of agents also arrested

and punishments or decisions awarded on a case-by-case basis are included.

Case studies of exploitation are presented in the form of individual narratives, and although they often flow together, many of the stories offer detailed and personalized insights on the experience of trafficking. Discussions with figures of authority are identified as experts' views and contain a mix of quotations, data and information on current initiatives, including the establishment of anti-trafficking units and mass awareness campaigns.

The annex material covers relevant international protocols and Pakistan's Prevention and Control of Human Trafficking Ordinance, the national Prevention and Control of Human Trafficking Rules and the national Emigration Ordinance.

**Human Rights Watch. (2004). *Help wanted: Abuses against female migrant domestic workers in Indonesia and Malaysia* (Vol. 16, No. 9 (B), p. 112). New York: Human Rights Watch.**

**Key words:**

Indonesia, Malaysia  
South-East Asia  
Irregular migration, Routes, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This report gives a detailed description of the conditions that migrant domestic workers experience from the time of their recruitment in Indonesia to the time of their return from Malaysia, illustrating the abuses they endured abroad. The report draws on 115 interviews with female domestic workers and government officials from Indonesia and Malaysia as well as several months of background research. The report concludes that Indonesian migrant workers in Malaysia are systematically discriminated against, exploited and abused by labour agents and employers. Recommendations are made to both Indonesia and Malaysia governments for curbing systematic abuses of domestic workers.

Irregular migrant flows from Indonesia to Malaysia are the second largest in the world, and most Indo-

nesian domestic workers migrate to Malaysia out of financial necessity. Licensed and unlicensed recruiters facilitate the migration by extorting money, falsifying travel documents and making misleading statements to women and girls about work arrangements. Labour rights abuses are pervasive in many forms, which are reinforced by failings in both countries: Indonesia does not have an adequate system for monitoring labour recruitment agencies and training centres, and Malaysia's employment laws do not provide protection to domestic workers.

Prospective migrants often first come into contact with a local recruiter in their village. The recruiter promises them a certain salary and provides assistance in the recruitment process. Agents receive a commission from larger agencies or take a cut from the prospective migrant's payment. Changing birth dates on migrants' passports is common so that they meet the Malaysian age criteria. A fee is not always charged for this service. It is estimated that thousands of individuals are trafficked from Indonesia to Malaysia each year. Trafficking victims are often treated as undocumented migrants.

Although the report does not mention smuggling explicitly, unlicensed recruiters can be understood as smugglers because they assist individuals to cross a border irregularly for a profit. Modes of travel to Malaysia with the assistance of unlicensed recruiters are not addressed, and it is not clear whether the service provided by unlicensed recruiters is significantly different from those offered by official recruiters, such as the quality of falsified documents, employment contracts, security, etc. Nonetheless, this is a very valuable source for understanding how recruitment processes draw individuals into the migration cycle.

**Human Rights Watch. (2005). *Maid to order: Ending abuses against migrant domestic workers in Singapore*. New York: Human Rights Watch (Vol. 17, No. 10 (C)).**

**Key words:**

China, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Myanmar, Pakistan, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Thailand  
South-East Asia  
Irregular migration, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This report sheds light on the many abuses endured by female domestic workers in Singapore. The report is based on secondary research and field research in Singapore in 2005. More than 100 interviews were conducted with migrant domestic workers, employers and representatives of Singapore's Ministry of Manpower, employment agencies and civil society organizations. Additionally, case files of 25 domestic workers were reviewed. The report concludes with recommendations for the Singaporean Government and the governments of sending countries to improve the legal protection of migrant domestic workers and avoid cases of abuse.

The report discusses present and historical labour migration patterns in the region. For labour-sending countries, exporting labour has become a strategy of combating unemployment, generating foreign exchange and fostering economic growth. Remittances benefit both sending and receiving countries but do not provide migrants with protection due to the exclusion of domestic work from regulation or the provision in the labour law of limited protection. Undocumented migrants are in an even more vulnerable position and may avoid contacting the authorities due to fear of detention and deportation.

Abuses also take place prior to leaving the country of origin. In Indonesia, licensed and unlicensed recruiters are only monitored to a minimal extent by the Government. Abuses include deception, forced confinement, poor living conditions at training centres and physical and sexual assault. Some recruiters overcharge or take payment without providing services, which creates cycles of debt. Corrupt immigration officials in sending countries may be willing to allow passengers to travel without proper documentation.

The legal framework and forms of abuse in Singapore are also examined. Labour agents reportedly confiscate passports, personal belongings and religious items. They may make threats, give dangerous or illegal assignments and fail to remove women from abusive employment situations.

The report gives detailed information about the labour-sending and receiving schemes in South-East

Asia, which provides a framework for understanding regular and irregular labour migration flows in the region. It also covers migrants' motivations for labour migration. Migrant smuggling flows are not explicitly addressed, but unlicensed recruiters in sending countries can be classified as smugglers because they assist migrants to irregularly enter another country for profit. The cases of abuse in sending and receiving countries can be classified as trafficking in persons in situations in which migrants are recruited, transferred and harboured for the purpose of exploitation, but this is not specifically addressed either. Details about the migration process are also not covered.

**Human Rights Watch. (2007). *Exported and exposed: Abuses against Sri Lankan domestic workers in Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Lebanon and United Arab Emirates*. New York: Human Rights Watch (Vol. 19, No. 16 (C)).**

**Key words:**

Sri Lanka

South Asia, West Asia

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

Recognizing that there are limited viable options for many women to gain employment in their home country, the study reflected in this report examined the cases of female Sri Lankan domestic workers who migrated to the Middle East and surrounding regions for jobs. The "migration industry" is generally spoken of as exploitive and laden with abuse, although the study does make mention that, for some women, migration can be a successful option to support their families back home and increase their power and influence in family structures upon their return.

The report, which is based on findings from 100 in-depth interviews with Sri Lankan migrant domestic workers both at home and abroad, states that abuses against domestic workers are a recognized and documented occurrence, yet the governments of Sri Lanka and host countries are failing to protect them from

various forms and stages of abuse. The interviews with domestic workers are supported with interviews with other actors, including from relevant organizations, unions, labour agents and government agencies in Sri Lanka and in host countries. The findings demonstrate that women experience exploitive practices from the moment of their recruitment through their experiences in the host countries. It is noted that although the Sri Lankan Government actively promotes foreign employment schemes, including domestic labour, the women who take up those jobs face significant social, economic and physical risks. Migrant rights in Sri Lanka are directly hindered by the reliance of their Government on remittances to boost the GDP and lower trade deficits. A lack of legal protection limits women's rights to both protection and post-abuse action.

The report examines the push factors that influence Sri Lankan women's decisions to migrate for work, including the status of women and girls in the country, as well as reasons for opting to go to the Middle East. The report is not limited to discussing the plight of Sri Lankan domestic workers once they left their country but also examines abuses that took place before their departure, including cases of deception and the withholding of information on the reality of job placements, the paying of fees and taking on of debt payments and realities surrounding pre-departure medical testing. Each of those discussions is framed by information provided on the stages of the recruitment process and Sri Lanka's regulatory framework.

The interviews complement the statistical information on Sri Lankan domestic workers in the Middle East and surrounding region, with documented cases of physical, psychological and sexual abuse and situations of exploitation involving wages, workloads, work hours and inadequate living conditions. The report also identifies multiple cases with common circumstances, such as restrictions on communication and mobility, the confiscation of passports, denial of opportunities to return to Sri Lanka and forced confinement. Of the included cases, 23 were identified as forced labour because the circumstances described by the women interviewed met the ILO definition of involuntary work.

Cases of exploitation and abuse are used as examples to build the arguments and highlight the ob-

ligations of the Sri Lankan Government and destination countries under international human rights law. Countries of origin and destination have clear roles in protecting women pre- and post-departure to prevent abuse, which includes taking complaints, providing consular and legal assistance when violations occur and investigating cases and prosecuting perpetrators after the abuse.

The report presents proposals for action throughout the text, but concludes with a set of recommendations primarily aimed at government actors in Sri Lanka and host countries. It stresses urgency in the need for action to protect migrant domestic workers at all stages of the recruitment and employment processes at home and abroad. A final conclusion illustrates the advocacy-oriented position of the study by recommending that the Government of Sri Lanka receive and address complaints from migrant workers and follow such cases up with action, both within the country and through embassies abroad.

**Human Rights Watch. (2008). *“As if I am not human”: Abuses against Asian domestic workers in Saudi Arabia*. New York: Human Rights Watch.**

**Key words:**

India, Indonesia, Sri Lanka, Viet Nam  
Irregular migration, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This report examines labour migration flows between Asia and Saudi Arabia and the abuse of Asian domestic workers. The research was conducted over two years, including meetings with government officials and interviews with domestic workers in Saudi Arabia, recruiters and members of civil society. Additional sources of information include laws and regulations, press reports, studies, international organizations and civil society reports. The specific focus is on women employed in homes as nannies, housekeepers and caretakers for the sick and elderly. The report concludes by recommending that (1) recruitment systems in countries of origin and in Saudi Arabia be reformed; (2) labour and migration policies be changed to include domestic workers in labour laws; and (3) the Saudi

Arabian criminal justice system, labour-dispute mechanisms and repatriation channels be improved.

Human Rights Watch documented a number of cases of forced labour and trafficking in persons, and the report provides a sample of the case studies. “Forced labour” is defined according to the ILO Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105) and “trafficking” is defined according to the Trafficking in Persons Protocol. The Saudi Arabian response to trafficking in persons is reportedly very weak. Cases of slavery or slave-like conditions have also been documented. Recruitment plays a large hand in labour migration flows and migrants’ vulnerabilities; agents in sending countries recruit women for domestic labour and can place them at risk of abuse, forced labour and trafficking through deception, charging excessive fees, threats and failure to assist workers when asked for help. Agents are involved in both regular and irregular migration flows.

The report provides valuable information about recruitment processes between Asia and Saudi Arabia, which can include trafficking and smuggling agents. Forms of trafficking of domestic workers in Saudi Arabia are detailed and the case studies give first-hand accounts of migrants’ experiences. Although smuggling of migrants is not explicitly referred to, the information on trafficking and irregular recruitment practices makes this report highly relevant for understanding routes, methods and human costs of regular and irregular migration flows to Saudi Arabia.

**Human Rights Watch. (2009). “The island of happiness”: Exploitation of migrant workers on Saadiyat Island, Abu Dhabi. New York: Human Rights Watch.**

**Key words:**

India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Thailand  
South Asia, South-East Asia, West Asia  
Concepts, Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants, Quantitative assessment, Routes

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

Following up on a Human Rights Watch report from

2006 on the abusive situations that migrant construction workers experienced in Dubai and Sharjah, the study reflected in this report examined practices in Abu Dhabi to determine if foreign construction workers on Saadiyat Island experience similar challenges. The methodology for the study consisted of interviews with workers and representatives of agencies and companies involved in the development of Saadiyat Island, organizations representing and/or assisting foreign workers in the United Arab Emirates and its Ministry of Labour. The report highlights challenges of obtaining interviews with workers due to their fears of safety and threats on the security of their jobs and with company officials, many of whom did not respond to requests.

The report presents statistics on the development and operations of Abu Dhabi and Saadiyat Island, noting the large number of foreign construction workers involved in the development of those areas. The presence of foreign domestic workers is also briefly mentioned, but the focus of the report is on those individuals involved in construction relating to the development of the island. It then details the sponsorship system, which Human Rights Watch argues, leaves the workers at severe risk of exploitation.

The report discusses the process of securing jobs under the sponsorship system, reasons for entering into those agreements and the ensuing conditions that the researchers found the workers to be experiencing, including exploitive relationships with labour-support agencies. Examples of exploitive practices experienced by migrant construction workers are presented and framed into categories of challenges, including a lack of effective responses to problems with labour agencies, coercive contractual circumstances and a limitation of freedom of movement supported by the confiscation of passports, which contribute to practices of forced labour.

The research identified challenges of violations and deception regarding the payment and amounts of wages as well as limitations on benefits, overtime, leave, the right to strike or participate in unions, physical and social services (including health care and health and safety information) and opportunities for voicing complaints and concerns. Examples of cases relating to each challenge are drawn from the research.

Recommendations throughout the text aim specifically at organizations, agencies, contractors and authorities. The report concludes with a section on the obligations of UAE authorities under international law and international standards of corporate responsibility, noting that taking steps to ratify and comply with such standards is the minimum action that should be taken to protect migrant workers.

**Human Rights Watch. (2009). *Workers in the shadows: Abuse and exploitation of child domestic workers in Indonesia*. New York: Human Rights Watch.**

**Key words:**

Indonesia  
Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This report exposes the situation of child domestic workers in Indonesia and looks at the policies and actions of the national and local governments. Human Rights Watch argues that the overall official response is not sufficient to protect children from abuse. Within the course of the research, more than 200 people in Indonesia were interviewed on the topic of child domestic workers and field investigations were made to various urban areas and provinces. In total, 78 current or former child domestic labourers were interviewed. The report concludes by making policy recommendations to various political bodies, civil society organizations and international organizations to ensure that child domestic workers receive protection at all levels of policymaking.

The report provides an overview of the policies and mechanisms relevant to child domestic workers. It then tackles a number of myths about domestic workers, demonstrating that these migrants should be treated as labourers with rights and not merely as “helpers”. Lack of awareness of the issue, public mistrust of the police, poor investigation procedures and failure to follow through with investigations reinforce cycles of abuse. In addition, it is argued that prosecuting cases of trafficking in persons is difficult because the Indonesian anti-trafficking law does not include recruitment, transportation, transfer, har-

bouring or receipt of a child for the purpose of exploitation.

The report does not address migrant smuggling or migration flows to Indonesia. The sole focus is placed on examining vulnerabilities and cases of exploitation of Indonesian children working as domestic workers. Although it is stated that migrant child workers are in an even more vulnerable position, the subject is not examined further.

**Human Rights Watch. (2010). *From the tiger to the crocodile: Abuse of migrant workers in Thailand*. New York: Human Rights Watch.**

**Key words:**

Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Thailand  
Irregular migration, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

The purpose of this report is to highlight the abuse and exploitation suffered by migrant workers from Cambodia, Lao People’s Democratic Republic and Myanmar in Thailand. It particularly focuses on abuse inflicted by the police and other authorities against those workers and the powerlessness felt by many migrant workers to stop such abuse, given their irregular migrant status. The report uses personal accounts from a number of migrant workers to highlight their experiences and situations of abuse as workers in Thailand.

The report draws upon 82 interviews conducted with migrant workers in Bangkok and 10 provinces and interviews with representatives of national and international NGOs and government officials. A review of literature on migration to Thailand, including NGO reports, and analysis of Thai laws and policies on migration were included in the research.

The central finding is that human rights violations against migrant workers from Cambodia, Lao PDR and Myanmar is widespread. The abuse is often at the hands of the police and local authorities who engage in violence, torture, extortion and other corrupt practices against migrant workers. The findings are supplemented in the report by a number of personal accounts of abuse from migrant workers.

The report does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling. It presents a discussion on trafficking in persons for the purpose of labour to Thailand from neighbouring countries and offers a detailed portrayal of the experiences and situations many migrant workers experience in Thailand, with a particular focus on abuse and exploitation inflicted against them by the authorities and their employers.

**Human Rights Watch. (2010). *Slow reform: Protection of migrant domestic worker in Asia and the Middle East*. New York: Human Rights Watch.**

**Key words:**

China, Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, Sri Lanka  
Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This report documents gaps in labour laws in the Middle East and Asia that should otherwise provide protection to domestic workers from abuse, exploitation and trafficking. Recommendations are provided to governments of receiving countries to strengthen the policy framework protecting domestic workers and allowing their labour to be recognized as “work”. The report is based on Human Rights Watch’s ongoing research on migrant domestic workers in 11 countries in Asia and the Middle East.

The report outlines the need for the regulation of domestic labour to ensure that migrants are able to seek redress in cases of abuse. In most countries in the study, domestic workers are excluded from labour protection afforded to other workers. Recruitment and placement of workers is also poorly regulated; recruiters in the sending country may give migrants misleading or false information or charge them excessive fees, which can lead to a cycle of debt and make a migrant less likely to report abuse. Recruiters in the receiving country may replace contracts signed in the home country with ones with poorer terms, compelling domestic workers to stay in exploitive situations.

The report focuses on the abuse experienced by migrant domestic workers in the country of destination and does not directly address the issues of irregular migration or smuggling. Information about recruit-

ment practices may also be relevant to smuggling methods in cases in which recruiters are not officially registered with a recruitment agency. Overall, very little information in this report is relevant to the smuggling process due to its concentration on the later phase of migration, after the migrant has already reached the sending country.

**Hunter, C. (2004). The ‘people in between’: Indonesia and the failed asylum seekers to Australia. In: *Review of Indonesian and Malaysian Affairs*, 38(2), pp. 101–127.**

**Key words:**

Indonesia, Malaysia

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Routes, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article examines the situation of failed asylum seekers to Australia living in Indonesia. It is based on three weeks of anthropological observations and interviews with failed asylum seekers living in Lombok, Indonesia. Failed asylum-seeking men, women and children from four countries as well as the provincial police, UNHCR officials, IOM officials, hotel managers in the area and taxi drivers were interviewed.

According to the article, one of the major routes from the Middle East and West Asia passes through Indonesia, which has enabled facilitators to develop sizable businesses transporting asylum seekers to Indonesia where they temporarily stay before moving onward to Australia. Changes in Australian policy to stop migrant smuggling since the Tampa incident (in which shipwrecked asylum seekers were rescued by a Norwegian container ship, the M.V. Tampa, in 2001 but refused entry into nearby Australian waters) are discussed. Much of the article is devoted to the asylum process in Australia, living conditions in Lombok and social and cultural tensions. The interviews with the asylum seekers focus mainly on their reasons for leaving their countries and seeking asylum.

The article provides first-hand accounts of smuggling and how migrants experience the smuggling

process. However, asylum practices are the focus, and smuggling only plays a minor role within the asylum context. Smuggling for economic reasons is not addressed. It is unclear how the interviews were analysed and the method of choosing interviewees is not detailed. Comments made by interviewees are not supported by additional sources.

**International Labour Organization. (2005). *The Mekong challenge: Destination Thailand: A cross-border labour migration survey in Banteay Meanchey Province, Cambodia* [Part of a series of studies on human trafficking and labour migration in the Greater Mekong Subregion]. Bangkok: International Labour Organization.**

**Key words:**

Cambodia, Thailand

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants

**Research methods used:**

Quantitative

**Summary:**

This report documents findings from research into the situation of irregular labour migration from Banteay Meanchey Province in Cambodia to Thailand. Banteay Meanchey is a border province with Thailand and is a prime location for sending, transiting and receiving Cambodian labour migrants. The report draws links between labour migration and vulnerability to trafficking in persons and exploitation, considering many of the labour migrants cross the border irregularly. The report has a particular focus on children and youth who are identified as the largest migrant group in Cambodia. Push factors for migration to Thailand are discussed and include poverty, limited employment opportunities, natural disasters and two decades of civil war, all of which have negatively impacted upon the development of greater economic opportunity for many people in Cambodia.

For the research, a survey was conducted in 31 Cambodian villages in Banteay Meanchey. Altogether, 602 people were interviewed, including heads of household, returned labour migrants, children,

young adults, village chiefs, commune chiefs, district directors, one commune police officer and two NGO representatives. The 31 villages were randomly selected. Two survey teams conducted the research. Questionnaires were developed and each team underwent training to understand the questionnaires and the data collection methodology.

The subsequent data analysis includes many statistics on the demographics of potential child and youth labour migrants from the surveyed villages and their reasons and motivations for seeking work in Thailand.

The research found that there is a high incidence of child labour migration from Cambodia to Thailand. Migration often takes place through irregular channels because many Cambodian migrants do not have the necessary travel documentation and have not registered to work in Thailand. Although there are a large number of Cambodian workers in Thailand, the research also found that not many families in Cambodia received regular remittances from them. The report concludes that in the absence of a labour migration information office in Banteay Meanchey offering assistance and information on regular migration to Thailand, many people from the province who are looking to migrate to Thailand for work are made vulnerable to exploitation and human traffickers.

The report does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling. It does provide information on a migration route from Cambodia to Thailand and the push factors that motivate many young Cambodians to search for work across the border. It highlights the fact that many Cambodian workers in Thailand are there irregularly, which makes them vulnerable to being trafficked and exploited.

**International Organization for Migration. (2008). *World migration report 2008*. Geneva: International Organization for Migration.**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan, Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Pakistan, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Thailand

East Asia, South Asia, South-East Asia

Concepts, Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Methodology,



Modus operandi of smuggling, Quantitative assessment, Routes, Smuggling, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Quantitative

**Summary:**

Within the report's overall topic of labour mobility, one chapter discusses irregular migration across the globe. The chapter examines methods of measuring irregular migration, gives an overview of current patterns of movement and provides a survey of common policy strategies against irregular migration. Case studies from IOM missions worldwide are provided. Statistics are taken from the IOM Global Human Trafficking Database and online academic sources. The chapter also relies on sources from United Nations agencies, the European Commission, national governments and academia. No specific research methodology is described. Smuggling of migrants and trafficking in persons are defined according to the Migrant Smuggling Protocol and the Trafficking in Persons Protocol. Irregular migration is defined as a multifaceted phenomenon determined by the norms of the country of destination or transit.

According to the chapter, the opportunities for irregular migration can be gauged by examining the operation of informal economies, their social networks and the migrant-recruitment industries that feed them. Social networks are vital to irregular migration because they provide migrants with information and contacts. Recruitment operations advertise and recruit in countries of origin and have connections with migration officers, transportation employees, migration brokers, employers and social networks in the countries of destination and transit. The recruitment operations are diverse enterprises and are not always large conglomerates. Irregular migration can be measured to a certain extent through exit controls, the number of people who apply for regularization and census data, although all of these are limited.

A case study of a Cambodia fisherman who went to work in Thailand demonstrates the role of migrant smuggling, trafficking in persons and related crimes in irregular migration in South-East Asia. The Cambodian man was assisted by a broker who had contacts in Thailand and helped him cross the border for an additional fee. He was then sold to a Thai fisherman and endured labour exploitation for a number

of months before trying to go back to Cambodia by purchasing falsified travel documents identifying him as a Thai citizen. The report also includes statistics about irregular migration in South-East Asian countries; the situation of trafficking in persons in South Asia is also discussed.

Migrant smuggling is only addressed to a limited extent within the chapter. No information on migrant smuggling in Asia is provided beyond the recruitment system in the Cambodian case study, which actually turned out to be a trafficking case. The chapter emphasizes the importance of such recruitment networks in fuelling irregular migration, but the structure of recruitment agencies and their services provided are not described in any more detail than the general overview. Motivations for choosing to be smuggled and conditions that breed and support smuggling are not examined. Smugglers or "recruiters" are not profiled or further described in any way.

**Jayatilake, R. (2008). *Women migrant workers and trafficking in Sri Lanka*. Colombo: Women's Education and Research Centre.**

**Key words:**

Sri Lanka

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants; Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This paper examines the links between trafficking in persons and migration in Sri Lanka, looking specifically at why and how women are trafficked during the process of migration. The author interviewed 85 trafficked women migrants who were categorized in terms of internal (46) and external (39) migrants. Purposive and snowball sampling was used to recruit women to interview from different geographical areas, different ethnicities and religions. The paper draws on the experiences of the migrant women, and their stories offer detailed, personal insights into the complexities of trafficking and migration. The interviews are supplemented by case studies of migrant workers gathered through discussions with NGO officers.

The research was based on the premise that migration itself does not lead to trafficking in persons, although an increased number of persons are trafficked in the process of migration. The results show that most of the women were from Colombo and between 26 and 45 years of age. The profiles of trafficked migrant women as well as the push-pull factors for migration (such as poverty, family disorganization, abuse at home, request of a boyfriend or spouse) are also discussed. The author concludes that the various actors need to work together to address the issue of trafficking in persons in the context of migration. She proposes a multi-actor approach aimed at prevention, the protection of vulnerable women and the prosecution of offenders. Specific recommendations include addressing the root causes as well as the development of community-based mechanisms and protection networks.

**Jones, L., Engstrom, D., Hilliard, P. and Sun-gakawan, D. (2009). Human trafficking between Thailand and Japan: Lessons in recruitment, transit and control. In: *International Journal of Social Welfare*, Vol. 20, No. 2, pp. 203–211.**

**Key words:**

Thailand

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article focuses on the experiences of Thai women trafficked into the sex industry in Japan. It particularly focuses on the vulnerabilities of some Thai women and the strategies used by traffickers to recruit them, based on those vulnerabilities. The article gives some insight into the methods used for transportation to Japan. The article is based on research that included a literature review, interviews with Thai trafficking experts and semi-structured interviews with four Thai women trafficked to Japan for the purpose of sexual exploitation.

Although the article is about trafficking of Thai women into sexual exploitation in Japan, there is no definition or concept of trafficking in persons presented within the article.

The purpose of conducting the research was to enhance the understanding of the specific dynamics of trafficking in persons. Through the interviews, the researchers sought to learn about the influence and control that women exercised in their choices concerning their own affairs and the constraints on those choices that stem from the place of women in the Thai social structure. The researchers also looked at the impact of social factors on each woman who was interviewed, including family, political, economic and cultural systems, their traffickers, their clients and any other victims of trafficking that interacted with them. The researchers note the limitations of their research, given the small size of their sample.

The researchers developed their interview questions from the literature they reviewed and from discussions they had with Thai experts working to provide services to former victims of trafficking in persons. The researchers asked each woman questions about her recruitment, transportation to Japan, living conditions and other experiences in Japan, how she coped, how she exited from the trafficking situation and returned home and ideas on preventing the trafficking in persons.

According to the researchers, the interviews with the four Thai women were conducted from an empowerment perspective in which the women were regarded as experts on their trafficking experience. Interviews were semi-structured, and the women were allowed to answer the questions and tell their story in their own way and in their own time. Female interviewers were employed to conduct the interviews. The researchers were put into contact with the women who were interviewed through an NGO in Chiang Rai Province in Thailand working to provide rehabilitative services to trafficked persons. Due to the researchers' concerns surrounding the re-traumatizing of the women in retelling their stories, the women selected to be interviewed had undergone extensive rehabilitation and voluntarily chose to share their experiences.

The article argues that there are many push-pull factors that lead Thai women to consider and engage in migration from their villages, sometimes into sex work. Poverty, family dysfunction, gender expectations for women to support their families and greater economic opportunity in Bangkok and overseas (in this instance Japan) are triggers for women from

rural villages to migrate. The interviewed women were all held in debt bondage, without their passport and had threats issued against them and their families should they not work to pay off their debts or attempt to escape. The article also explains that trafficking routes from Thailand to Japan are largely staffed by Thai nationals; however, the Yakuza (Japanese organized crime syndicates) are in control of the sex industry and exploitation of trafficked victims in Japan. Women are often recruited by local recruiters who are connected to larger global organized crime groups. The article suggests that traffickers prey on the economic vulnerability of rural, poor women and that Thai traffickers are increasingly women who once worked in the Japanese sex industry.

The article does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling. It does suggest that Thai nationals staff the trafficking routes from Thailand to Japan and that Thai traffickers recruit locally but are often connected to organized crime groups. The article claims that trafficking syndicates operating out of Thailand are sophisticated and well financed and maximize the opportunity that Thailand provides as a sending country of trafficked victims. It also argues that non-Thai criminal organizations often use Thailand as a trafficking transit point. From the personal accounts of the four Thai trafficked victims, the article gives some insight into the operation of trafficking networks and the transportation of victims from Thailand to Japan and their exploitation in the Japanese sex industry.

**Jureidini, R. and Moukarbel, N. (2004). Female Sri Lankan domestic workers in Lebanon: A case of 'contract slavery'? In: *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 30(4), pp. 581–607.**

**Key words:**

Sri Lanka  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This study is based on the notion that most Sri Lankan female domestic workers in Lebanon can be

described as held in “contract slavery”. A literature search provided background for the discussion on the concept of contract slavery, including its roots, parameters and whether the term is appropriate as a basis for the investigation. A second discussion focuses on previous studies of migrant domestic workers in other regions and countries. Although numerous studies have been carried out on this topic, none has centred on Lebanon.

The authors planned to use snowball sampling to gather data; however, due to the reluctance of employers to grant permission to conduct interviews, which was a requirement, alternative arrangements were made. The Sri Lankan ambassador provided access to women who were runaways or who were in need of diplomatic services (such as passport renewal and advice). A total of 70 interviews were carried out, along with supplemental interviews with Lebanese employers (10), diplomats from other countries, NGO staff and human rights lawyers. No detailed information concerning the nature and scope of these latter interviews is given.

Three types of domestic workers are identified: live-in, freelancer and runaway, and a description of each category is provided as well as the typical living and working conditions. The research found, however, that no matter which type a worker seemed to be, three factors of contract slavery were present, although live-in workers suffered the most indignities. Abuse or violence, the first factor, was prevalent, and numerous examples are presented to demonstrate its nature and scope. Physical abuse was common, but equally disturbing was how employers and agencies controlled the paperwork, including passports, or did not provide enough food. It appears that physical abuse was also used by agents to keep the domestic workers subservient.

Denial of freedom is the second factor, and ample examples of restricted freedom are cited. Withholding of paperwork again played a role because workers could not travel outside the home without their documentation. Agencies abetted the restriction of movement by encouraging employers to minimize contact with the outside world. The third factor, exploitive working conditions, builds on the second category in that workers were kept so busy that they had little time for outside movement. Examples are presented showing the breadth of work demanded,

along with the depth of labour. Many workers toiled up to 18 hours daily, and a typical workday was between 14 and 17 hours. The study concludes with a description of some steps that have been taken to improve the situation and recommendations for further improvement.

**Jureidini, R. (2010). Trafficking and contract migrant workers in the Middle East. In: *International Migration*, 48(4), pp. 142–163.**

**Key words:**

Sri Lanka  
West Asia  
Concepts, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Quantitative

**Summary:**

This article questions how the concept of trafficking in persons, as defined by the Trafficking in Persons Protocol, can be applied to migrant domestic workers. It particularly focuses on those under the *kafala* sponsorship system in the Middle East who are obligated to use a local sponsor. Based on the author's survey research carried out in 2005–2006 with 610 Ethiopian, Filipino and Sri Lankan female migrant domestic workers in Lebanon, challenges relating to definitions of trafficking in persons and related terms, including exploitation, and how these classifications affect the acknowledgement of trafficking activities, are expounded. The author suggests that although conditions of employment may be abusive or exploitive and although migration agents may have misled or deceived prospective migrant workers about the conditions, the label of “trafficking in persons” should not be rashly applied. Simply crossing borders with the intent to exploit an individual, he maintains, does not constitute trafficking. In short, the author argues that there must be evidence of systemic conspiracy between middlemen and employers for it to be a trafficking case. However, at times, his arguments are somewhat confusing as he appears to misunderstand the concept of trafficking in persons in a number of ways (for example, that there needs to be a systemic conspiracy for trafficking to occur or that trafficking in persons must even include some element of movement).

Statistics from previous surveys are presented to illustrate the numbers of migrants, numbers of recruitment and placement agencies and the proportion of such agencies found to be operating in a deceptive manner. Data from previous studies are also discussed regarding violations of workers' rights and human rights, including freedom of movement. Exploitive cases are described, as defined by the author, though he notes that measuring exploitation is a difficult task due to the broad nature of the concept and lack of a definition of the term in the Trafficking in Persons Protocol.

The author questions the stage at which migrant domestic workers become victims of trafficking for labour exploitation. He asks if there needs to be proven intent from agents and/or employers to traffic and if workers can be considered as trafficked if they enter a country through official channels. The author then discusses core definitions of trafficking, the roles and responsibilities of consent and recruitment agents relating to trafficking for labour exploitation, challenges in practice and proving deception and the facilitation of placement agents, employers and sponsors in those processes.

The author also notes that research on trafficking in persons is difficult due to limited levels of access to migrant domestic workers, particularly those in the *kafala* system. Information on cases of trafficking in persons is also limited by agencies that do not recognize employers' intentions to exploit or traffic migrants and by the fact that exploitive practices towards domestic workers have become a cultural norm. The article concludes with discussions on strengthening anti-trafficking and migrant rights conventions. The author suggests that because the abuse that many migrant workers experience may not necessarily fall under the definition of trafficking in persons, the enforcement of relevant conventions can also be supported by awareness raising among recruitment and placement agents regarding the responsibilities they should be required to accept to prevent placing migrant workers in exploitive settings.

**Kachin Women's Association Thailand. (2008). *Eastward bound: An update on migration and trafficking of Kachin women on the China-Burma border*. Chiang Mai: Kachin Women's Association Thailand.**

**Key words:**

China, Myanmar  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

The purpose of this report is to document the migration and trafficking of Kachin people from north-eastern Myanmar into China. It documents the findings of an assistance programme for Kachin women who had been trafficked into China that the Kachin Women's Association Thailand (KWAT) initiated. It is a follow-up report to the 2005 report *Driven Away*. The report refers to previous findings in a way that requires knowledge about them.

The report is based on 133 verified and suspected trafficking cases that occurred between 2004 and 2007 and involved 163 women and girls. The report does not provide details of any research methodology. It appears likely that the cases were documented as part of the KWAT's case work, which would have involved contact with both victims of trafficking and families of missing women or suspected victims of trafficking.

Of the trafficking cases, most of the women were transported across China for the purpose of forced marriage in the eastern provinces, particularly Shandong Province. Women described being shown to many men, sometimes in marketplaces, along with other abuses, such as being tied up, forced to have abortions before the sale to a prospective husband and other horrific treatment. Predominantly Chinese farmers bought women and paid an average of USD 1,900 for their bride. About a quarter of the trafficking victims were minors.

According to the report, political and economic deterioration in Myanmar are the main drivers for an increasing number of Kachin women to migrate to China in search of employment. The report also raises concerns over Myanmar's anti-trafficking law passed in 2005. The continuing high incidence of trafficking in persons indicates that the Myanmar Government's anti-trafficking law appears to be ineffective. Moreover, law enforcement officials do not adhere to the provisions of victims' rights protection.

The report does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling. It provides some information on factors that fuel irregular migration, although not in great detail. The large number of case studies provides good insight into the problem.

**Kara, S. (2009). *Sex trafficking: Inside the business of modern slavery*. New York: Columbia University Press.**

**Key words:**

India, Thailand  
South Asia, South-East Asia  
Concepts, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This book focuses on the global sex trade. Based on hundreds of interviews with victims in brothels and shelters, families of victims, brothel owners, men who purchased sex, NGO workers, police officers and attorneys, the author's condemnation of trafficking in persons for sexual exploitation is clear through the countless stories of the "slaves" he encountered while carrying out research in Albania, the Balkans, India, the Greater Mekong Subregion, Moldova, Nepal, the former Soviet Union, the United States and Western Europe. Each chapter is devoted to emotive stories of women and girls trafficked into the sex industry, child labour and debt bondage. More often than not, the victims are presented as naïve, childlike, innocent and uninformed, thus reinforcing the dominant discourse of what constitutes a trafficked victim.

What is different about this book is the author's focus on the business side of the sex trade and his recognition that people are involved in trafficking to make a profit. He argues that the pervasiveness of trafficking in persons for sexual exploitation is a direct result of the vast profits derived from the sexual exploitation of women and girls. The author discusses both the supply and demand side of trafficking in persons and argues that the best short-term tactic to combat the problem is to attack its immense profitability by making the risk of operating a sex slave operation far more costly. To address the business of trafficking for sexual exploitation in the long term, he argues that

the primary conditions that give rise to the phenomenon — poverty and the inequalities of economic globalization — must be addressed. Throughout the book, a number of solutions, ranging from a better-paid anti-trafficking police force to community vigilance, are suggested. In the concluding chapter, the author presents a framework for abolition, which is based on the creation of an extra-governmental Coalition of Freedom dedicated to abolishing all forms of trafficking in persons and slavery.

**Kaur, K. (2005). *The media and migrant labour issues in Malaysia: A content analysis of selected Malaysian newspapers*. [Paper in special issue: A. Kaur and I. Metcalfe (eds.). *Migrant Labour in Southeast Asia: Needed, Not Wanted*.] In: *Review of Indonesian and Malaysian Affairs*, 39(2), pp. 69–90.**

**Key words:**

China, India, Indonesia, Malaysia  
Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This paper examines the representation of migrant labourers in the Malaysian media. English and Malay language mainstream newspapers, some of which are available online, as well as one online news agency and one alternative online newspaper were studied from January to August 2003. From them, 104 news stories were selected and analysed. Some preliminary content analysis using SPSS predictive software was carried out on these articles to understand what issues were represented in the print media. The paper concludes that the media shows foreign workers as both victims who are abused and exploited and as troublemakers who contribute to crime and violence in the country.

The paper discusses the economic background of labour migration and recruitment and migration policies in Malaysia. Recruitment policy has swung between liberal recruitment and a freeze on foreign workers, and policies to control irregular migrants have included amnesty programmes and the legalization of irregular workers. Irregular migrants have been allowed to exit the country without penalty. Irregular migration

was criminalized by the Malaysian Immigration Act of 2002, according to which irregular foreign workers can be imprisoned, fined and caned. Employers of irregular migrants can also be imprisoned and caned.

The paper focuses mainly on how migrants are perceived and therefore provides only limited information on how migration and migrant workers' situations are in reality. Migrant smuggling is not addressed in the paper, and irregular migration is only mentioned within the context of undocumented employment. The methods for irregularly entering Malaysia are not detailed.

**Kaya, K. (2008). *Trafficking in persons in Afghanistan – Field survey*. Kabul: International Organization for Migration.**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Routes, Smuggling, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This report provides an in-depth analysis of the trafficking in persons phenomenon in Afghanistan. The research involved a multi-faceted approach, including interviews with experts working on counter-trafficking, community informants and victims of trafficking and of the relevant crimes as well as a literature review. The fieldwork was first conducted in Kabul and then in nine border provinces in 2007. A total of 220 community informants were interviewed. Educated members of the community were randomly selected and asked to share their views and to help the research team identify possible victims of trafficking. As a result, 82 additional interviews were conducted with individuals who were designated, based on the information shared by community informants. The interviews had various purposes: (1) to gain understanding about the common perception and awareness level of trafficking in persons and related issues, (2) to gain insights from the trafficking victims, their stories of persecution and details concerning the traffickers and (3) to learn about the major activities of anti-trafficking

organizations in Afghanistan and their progress or achievements hitherto.

The major findings include that cross-border trafficking to Pakistan or the Islamic Republic of Iran is significant (most of the survey respondents were smuggled to or through Pakistan or the Islamic Republic of Iran), various human rights violations contribute directly or indirectly to trafficking (such as forced marriage, child marriage, child abuse and domestic violence), less-educated people are more prone to become victims and that most victims are taken by force or tricked by people they are already acquainted with. As well, there is a lack of legal provisions to prosecute traffickers, and female victims of sexual exploitation are currently criminalized and imprisoned. Ultimately the report concludes that the historical, economic and social factors that contribute to the prevalence of trafficking are deeply imbedded in Afghan society, which makes a rapid improvement of the situation unlikely.

According to the author, a considerable number of cases referred to the research team as trafficking cases turned out to be cases of migrant smuggling and kidnapping, reflecting a lack of understanding among the informants and their inability to distinguish between the three concepts. Of the total 82 cases, 20 were confirmed situations of trafficking while 43 were cases of kidnapping for ransom and 19 were migrant smuggling cases. Thus, the majority of those interviewed were not victims of trafficking. The researchers decided to also analyse migrant smuggling and kidnapping cases for comparison.

According to the author, the study encountered several cultural and social constraints, due to families often not reporting a member trafficked for sexual servitude in order to avoid stigmatization by the community. Researchers were also confronted with security issues.

The research highlights the crucial issues that facilitate trafficking in persons and provides insight into the impact of Afghan counter-trafficking efforts. The study contributes knowledge on migrant smuggling in Afghanistan by presenting valuable information on smuggling routes, fees and profiles of smuggled migrants. An excerpt of an interview with a smuggled migrant further illustrates the hardships that migrants endure and provides brief insight into the organization of smuggling.

**Kim, E., Yun, M., Park, M. and Williams, H. (2009). Cross-border North Korean women trafficking and victimization between North Korea and China: An ethnographic case study. In: *International Journal of Law, Crime and Justice*, 37(4), pp. 154–169.**

**Key words:**

China

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

The study reflected in this article worked to uncover and describe the process of victimization and cross-border trafficking of women from the Democratic People's Republic of Korea into China. The primary research method was semi-structured interviews with 77 adult female victims of trafficking. Eligible participants were identified using the definition of Trafficking in Persons Protocol. Participants were found with the assistance of an NGO and then by snowball technique. All participants in the sample had experienced victimization of trafficking for sexual exploitation in China. The purpose of the interviews was to gain knowledge about (1) the profiles and characteristics of victims, (2) the profiles and characteristics of traffickers and (3) the trafficking routes and procedural networks of trafficking operations.

The article presents findings about the profile of traffickers and victims of trafficking and the factors that impact on the vulnerability to victimization. In terms of the traffickers, the researchers found that traffickers involved in cross-border trafficking came from three ethnic or nationality groups: Koreans, Chinese and Korean Chinese. Korean Chinese had a major role in trafficking operations, serving as a bridge between the two distinctive cultural and linguistic groups.

Regarding the characteristics of victims in the sample, the researchers noted that the age range of the trafficking victims from the Democratic People's Republic of Korea was much wider compared with trafficking victims in other countries, with some victims aged between 40 and 70; the authors compared

this finding with previous studies dealing with trafficking issues in Central and Eastern Europe, China, India and Nepal. The women in this study were trapped into victimization either by forced kidnapping or voluntary consent under deception. Primary facilitating factors for increasing the vulnerability of Korean women were the economic conditions in the Democratic People's Republic of Korea and a high demand for trafficked women in China. The authors conclude that the problem of trafficking of Korean women is substantial and constitutes a significant international problem.

According to the authors, it is very difficult to conduct an empirical study on trafficking of women in both the Democratic People's Republic of Korea or in China, and it is thus difficult to know the exact nature and extent of the problem.

The article does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling due to its focus on trafficking in persons. It does provide some background information on irregular migration and factors that facilitate irregular migration.

The article highlights the process of victimization of Korean women and cross-border trafficking between the Democratic People's Republic of Korea and China since 1990. It provides valuable information regarding the demographic characteristics of traffickers and their victims, root causes for victimization, cross-border trafficking routes and trafficking networks. Furthermore, the different stages in the trafficking process are described in detail. According to the authors, this research constitutes the first systematic empirical study on this issue.

**Kim, W. B. (2004). Migration of foreign workers into the Republic of Korea: From periphery to semi-periphery in the global labor market. In: *Asian Survey*, 44(2), pp. 316–335.**

**Key words:**

China

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article illustrates the migration of foreign workers into the Republic of Korea as a process situated “between the periphery and the semi-periphery” at the global level. For the research, the author reviewed several data sets regarding the number of foreign workers, their working conditions and policy responses by the Korean Government. In addition, the author conducted interviews with two ethnic Korean Chinese migrant workers.

The author concludes that migration of foreign Asian workers into the Republic of Korea may be regarded as a typical case of how labour forces in the global market move regionally from the periphery toward the semi-periphery. The rapid wage increases and labour shortages since the late 1980s in the Republic of Korea forced the Government to permit foreign workers as a necessary solution. However, when the many foreign workers remained in the country irregularly, the Government initiated a trainee system, designed to maintain control over unauthorized labour by imposing strict employment requirements on foreign workers. In reality, the author argues, those so-called trainees functioned as low-wage workers in the labour system and had few rights. The trainee system underwent several amendments after an increasing number of demands and call for reforms were made from foreign workers, trade unions and civil organizations. Ultimately, the Government maintained the Industrial Trainee System but also revised its migration and labour laws to guarantee more rights to regular and irregular foreign workers. The author concludes that the Government now faces a dilemma: On one hand, small firms are affected by a labour shortage that can only be resolved with an influx of foreign labour force, but on the other hand, the Government wants to shield the very same labour market from foreign competition.

The study highlighted the social and economic constraints that foreign migrant workers experience in the Republic of Korea. The article does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling. It provides some information on irregular foreign workers in the Republic of Korea who fall into irregularity by deserting their original workplace for another job or by entering the country through travel visas with the motive to overstay and gain employment. According to the article, Chinese constitute the dominant majority of unauthorized workers in the country, fol-



lowed by Bangladeshis, Filipinos and Vietnamese. In addition, the article provides data sets regarding the number and nationality of foreign irregular workers in the Republic of Korea in 2002.

**Kneebone, S. and Debeljak, J. (2010). Combating transnational crime in the Greater Mekong Subregion: The cases of Laos and Cambodia. In: L. Holmes (ed.). *Trafficking and human rights: A European and Asia-Pacific perspective*. Northampton: Edward Elgar Publishing Ltd.**

**Key words:**

Cambodia, Lao PDR, Thailand  
Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This chapter uses case studies of the anti-trafficking efforts of Lao People's Democratic Republic and Cambodia to draw attention to the strengths and limitations of criminal justice responses. The case studies emphasize the need for stable institutions in order for counter-trafficking efforts to be effective. The methodology for the case studies was in-depth interviews and content analysis. Data was used from experts, case reports, NGO and intergovernmental reports and academic articles. In total, 40 interview sessions were conducted in Lao PDR and Cambodia with 50 people. The chapter examines potentially problematic areas of implementation of the Trafficking in Persons Protocol in Lao PDR and Cambodia, and the authors conclude that not enough emphasis has been given to victim protection in either country.

According to the authors, migration patterns in Lao PDR and Cambodia circle around both the labour and sex industries. Although the relative economic wealth of Thailand creates a strong incentive for regular and irregular labour migration flows, initial anti-trafficking initiatives were solely developed to combat trafficking for sexual exploitation. Implementation of the United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime and the Trafficking in Persons Protocol in the region has been overwhelmingly based upon law enforcement.

Lao PDR is mainly a country of origin for trafficking in persons, with most flows heading for Thailand. Because national birth registration does not exist in Lao PDR, in addition to underreporting of the crime, it is difficult to attain reliable data on the magnitude of trafficking flows. Interviewees reported that trafficking for forced labour was more common than trafficking for sexual exploitation. It is unclear whether recruiters only worked locally or whether they were part of larger criminal networks. Many recruiters were known to the victims, but exploitation usually did not occur until the destination had been reached.

Thailand is also a destination for Cambodian victims of trafficking. Trafficking in the region has been described as a cottage industry. The research indicated that family members, neighbours and friends were involved in networks, which can be small or large-scale. As in the case of Lao PDR, the majority of Cambodian male and female victims were trafficked for labour exploitation outside of the sex industry. In both cases, the evidence showed that most victims willingly crossed the border into Thailand, meaning that intermediaries may have a lesser role in the trafficking process.

The chapter provides insight into the gap between policy intentions and the realities of trafficking, specifically focusing on the dearth of measures to combat trafficking for labour exploitation. It further provides useful information about the structure and organization of trafficking groups, although it attests that there are knowledge gaps in this area. The fact that trafficking victims initially cross the border into Thailand independently is also of great importance because it implies that trafficking networks are more centred in Thailand, the country of destination, rather than in recruiting and transportation schemes in the countries of origin. No details are provided on how migrants become victims of trafficking in Thailand, although various vulnerabilities are discussed.

**Koser, K. (2008). Why migrant smuggling pays. In: *International Migration*, 46(2), pp. 3–26.**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan, Pakistan  
Concept, Fees and payment for smuggling, Modus

operandi of smuggling, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This article explores the financing of migrant smuggling and presents new empirical data on the issue. The purpose of the study was to contribute to the understanding of how migrant smuggling operates as a business and to enhance this particular conceptual approach.

The article draws on two fieldwork periods between 2003 and 2004. The first trip to Afghanistan and Pakistan included interviews with representatives from governments, international organizations, NGOs and law enforcement agencies as well as local researchers, journalists and activists in the field. In-depth interviews were conducted with five smugglers and five agents variously involved in the process. The purpose of the second fieldtrip to Pakistan was to interview families of smuggled migrants. A structured questionnaire was used, and a total of 50 households were interviewed. The purpose of the interviews was to gain understanding about the context for migrant smuggling from Afghanistan and Pakistan, enhance the knowledge about the socio-economic context from which smuggled migrants originate and to learn about the implications for people who are presumably often involved in smuggling activities and may have to raise the money for them but who do not actually move.

According to the research findings, the means used to raise the capital to pay smugglers ranged from drawing on savings to selling property, land and jewellery. Payments were made to a third person, who would not release the payment to the smuggler until the migrant had arrived at the destination. The study found that smugglers disbursed about half of the fee to intermediaries required to facilitate the smuggling process, such as forgers, procurers of passports, airport officials and others. Most of the smuggled migrants quickly found work in their destination and began remitting soon after their arrival. On average, migrants were able to pay off their debt after two years, and thereafter remittances were on average more than twice the household income in their countries of origin. The study concludes that the

smuggling process included the payment to a range of intermediaries by the migrants and their family members at home. Migrant smuggling, the author concludes, constitutes a profitable business.

The author points out that not all actors involved in migrant smuggling were interviewed because the goal to speak to smugglers was achieved only with limited success. The author also notes that there is a general consensus among researchers that interviewing smugglers in destination countries is nearly impossible and that the household survey cannot be considered representative due to a significant non-response rate. Thus the results presented in this study are considered indicative rather than conclusive.

The article provides insight into the migrant smuggling process from a relatively new set of perspectives: the financial risks for smugglers, the profits made by smugglers and the reinvestment of those profits, the disbursement of payments for services facilitating cross-border smuggling offered by intermediaries and the financial risks and rewards for migrants. The study is unique for its approach to tracking money throughout the smuggling process using empirical research.

**Kotiswaran, P. (2008). Born unto brothels: Toward a legal ethnography of sex work in an Indian red-light area. In: *Law and Society Review*, 33(3), pp. 579–629.**

**Key words:**

India  
South Asia  
Concepts, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

Based on ethnographic work in Sonagachi, one of the largest red-light districts of India, the article examines the complicated nature of the relationship between criminal prostitution law and the sex industry. The author maintains that advocates and abolitionists of the sex industry put too much faith in criminal legislation. For abolitionists, enforcing criminal laws can eliminate sex markets, whereas advocates claim that decriminalization can empower

sex workers. Her research highlights that the relationship between criminal law and sex markets is more complex. The findings include an illustration of the levels of actors operating in Sonagachi and the existence of an elaborate system of formal and informal legal and social norms, rules and markets. At the heart of this system is a locally manifested way of interpreting criminal law that limits the way any changes in the formal legal rules would be implemented. It is this challenge that leads the author to suggest the need for a fundamental reassessment of criminal law's central position in discussions of prostitution law reform.

Using an experimental ethnographic approach that can be critiqued for the way in which sex workers are portrayed as rational-choice actors, the article is based on data collected from 50 interviews with individuals and organizations operating in and around Sonagachi over two periods (the summers of 2005 and 2006) of fieldwork. The interview findings are supported by secondary written sources, including surveys and project reports from a local sex worker organization and HIV prevention projects. Most sections of the article frame localized research findings within a thorough discussion of the legal and political acts, codes and guidelines.

The findings are presented first as they relate to the sociology of sex work and the legal ethnography of Sonagachi, identifying the brothel as an institution with a standardized protocol of labour organization, living arrangements and supporting practices and norms. Actors within Sonagachi as well as external actors interact with the brothels in a variety of ways, and the article presents unique illustrations of complex networks formed around each brothel as well as typical tenancy arrangements in the district. The locally organized structures are then contextualized in how they operate in relation to legal definitions of labour relationships, the organization of sex work and rental and tenancy arrangements.

Final discussions revisit four regulatory options available for sex work and discussions on what each option would mean for the district and relevant actors, including the sex workers. The conclusions call for a more complex perspective be taken on the development of an understanding of power relations within Sonagachi and other red-light districts, including a disaggregation of the traditionally recognized cat-

egories of actors, a realization that legal rules are interpreted through complex local power relations and structures and the development of a perspective of sex work less embroiled in the bias that often comes with discussions surrounding the sex industry.

**Krebs, M. and Pechova, E. (2008). *Vietnamese workers in Czech factories – Research report*. Prague: La Strada Czech Republic.**

**Key words:**

Viet Nam

Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This report is an outcome of a project implemented by the NGO La Strada in 2008 and is a follow-up report of a previously implemented project in 2007, which aimed at expanding the knowledge on trafficked persons and the prevention of it and exploitation within the Vietnamese community in the Czech Republic.

The purpose of the research was to verify previously gathered information about the exploitation of Vietnamese workers in the Czech Republic by compiling information about their working and living conditions and the circumstances related to their departure. The research involved 23 semi-structured interviews with Vietnamese workers. The interviews focused specifically on the respondents' motivation to migrate, on services provided by job agencies, on their working and living conditions in the Czech Republic and on their future prospects. In addition, 11 non-standard, unstructured interviews were carried out with relevant Czech and Vietnamese actors, such as representatives of job agencies, to gain an understanding of the overall situation and other related issues. The report includes a brief discussion on trafficking in persons, exploitation and forced labour as defined by Czech law.

According to the research findings, all interviewed migrant workers were heavily indebted at their time of arrival, after having paid between USD 6,500 and USD 14,000 to official intermediary agencies or unofficial companies or individuals for travel arrangements.

Corruption at the Czech embassy in Viet Nam contributes to the high prices for travel arrangements. A lack of information was identified as a major driver of vulnerability, and various persons involved in the process of agency employment intentionally create and maintain circumstances of dependence, which they subsequently abuse for their personal gain. Then Vietnamese workers in the Czech Republic suffer from substandard living and working conditions. Nonetheless, nearly all respondents would choose to remain in the Czech Republic if they lost their authorization to stay.

The report does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling. Although it identifies exploitive practices and conditions, it is not clear whether these conditions meet the requirements of trafficking in persons or forced labour as defined by the Penal Code of the Czech Republic or the respective United Nations protocol and ILO convention.

**Lahiri, A. (2010). Women smugglers of Naxalbari. In: *Indian Journal of Gender Studies*, 17(2), pp. 287–295.**

**Keywords:**

India

Factors that fuel irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

In this paper, the author examines a seldom-reported form of smuggling — the smuggling of goods by women. Poverty in North Bengal in India is common, and this reality has prompted an increase in the use of women as carriers of goods. Males previously dominated this activity, but police operations forced the heads of smuggling rings to seek other means of transit. Women were recruited because they were perceived as more efficient than men and more docile as well as easy to exploit.

The research explored women's working conditions in smuggling the goods. To carry out the investigation, the author interviewed 60 women who were categorized in terms of their work and payment. These were: (1) leaders who had their own syndicates, (2) carriers who were paid by a percentage and

(3) carriers who worked on a consignment basis. The interviews were supplemented by informal conversations on buses as they carried goods and by observations of their face-to-face meetings with customs officials.

The results showed that most of the women were Bengali, the majority of whom were from Bangladesh. Women were prompted to engage in smuggling by economic opportunities; however, earnings varied by category, with leaders of their own syndicates earning the most. Other findings focused on exploitation, domestic life and the women's futures. Exploitation was a common occurrence, and there were three sources (customs officials and police, ringleaders and husbands). The women made substantial contributions to their household, but husbands gave the women little say in how the money would be spent. Weaning women from smuggling of goods has proven to be difficult because money is relatively easy to earn as a smuggler, and they are familiar with the work. Schemes to help these women have been sporadic.

Although the paper does not address the issue of migrant smuggling, it is useful because it highlights the push-pull factors that drive women in North Bengal to engage in whatever occupations are available to them. The paper notes that northern districts have recorded higher migration rates than the state average as well as unaccounted migration from Bangladesh. It is possible that the profile of persons using the services of smugglers would present similar characteristics.

**Lee, M. (2008). Policing Chinese migrant sex workers in Hong Kong. In: *International Migration*, 46(3), pp. 95–121.**

**Key words:**

China

Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article examines the use of intense policing and mass imprisonment as instruments of migration management, using the example of the regulation of sex workers from China in Hong Kong (China).

The main data for this research was collected during two exploratory field trips to Hong Kong (China) between 2004 and 2006. The research involved the examination of official statistics, relevant documents and in-depth interviews with law enforcement officials, researchers and activists.

The author argues that Hong Kong (China) migration control measures reflect the aim of the local government to attract affluent visitors through relaxed border controls while simultaneously discouraging needy migrants. For some women, crossing the border and working in the sex industry constitutes the best or even only option for economic survival and social advancement. The author further argues that the migratory control regime in Hong Kong (China) not only leads many migrant women into low-status sex work but also criminalizes and stigmatizes them for doing so. The research found that the reliance on intense policing and criminal justice sanctions towards irregular migration has led to a massive increase in arrests and detention of migrant women in Hong Kong (China). However, there appeared to be little evidence to suggest that such measures can provide a solution to the root causes of migratory sex work.

The article does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling. The focus of the research was on Chinese immigration violators who fall into irregularity by overstaying, pursuing unlawful activities or taking up employment without the necessary authorization. The study highlights the limited effectiveness of punitive migratory control measures.

**Leiter, K., Suwanvanichkij, V., Tamm, I., Iacopino, V. and Beyrer, C. (2006). Human rights abuses and vulnerability to HIV/AIDS: The experiences of Burmese women in Thailand. In: *Health and Human Rights*, 9(2), pp. 88–111.**

**Key words:**

Myanmar, Thailand

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This paper looks at the health and human rights concerns related to irregular Myanmar migrants in Thailand. It focuses on the experience of Myanmar migrant women through an investigation of their living and working conditions and lack of access to HIV, AIDS and reproductive health services. Myanmar women are characterized as especially vulnerable to HIV infection because of abuses suffered as a result of migration to Thailand, including ethnic and gender discrimination, violence, unsafe migration practices, vulnerability to trafficking in persons, labour and sexual exploitation and a denial to health care and labour protection.

While making mention of the concept of trafficking in persons, the paper does not specify a working definition of the term.

The research, conducted by Physicians for Human Rights in 2004, aimed to (1) generate an understanding of human rights abuses suffered by Myanmar migrants in Thailand; (2) identify and understand factors, conditions and practices of trafficking of these migrants; (3) assess the health consequences of migration, including HIV infection; (4) understand the relationship between the commercial sex industry and sexual exploitation to trafficking in persons and other forms of unsafe migration and (5) to assess government responses to the health and human rights of Myanmar migrant women.

Interviews were conducted with a number of Myanmar migrant women to allow them to explain and give insight into their migration experience, including trafficking in some cases. The interviews with the migrant women were designed to document their experiences of unsafe migration and trafficking, labour exploitation or sexual exploitation. The women were introduced to the researchers by NGOs working with former victims of trafficking. The research does not specify the number of women interviewed. Interviews were also conducted with government officials, national and international NGO representatives and researchers through a series of semi-structured questions relating to human rights and the health of Myanmar migrant workers. The authors also conducted a literature review to give context to the study.

The research presented a number of findings relating to migration methods and consequences of irregular

migration to Thailand from Myanmar and provided a small amount of detail on migration routes and financial costs of migrant smuggling. It identified a number of push factors for migration from Myanmar to Thailand, including a desire to escape poverty and political persecution, seeking a livelihood in Thailand, sending money home and pursuing education opportunities. The researchers note the importance of smuggling in the migration process, considering that smugglers had the best ability to facilitate irregular migration, facilitate the transportation of large numbers of migrants and navigate safe migration routes that avoid police detection as opposed to migration without assistance. They also comment that trafficking in persons from Myanmar to Thailand is a common migration practice because of the vulnerabilities of Myanmar migrants. The most significant finding of the research is that irregular Myanmar migrants in Thailand fall outside labour protections and access to health services because of their irregular status, which then makes them more vulnerable to exploitation and abuse.

The article offers insight into why irregular migrants employ the service of smugglers to avoiding police detection. Some information is provided on the routes used and costs associated with the services of migrant smugglers, although this is limited.

**Leman, J. and Janssens, S. (2007). The various 'safe'-house profiles in East-European human smuggling and trafficking. In: *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 33(8), pp. 1377–1388.**

**Key words:**

China, India  
Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This article analyses the role and functions of safe houses in the process of migrant smuggling and/or trafficking in persons from and via Eastern Europe to Belgium and the Netherlands. It examines a few large-scale international networks involved in mi-

grant smuggling and trafficking in persons, for which the use of safe houses is standard practice. The authors compare their findings with those reported in the reviewed literature on safe houses, which mainly examines Chinese migrant smuggling networks.

The research involved examining 50 judicial dossiers for the period of 1995–2005. The researchers identified 22 safe houses associated with smuggling routes across Eastern Europe. These can be traced to eight East European networks. However, some of the Albanian case studies indicated alliances with Chinese and Indian criminal organizations.

The authors conclude that safe houses are places for numerous illegal activities, including financial transactions, counterfeiting of documents, money laundering and transferring or “stowing away” of victims or migrants. The authors also point out that the term “safe house”, which is used quite generally in the literature, may, according to the findings, not be the most accurate one because safe houses that are actually safe for clients are exceptional. Further, there is a grey area between migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons due to some large-scale smuggling networks investing in trafficking for prostitution and some prostitution organizations also investing in smuggling activities. Regarding the use and quality of safe houses, the authors also point to a possible difference between those used for migrant smuggling and those used for trafficking for female prostitution.

Despite its focus on East European criminal networks, the article provides some information on a complex international joint-venture network consisting of Albanian, Chinese and Indian smugglers. In addition, the authors briefly point to a large-scale Afghan smuggling network operating a safe house in Belgium.

The article points out that the explicit focus on criminal organizations and the link between Eastern Europe and Belgium may make it difficult to generalize about migrant smuggling and trafficking, either on a small scale or outside Europe. The study highlights the crucial role of safe houses in smuggling operations.

**Leung, H. C. and Lee, K. M. (2005). Immigration controls, life-course coordination and**

**livelihood strategies: A study of families living across the mainland-Hong Kong border.** In: *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, 26(4), pp. 487–507.

**Key words:**

China  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

Using the example of China-Hong Kong (China) cross-border families, this article examines the effects of restrictive migration controls and the resulting difficulties families encounter in pursuing a livelihood.

The research involved interviews with 24 families who can be divided into two groups: (1) families who live in Hong Kong (China) but include family members who do not have the right of abode there and (2) family members who live largely in China but include members who work or study in Hong Kong (China). Respondents were interviewed in informal settings about their residence, work and family histories. In addition, other actors who were in regular contact with these families and possessed personal knowledge about their situations were also interviewed.

The researchers conclude that the migration quota system that governs migration from China to Hong Kong (China) complicates the efforts of families to secure their long-term viability and arrange for their intergenerational caring. The cross-border families studied apply different coping strategies to take care of their family members, including circumventing the law if necessary. However, strategies such as overstaying visits and irregular migration are costly in terms of financial loss and personal hardship. Family caregivers who resort to irregular migration are often forced to stay in Hong Kong (China) as irregular migrants. Thus, cross-border families are disadvantaged because they have to negotiate with migration controls to pursue their livelihood goals and lack access to the assets that are necessary to cope with the restrictions.

The article presents case studies of cross-border families who relied on migrant smuggling in order to

reunite. However, no particular details on the process of migrant smuggling are presented. As well, all smuggling cases refer to the period before 1997, when Hong Kong was still a member of the British Commonwealth. Thus, the article does not contribute knowledge about current migrant smuggling methods and practices between China and Hong Kong (China).

**Li, M. K., Beck, M. A., Shi, Q. and Harruff, R. C. (2004). Unexpected hazard of illegal immigration: Outbreak of viral myocarditis exacerbated by confinement and deprivation in a shipboard cargo container.** In: *American Journal of Forensic Medicine and Pathology*, 25(2), pp. 117–124.

**Key words:**

China  
Human and social costs of smuggling, Modus operandi, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

The authors of this article describe an unexpected and potentially fatal hazard associated with irregular migration, based on an incident in which 18 Chinese irregular migrants were smuggled into the United States inside a cargo container. Of the 18 irregular migrants, three arrived dead and one died four months later. The authors present evidence showing that the conditions suffered inside the shipping container were responsible for all four deaths and that a unique cluster of viral myocarditis, transmitted during transit, contributed to or caused the deaths.

The study included an evaluation of the two-week ocean voyage, analysis of medical records and laboratory results of the survivors, autopsies on the deceased and viral studies of their heart tissue.

The incident represents an unexpected hazard insofar as viral myocarditis is usually regarded as self-limiting and subclinical (below the surface of clinical detection). Thus, the authors conclude that the confinement in a crowded cargo container and the suffering from gastroenteritis, acute malnutrition and dehydration increased the migrants' susceptibil-

ity to viral infection and promoted rapid spread of the virus. In addition, the nutritional stress during the confinement may have been responsible for the mutation of the virus into a more virulent form.

The article is aimed at specialists in the medical sector and focuses primarily on the results of the autopsy examinations. However, it highlights some of the potential risks and hazards of smuggling for both migrants and receiving countries. It also provides some information on the profiles of the smuggled migrants and describes the living conditions on board.

**Li, M. (2010). An overview of the migration mechanism of China and Europe. In: G. Yun (ed.), *Concealed chains: Labor exploitation and Chinese migrants in Europe*. Geneva: International Labour Organization (Vol. 1).**

**Key words:**

China

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payments for smuggling, Irregular migration, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This book chapter examines the transnational migration brokerage market in China and its role in the migration mechanism between China and Europe. From the perspective of sending regions, it analyses the main actors, compares transnational brokerage fees, explains how and why potential migrants pay these fees and compares the resulting implications on migrants' lives overseas.

The author conducted the interviews involved in the research, and the chapter draws on original research conducted over a period of 10 years. No further information about the research method is provided.

The chapter concludes that transnational labour brokerage in China has evolved from a service among friends and family into a repayment system. Using a complex migration loan and credit system embedded in a system of duties and mutual trust and benefit, prospective migrants are willing to pay extremely high fees to migration brokers who resort to official

and unofficial approaches. Transnational brokerage fees vary from region to region in China and appear to fluctuate with the wage level in the destination market. The author argues that participants consider illegal transnational practices acceptable for average people, due to contradictions between official migration policies and the labour demand of sending and receiving countries. China combats migrant smuggling on the one hand but welcomes successful migrant returnees on the other. At the same time, although receiving countries in Europe have strengthened official controls on migrants, irregular migrant workers in low-paying jobs are tolerated and encouraged by amnesty regulations.

The chapter does not directly contribute knowledge about the mechanics of migrant smuggling. Nonetheless, it provides insight into migrants' perceptions of smuggling as a respectable, rational process. The study focuses on the legal and illegal aspects of the transnational brokerage market in China, gives good background information on the issue and compares transnational brokerage fees for different regions and destination countries.

**Lin, S. and Bax, T. (2009). Irregular emigration from Fuzhou: A rural perspective. In: *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal*, 18(4), pp. 539–551.**

**Key words:**

China

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This paper explores out-migration from Fuzhou city, China, and compares rural and urban communities. The purpose of the research was to identify factors that contribute to the fact that the majority of Fuzhou's irregular migrants originate from rural-based and county-based communities rather than urban-based communities.

The research involved semi-structured interviews as well as long-term and short-term participant ob-



servation in the migrant-sending communities of Fuzhou city. Respondents included village cadres, heads of the elderly association and leaders of lineage and religious associations. According to the authors, the involvement of those informants was of particular importance because they are typically highly respected individuals who are acquainted with nearly every member of the village and had knowledge about families that included migrants. Participants in the study were found via snowball sampling. More than 100 informants were interviewed over a period of two years.

China's dual social security system, which is characterized by a general non-availability of social security for rural residents, is a contributing factor to rural migration. Contrary to urban areas, rural areas in China do not offer health and old age insurance or unemployment and poverty relief systems. Thus, rural residents may consider migration to enable them to cover for emergencies by accumulating and saving capital earned abroad or to acquire foreign citizenship to benefit from the receiving nation's social security system. The authors further argue that internal migration is considered a less attractive alternative to out-migration because rural residents are bound to their status by China's dual system. Once migrants acquire a foreign passport, they can return to China with a new status as overseas Chinese, a social category that local governments tend to highly respect. Thus, irregular migration presents a shortcut to social mobility and to contest a low social status.

The researchers found that strong social norms in rural communities, based on communal responsibility and reciprocal relationships, function as a security system for potential migrants against unreliable migration brokers. Smugglers, in turn, try to protect their clients to avoid negative social consequences. The potential of social capital to perpetuate migration in urban communities is diminished by weak, impersonal and legalistic ties. The study also suggests that the willingness of parents to sacrifice their happiness for the sake of their offspring is specifically strong in rural communities, which reflects a traditional feature of the Chinese family concept. This traditional perspective increasingly changes in urban communities due to the influence of globalization. The display of material wealth by successful migrants may push other villagers into migration in the hopes of achieving the same material wealth.

The paper explores factors that contribute to rural irregular migration and has no specific focus on the process of migrant smuggling. However, the paper demonstrates that values, such as trust, social solidarity and reciprocal assistance operate between potential migrants and smugglers.

The paper highlights that irregular migration from Fuzhou city is strongly influenced by specific features that characterize Chinese rural society and particularly the unique structure of China's social security system that favours urban residents. The factors identified through the study may complement the commonly held view that poverty is the main reason for rural irregular migration.

**Lin, W. T. and Tzu-Hsing Chen, C. (2007). How the sex industry market determines the distribution of smuggling hot spots in Taiwan: An empirical study of illegal immigration of mainland Chinese females to Taiwan. In: *Flinders Journal of Law Reform*, 8(10), pp. 775–793.**

**Key words:**

China

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Organization of smuggling, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This article investigates the causal link of crime hot spots and the sex industry in the Taiwan Province of China. According to the authors, the purpose of this study is to extend the results of a previously conducted study, which showed that the majority of women from China smuggled into Taiwan Province of China are involved in the sex industry.

The study involved in-depth interviews with 14 irregular female migrants and the completion of self-administered questionnaires by 14 law enforcement officials (all male) with experience in investigating irregular migration. The irregular migrant participants were located at care centres for people from China in the Taiwanese cities of Hsinchu and Ilan. The snowballing sample technique was used to find law enforcement officers eligible for the study. The pur-

pose of the interviews was to gain knowledge about the work experiences of female Chinese irregular migrants and to collect the views of law enforcement officers on irregular migration, specifically about features and locations of spots favoured by irregular migrants, the difficulties of tracing irregular migrants and possible trends in irregular migration.

According to the research findings, a majority of the irregular female migrants from China in the Taiwan Province of China are involved in the sex industry. Given the small sample size, it is not clear whether this finding can be applied to all irregular migrants from China. The findings also indicate that criminal gangs involved in irregular migration from China have special characteristics that result in the different geographical distribution of smuggling hot spots. For example, gangs from the northern parts of Taiwan Province of China are involved in migrant smuggling, while gangs from the southern area specialize in the smuggling of goods. The study confirmed the correlation between the distribution of irregular smuggling hot spots and the sex industry in Taiwan Province of China.

The article highlights how the sex trade market in Taiwan Province of China effects the distribution of irregular migration hot spots. It provides brief information about the labour distribution of Chinese-Taiwanese smuggling gangs, gives a short explanation on why irregular female migrants tend to choose the sex business and why gangs in northern Taiwan Province of China choose to smuggle migrants.

**Lisborg, A. (2009). *Going back moving on: A synthesis of the trends and experiences of returned trafficking victims in Thailand and the Philippines*. Bangkok: International Labour Organization.**

**Key words:**

Thailand

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Routes, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This report presents findings from research on the issues, obstacles and opportunities related to the return

and reintegration of Thai and Filipino female migrants who had been trafficked or subjected to labour exploitation. The research provides insight into a number of exploitive conditions abroad experienced by Thai and Filipino women and highlights the complications that women face when they return home as a result of their pre- and post-migration experiences.

The issue of trafficking in persons is discussed widely in the report, and the Trafficking in Persons Protocol definition is cited as a principal guide.

The research involved interviews with 59 returned women from Thailand and the Philippines who were victims of trafficking abroad (29 Thai women from the North and North-East of Thailand and 30 returned Filipino women who were trafficked and abused). The interviews were semi-structured and were used to gain an understanding of individual experiences and challenges of the returned migrants, both before leaving their homeland and following their return. All interviews were quantitatively and qualitatively analysed to present a complete picture of the women's experiences. Tables of data are presented with information derived from the interviews on issues, including reasons for migrating, type of work before migrating, recruitment experiences, types of exploitation and abuse suffered in the destination workplace, the number of times the women had migrated abroad, ways out of exploitation and the migrants' experiences of returning home.

All women interviewed were referred to the researchers by NGOs and service providers. Informants from selected government offices and NGOs were also interviewed to gain an understanding of the services available to women who had been trafficked.

The research found that the majority of women in the sample experienced the same problems upon their return home that had prompted them to migrate in the first place. Poverty, debt repayments, desire for independence and trouble within family dynamics often still existed for returning women, although they had the added burden of trauma suffered from their trafficking experience and difficulties in some instances of gaining social acceptance within their family and/or communities. The report advocates for more effort, through a range of recommendations, in the facilitation of return and reintegration of trafficked persons to overcome these challenges.

Chapter two of the report offers good information and insight into the trafficking process, the reasons for using facilitators/traffickers and the role of facilitators in the migration journey. There is a broad outline of trafficking routes from Thailand to destinations, including Japan, the Netherlands, South Africa and Italy. There is also a discussion of the working conditions and experiences of women in their places of employment in relation to their vulnerability and subsequent abuse.

**Martin, P. (2004). *Thailand: Improving the management of foreign workers*. Bangkok: International Labour Organization.**

**Key words:**

Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Thailand  
Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This report provides an analysis of the migrant worker situation in Thailand, particularly in relation to Cambodian, Lao and Myanmar low-skilled (usually irregular) migrants. It offers forecasts for future migration trends and suggests a number of recommendations for improving the Thai Government's migration management policy. The report is divided into three sections. First, it presents a review of the demand for migrants and alternatives to migrants in the context of the Thai labour force. Second, it provides an analysis of efforts to regularize the status of unauthorized migrants. Last, it offers suggestions and recommendations linking the national migration management policies with other labour, economic and education policies, weaving in good practices from other countries.

The report draws upon reviews of relevant studies, interviews with actors and discussions with employers and migrants as well as a number of case studies from industries with a strong demand for migrant workers.

The case studies examine migrant employment and the impact it has on particular labour markets. Migrant issues are highlighted in an economic and institutional context. Each case study was developed from discussions in focus groups of eight to ten regis-

tered and unregistered migrants and interviews with two to three provincial registration officials. The case studies relied on the discussions as well as other data to examine the working conditions in the migrant worker's employment sectors, the potential to replace migrant workers with Thai workers and the migrants' experiences with the migrant registration process.

The report concludes that foreign and low-skilled/unskilled workers have contributed significantly in the Thai workforce, particularly since the 1990s when the Thai economy was experiencing a boom period. Further, the report states that migrant workers will continue to be in high demand and a necessary workforce in many of the low-skilled industries to support the growing Thai economy.

The research does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling. Nonetheless, it highlights the demand for low-skilled and irregular migrant workers in Thailand, focusing on typical migrant labour industries, including the agriculture, fisheries, domestic and manufacturing sectors. The research highlights that, despite their irregular migrant status, the migrant workers benefit the Thai economy and argues that current migration management policy fails to support this phenomenon.

**Mehdi, S. S. (2010). *Illegal migration, human smuggling and trafficking: From Bangladesh to Pakistan and beyond*. Geneva: International Organization for Migration.**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan, Pakistan  
South Asia, West Asia  
Concepts, Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Irregular migration, Methodology, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Profiles of irregular migrants, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Quantitative assessment, Routes, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This primarily qualitative research report uses data from interviews and field observations, combined

with secondary research reports, to develop a critical perspective on the issues of irregular migration, migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons in Pakistan. Quantitative data supporting the study was drawn from two existing research projects. The study's objectives were to add the perspective of Bengalis/Bangladeshis in Pakistan to the dialogue on these topics and to initiate discussions on the challenges between the governments of Bangladesh and Pakistan.

The research first examined general issues regarding irregular migration, migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons, including global trends and patterns. It then moved on to provide an in-depth discussion of the contexts of Bangladesh and Pakistan as “migrant states”, facing challenges of these issues but also recognizing that holding this status presents significant opportunities for development, growth and mobility. This section of the report presents information on the political and policy trends in these countries that influence perceptions and policies.

The report concludes on the need to examine the case of Bengali/Bangladeshi migrants in Pakistan, with a focus on issues of their identity and citizenship. It presents a unique dialogue on the need to examine Pakistan as not only a destination but also a transit state for irregular migration, migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons, considering that significant numbers of individuals move from Bangladesh to the Middle East and surrounding regions.

Constraints of the research included limited availability of reliable data and a lack of analytical studies on the issues relating to Bangladesh and Pakistan. The studies that do exist are not widely circulated or discussed. As well, discourse on trafficking in persons between state actors and civil society in both countries is considered to be only in the preliminary stages. A core conclusion of the research is the need for the discourse to be expanded and for Bangladesh and Pakistan to enter into negotiations to share what information is available, work on the issues together and create a coordinated response to the formidable challenges.

**Molland, S. (2010). ‘The perfect business’: Human trafficking and Lao-Thai cross-border migration. In: *Development and Change*, 41(5), pp. 831–855.**

**Key words:**

Lao PDR, Thailand

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article examines the notion of migration for economic advantage in the city of Vientiane in Lao People's Democratic Republic and Nong Khai Province in Thailand for women working in the sex industry. It applies the concept of trafficking in persons as a market-driven crime that is commonly used to describe traffickers preying on the supply of women migrating from Lao PDR to satisfy the demand in the Thai sex industry. According to the author, economic incentive is a prime motivator for the migration of Lao sex workers to Nong Khai, but in reality, sex workers in Nong Khai often earn less than sex workers in Vientiane. The research explored this Lao-Thai migration phenomenon and how it intersects with organizations trying to work to prevent trafficking in persons as a cross-border migration issue.

The concept of trafficking in persons relies on the United Nations definition of human trafficking. The research entailed an ethnographic study of the Lao and Thai sex industries in Vientiane and Nong Khai, respectively. The ethnographic material deals predominantly with local sites visited by the researcher where mostly Lao and Thai clients were using the services of the women. The researcher conducted 15 months (in 2005–2006) of fieldwork with the help of local research assistants. Informants used as a part of the ethnographic study included sex workers, recruiters and venue managers within the sex industries. The researcher relied on two related areas of enquiry, sparked by the story of a Lao sex worker who had crossed the border from Vientiane to Nong Khai to work in the Nong Khai sex industry — first, why would these women cross the border (from Lao PDR to Thailand) to sell sex for a lower price than back home (in Lao PDR) and second, what do such cross-border movements indicate in terms of risk and marginality produced by border zones?

The author built up rapport with the informants through repeated visits to the same venues over time. Knowledge of regional anti-trafficking programmes stemmed from the author's experience as a project

advisor on a United Nations anti-trafficking project in the Greater Mekong Subregion. This knowledge is used as a basis for the author's discussion on the intersections between organizations working to prevent trafficking and the realities of the trafficking and migration situation for many Lao women working in the Nong Khai sex industry.

The author concludes that trafficking in persons is commonly assumed to be driven by supply and demand, through involuntary recruitment and for profitability. The example of the sex industries and migration for sex work between Vientiane and Nong Khai shows that none of these factors are significant in relation to trafficking in persons. In the case of migration from Vientiane to Nong Khai, recruitment is through interpersonal connections in the market place. The research showed that while Thailand holds an allure for many Lao sex workers who believe that they can make more money in the Thai sex industry, the reality in Nong Khai is different. In Nong Khai, sex workers are often paid less than what they were paid in Vientiane, although they have the opportunity to see more clients.

The article does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling. It focuses on trafficking in persons and labour migration from Vientiane to Nong Khai of women working in the sex industry. It does present a discussion on the methods and roles of recruiters in the migration of these women and identifies that recruitment is largely conducted through family and kinship networks.

**Molland, S. (2010). The value of bodies: Deception, helping and profiteering in human trafficking along the Thai-Lao border. In: *Asian Studies Review*, 34(2), pp. 211–229.**

**Key words:**

Lao PDR, Thailand  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article opens with the premise that a number of assumptions typically underpin anti-trafficking

programmes. These assumptions include: that labour migration is always non-consensual, that borders are significant in shaping labour migration flows and that trafficking in persons is operated by organized criminal gangs for profit that exceeds what illicit drugs generate. The anti-trafficking programmes assume that trafficking in persons involves a specific form of recruitment (non-consensual) of certain types of bodies (young and beautiful) that are profitable.

In the article, the author focuses on the assumption that trafficking in persons is always highly profitable. Drawing on his research from Nong Khai (on the Lao-Thai border), the author argues that while trafficking in persons can reflect capitalist logic, it can also reflect other less market-driven factors, such as patron-client logic. Using his ethnographic research in Nong Khai, the author demonstrates that social relationships (rather than simple deception) are crucial to recruitment practices and that profitability is not as simple as physical beauty.

The author's ethnographic research of the sex industry in Nong Khai examined such factors as price differentiation for sex services, profit among venue owners and commission levels for recruiters. Throughout the article, there are accounts from Nong Khai brothel owners/pimps (mamasans) and agents who are responsible for providing customers to some of the brothels to illustrate the experiences of Lao women working in the sex industry. The author also engages in a critique of anti-trafficking literature, reports and programmes that assume correlations between physical beauty, profit and recruitment of trafficked victims to emphasize his argument.

The research findings show that recruitment into the sex industry in Nong Khai is often conducted by Lao women who are already working there. Elements of physical beauty or even profit are not necessarily driving factors of recruitment for profitability. Rather, informal family and friend networks drive recruitment. It is often the case that those involved in the recruitment and pimping of Lao women in Nong Khai view themselves as "helping" the Lao recruits and not as traffickers. Many recruits come from poor Lao villages and aspire to travel to Nong Khai because of greater financial opportunity.

The research shows how Lao women are recruited to work in the sex industry in Nong Khai and includes insight on pull factors for migration. Recruitment methods are discussed but only in relation to trafficking in persons and not migrant smuggling.

**Mon, M. (2005). *Burmese migrants in Thailand*. [Paper in special issue: A. Kaur and I. Metcalfe (eds.). *Migrant Labour in Southeast Asia: Needed, Not Wanted*.] In: *Review of Indonesian and Malaysian Affairs*, 39(2), pp. 129–150.**

**Key words:**

Myanmar, Thailand

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants, Routes

**Research method used:**

Unknown

**Summary:**

This paper focuses on the plight of irregular Myanmar migrants working in Thailand. It provides information about Myanmar migration to Thailand, including push-pull factors, the migration routes and fees, the experiences and working conditions in Thailand and how both Myanmar and Thai migration policies negatively impact irregular Myanmar migrant workers.

In references to the economic and social consequences of migration, the author draws on fieldwork in Thailand from Mae Sot, Mahachai and Bangkok from 2002 to 2003. However, no further information is provided about the research method, data sources or data that was collected or sampled.

The author concludes that there are a large number of irregular Myanmar migrants working in Thailand. Migrants choose irregular channels to escape political turmoil and persecution in Myanmar and to take advantage of the greater economic opportunity in Thailand. Irregular migration is common among Myanmar migrants who choose to cross the border, and there is a larger number of irregular and undocumented Myanmar workers in Thailand than documented, regular migrants. Data is provided to

illustrate the numbers. The irregular migrants are not afforded any protections under Thai labour laws and face additional arrest and persecution once they arrive back in Myanmar for having left the country irregularly. The author argues that the Thai Government needs Myanmar migrant workers to do the jobs shunned by Thai nationals and that this demand will continue in years to come.

**Monzini, P. (2004). *Migrant smuggling via maritime routes*. In: *Centro Studi di Politica Internazionale*.**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan, India, Sri Lanka

Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Modus operandi, Routes, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This article examines the development of maritime smuggling routes in the Mediterranean region and the criminal organizations that control the smuggling of migrants to Italy. It highlights the evolution of the maritime smuggling phenomenon and illustrates the dynamics of the irregular migration market in Italy.

The research is based on the examination of judicial documents and data provided by the police involved in controlling irregular migration. The researchers collected information about smugglers and organized crime from specialist studies and general information from newspaper articles (the article itself refers to “traffickers”, but this likely reflects a translation issue).

The author observes that there has been a progressive shift since 1991 in the main landing places on Italian shores towards the West: from the coast of Apulia to the coast of Calabria and finally Sicily. The shift is linked to changes in criminal organizations as well as counter measures by the authorities. While strengthened police controls in the region have diminished the importance of short distance routes, diplomatic agreements and extradition treaties have proven to be the most effective actions for prevention and control for long-distance routes.

For example, irregular migration via sea from the Indian subcontinent to the Sicilian and Calabrian coast completely stopped in 2002 after the Suez Canal had been “closed” to migrant smuggling following an agreement between the Italian and Egyptian authorities. According to the author, migrant smuggling through the Suez Canal was fostered by a high degree of corruption among the Egyptian authorities. The organized smuggling groups in the Mediterranean region operate on a short-time scale (allowing them to respond to changing problems with flexible solutions) and undergo three evolutionary phases: professionalization, articulation of new techniques and withdrawal from a route, and skills transfer to other geographical areas.

The author concludes that the Mediterranean emerges as an “integrated space” for maritime migrant smuggling, which is shaped by three interdependent variables: the policies carried out by the authorities, the actions of the smuggling organizations and migratory pressure. Thus, the “making” of the landings depend on both the efforts made by criminal organizations as well as the counter actions carried out by the authorities.

The article briefly covers migratory flows, which include irregular migrants from Afghanistan and Sri Lanka. It also points to migrants from China, Pakistan and Bangladesh, although no further information is provided.

The author points out that the study of reports and accounts from authorities has only partly reduced the knowledge gaps on smuggling routes because a great deal of information was not available due to its confidential nature.

**Moukarbel, N. (2009). Sri Lanka housemaids in Lebanon: A case of ‘symbolic violence’ and everyday forms of resistance. *IMISCOE Disertations*.**

**Key words:**

Sri Lanka  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants; Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This empirically grounded book goes behind closed doors to examine the relationship between Sri Lankan housemaids with their Lebanese employers. Survey data from 90 Sri Lankans were analysed, both qualitatively and quantitatively, along with 20 interviews with Lebanese housewives and 30 interviews with other actors. Participant observation, case studies and a document review were also incorporated into the research. Through a detailed account of the living and working conditions of Sri Lankan housemaids in Lebanon, the research found that regular and insidious forms of violence are used by Lebanese employers to control their Sri Lankan housemaids. The book also unveils the way housemaids have resisted this violence with the only means available to them and the limited (and at times negative) consequences.

The research revealed how women — both employers and housemaids — have a long way to go before relieving themselves of traditional expectations and responsibilities. It also revealed how racism, despite all indicators, is not at the core of the abusive treatment of housemaids. Rather, it is the struggle for power and control that creates a vicious cycle of violence. The concluding chapter offers some possible solutions relating to the Lebanese side, although the author’s outlook is not overly optimistic. Nevertheless, the author gives a detailed account of a highly controversial and private subject, which makes the book valuable in and of itself.

**Naro, N. (2009). *Human trafficking in Cambodia: Reintegration of the Cambodian illegal migrants from Vietnam and Thailand*. Singapore: S. Rajaratnam School of International Studies.**

**Key words:**

Cambodia, Thailand, Viet Nam  
Concepts, Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants, Quantitative assessment, Routes, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

The purpose of this working paper is to assess the Cambodian Government’s response to return and

reintegration assistance for victims of trafficking returning from Thailand and Viet Nam. It examines how the Government, NGOs and the private sector help in the reintegration process and to what extent the process in Cambodia has been successful.

The concept of trafficking in persons is presented using the United Nations Inter-Agency Project on Human Trafficking (2008) definition of trafficking in persons as well as a definition taken from the U.S. Department of State (2007).

The working paper draws on a mix of both qualitative and quantitative research methods. The researchers engaged in fieldwork in two Cambodian provinces that border Viet Nam and Thailand, Svay Rieng and Banteay Meanchey, respectively. The researchers visited the locations twice. Interviews were conducted with Cambodian government officials, national and international NGO representatives and with 50 returned victims of trafficking referred from some of the NGOs (30 of these victims were from NGO shelters and 20 of the victims had been reintegrated back into communities). A number of case studies are presented throughout the paper, with a focus on the trafficking experiences of some victims as well as the experiences from other former victims of their rehabilitation and reintegration through assistance provided from NGOs. In addition, the paper presents quantitative information regarding the profiles of Cambodian trafficking victims and their experiences of return and reintegration assistance provided by the NGOs. A literature review in the areas of root causes of trafficking in persons, push-pull migration factors and prevention and reintegration policies relating to Cambodia and Cambodian victims of trafficking was also conducted.

The research findings indicate that although the Cambodian Government has a range of measures in place to support the return and reintegration of trafficking victims, it is failing to effectively assist returned victims. Limited funding from the donor community, reliance on NGOs for implementing programmes and projects to assist returned victims and the poor quality of education and employment training for returned victims surfaced as reasons why trafficking in persons continues to exist from Cambodia. Viet Nam and Thailand are popular destinations for the trafficking of Cambodian persons because of their relative

economic strength. The author concludes that trafficking in persons from Cambodia will continue as long as such migration push factors as poverty, lack of education and high unemployment remain.

**Nazaruk, M. (2010).** *Le tourisme sexuel en Asie du Sud-Est: Les marchés du désir*. Paris: L'Harmattan.

**Key words:**

Cambodia  
Trafficking flows

**Research methods used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This book explores the issue of sex tourism in Cambodia. The author interviewed 50 sex workers from Siem Reap, Phnom Penh and Sihanoukville – areas where sex tourism is prevalent. Interviews were also carried out with representatives from NGOs, medical service providers and government officials from the Ministry of Health, Department of Tourism and the police. Trafficking in human beings for sexual exploitation is discussed. The author concedes that sex tourism is not directly related to sexual exploitation. Drawing on secondary sources, she provides an overview of the phenomenon of trafficking for sexual exploitation. The discussion does not offer new knowledge – empirically or otherwise. The book is more useful in understanding sex tourism from a theoretical standpoint. The author's main argument is that sex tourism is a social and cultural practice rooted in patriarchal norms. She examines the sexual customs in Asia and puts forward a guide for responsible tourism.

**Neske, M., Heckmann, F. and Rühl, S. (2004).** *Menschenschmuggel*. Bamberg: European Forum for Migration Studies.

**Key words:**

Afghanistan, China, India, Pakistan, Viet Nam  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Human and social costs of smuggling, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed



**Summary:**

This paper examines the phenomenon of migrant smuggling from different angles, with special reference to Germany. It looks at the general conditions that lead to migrant smuggling, the legal provisions concerned with the issue, data sets on the apprehension of migrants and smugglers and the organizational features of smuggling groups and actors who smuggle migrants into Germany.

The paper draws on interviews with 19 police experts to expand the knowledge about the organization and structure of migrant smuggling into and through Germany. The researchers found that migrant smuggling exists because regular migration is only possible under certain conditions defined by the country of destination, although the official possibilities are exceeded by the global drive for migration. The study differentiates between migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons, as trafficking in persons involves the exploitation of irregular migrants. Smuggling into Germany and Germany's function as a destination country has declined in recent years due to fewer global hot spots, resulting in fewer asylum seekers, such as from the former Yugoslavia. According to the authors, however, Germany has increasingly become a country of transit for smuggled migrants. The researchers note that there is a lack of personal and family ties as well as work opportunities in Germany for migrants from significant countries of origin, such as Afghanistan and China.

The researchers contend that an "arms" race between the authorities and smugglers has developed in recent years. Smugglers have reacted to increasing pressure from law enforcement by innovating smuggling methods. Smugglers generally do not convince prospective migrants to leave the country but merely advertise their logistical capabilities. In many cases, the smuggling of a migrant is requested and funded by relatives already residing in the country of destination. Among the different processes, stage-to-stage smuggling is the dominant form of international smuggling.

The organizational form of smuggling depends on the methods used; the duration, the number of migrants and the means of transport. The researchers consider the smuggling network as dominating and found no evidence for mafia-like hierarchical structures. Central positions within the smuggling networks are characterized by ethnic homogeneity.

The researchers also believe that a connection to other forms of crimes is the absolute exception. No threat to public safety and order by commercial migrant smuggling was found. However, risky smuggling methods often endanger the life and health of migrants.

The paper identifies several dilemmas for policymakers and law enforcement in Germany: Relaxing immigration regulations will reduce migrant smuggling cases, but immigration would be less manageable. At the same time, relaxing immigration regulations would not necessarily lead to less irregular migration, while making entry more difficult would increase irregular migrants' dependency on migrant smugglers.

Better border security at the European Union or national level would reduce irregular migration but not migrant smuggling. The authors conclude that migrant smuggling and irregular migration may never be prevented as long as extreme global inequalities exist.

Brief excerpts of interviews with the police experts provide information on migrant smuggling activities and irregular migration from Afghanistan, China, India, Pakistan and Viet Nam.

**Neske, M. (2006). Human smuggling to and through Germany. In: *International Migration*, 44(4), pp. 121–163.**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan, China, Viet Nam

Concepts, Factors that fuel irregular migration, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Profiles of smugglers, Smuggler-migrant relationships, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This paper explores the organizational principles of migrant smuggling. Based on a data review drawn from police investigations, it outlines the organizational mechanisms of migrant smuggling processes to and through Germany.

The paper relies on the concept of migrant smuggling as defined by the Migrant Smuggling Protocol. Smugglers are categorized as “service providers” and “stage coordinators”. It draws on semi-standardized, checklist-guided interviews with 22 experts from the police and NGOs. In addition, the author analysed copies of 51 court proceedings, including police reports and judgements of the courts, interrogations of smugglers and smuggled persons as well as transcribed and translated smugglers’ telephone conversations. The purpose of the interviews and research was to find answers to the following questions: (1) Is there evidence that large international criminal networks are involved in migrant smuggling through and to Germany? (2) Are networks characterized by a commonality for reasons of family, friendship or ethnicity? (3) Do pure market forces of demand and supply determine the picture with interchangeable providers? (4) Is it possible to systemize the cases of smuggling to identify individual types of smuggling? (5) If that is the case, what are the main criteria of distinction?

The primary finding of the study is the elaboration of a typology of migrant smuggling processes. According to this work, there are three main types of migrant smuggling processes: (1) individual smuggling with a high degree of self-responsibility; (2) hidden smuggling based upon obtaining visa by artifice; and (3) pre-organized stage-to-stage smuggling. The third type includes pre-organized smuggling processes from crisis regions like Afghanistan or Iraq.

In terms of the situation in Germany, the third process was found in the majority of cases that the researcher examined. The study turned up no evidence that one individual or a criminal organization oversees the entire smuggling process. Instead, single members of an almost entirely mono-ethnic network function as stage coordinators. These stage coordinators assign the smuggling actions to local gangs. Modern communication systems are important in this process. While the coordination level of the migrant smuggling process appears to be the entire part of the migration network, the actions of local smugglers are entirely determined by market conditions.

The paper presents a few data sets on the apprehension of migrants and smugglers for the period 1990–2004 and provides some information on smuggling

activities in Germany that involved smugglers from Afghanistan, China and Viet Nam.

The paper contributes to understanding the organization of migrant smuggling and more clearly differentiating between the various practices that together constitute migrant smuggling.

**Neske, M. (2007). *Menschenschmuggel. Deutschland als Transit- und Zielland irregulärer Migration*. Stuttgart: Lucius and Lucius.**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan, China, India, Sri Lanka, Viet Nam  
Concepts, Fees and payment for smuggling, Irregular migration, Methodology, Modus operandi of smuggling, Profiles of smugglers, Routes, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This book explores the organizational mechanisms of migrant smuggling processes to and through Germany. The purpose of the research was to analyse the organizational principles of migrant smuggling in order to construct a typology of smuggling processes. The author uses the concept of migrant smuggling as defined by the Migrant Smuggling Protocol.

The research drew out data from 51 court files and corresponding police reports, including interrogation reports and documented phone conversations of smugglers. Interviews with various experts and nine smuggled migrants were conducted. The purpose of the interviews and research was to find answers to the following questions: (1) Is there evidence that large international criminal networks are involved in migrant smuggling through and to Germany? (2) Are networks characterized by any commonality for reasons of family, friendship or ethnicity? (3) Do pure market forces of demand and supply determine the picture with interchangeable providers? (4) Is it possible to systemize the cases of smuggling in order to identify individual types of smuggling? (5) If that is the case, what are the main criteria of distinction?

Neske examined the files from the perspective of collecting data on 44 variables, covering the initiating

and steps in the smuggling process, modes of transport, role of document fraud, method of payment and fees paid, the influence of ethnic groups and whether the smugglers had any connection to other criminal fields. The combination of elements led to the identification of three main typologies (with various sub-categories) of migrant smuggling, each of which involves distinct forms of organization, migrants and risk. The three typologies are:

“Individual smuggling with a high degree of self-responsibility”: In these cases, individuals travel on their own, mostly legally and by public transport. At a certain point in their journey, they cannot proceed without assistance so they may engage the services of a local smuggler who guides them across the border on foot, or get assistance to remain undetected from a taxi driver or other service provider. This type of smuggling is described as “poverty smuggling” as it is carried out by those who have no financial or logistical options to try another way.

“Visa smuggling as a pure service”: In this category, migrants seek the assistance of a service provider (“travel agents”) to get a visa through fraudulent means (for example, the service provider takes care of the “cover” for the journey, such as issuing a fraudulent business invitation). In this category, visas are obtained at the start of the journey, and migrants then travel independently.

“Pre-organized stage-to-stage smuggling”: In this category, migrants conduct almost the entire journey accompanied by smugglers. The routes may be the same as those used in the other categories but the organization is different, with various “stage coordinators” used along the entire route. There are different sub-types within this category, largely reflecting the motivation and intention of the smuggled migrants.

In “stage to stage smuggling from crisis areas”, the smuggler and migrants typically come not only from the same country, but the same region in that country, and relatives or family members may have influential positions among the smugglers. The fact that these journeys involve travel over thousands of kilometres (not simply getting to a refugee camp) reflects the specific situation of those being smuggled: they are typically members of the middle class with a high level of education, and they tend to flee in the early stages of war breaking out when it is still possible to

liquidate their assets. Family, relatives and acquaintances play a significant role in the smuggling process, and trust as a means of coordination is vital. Fees however, are still charged for this kind of smuggling.

In “large scale stage to stage smuggling to bring individuals at a later date”, the same ethnic background is shared by smugglers and migrants but some stages and services are outsourced to “fellow countrymen”, who act as “stage coordinators”. The group that uses this service tends to be young men who are expected in the country of destination, and the people commissioning the smuggling are the migrants themselves. Profit, rather than family or kinship, is the dominant motivator of this kind of smuggling. Those involved in the process may be recent migrants themselves.

In “large scale migration with pioneers sent ahead”, the people commissioning the migration are not the migrants themselves but their family or village, typically suffering poor living conditions, without any members as yet in the West. Migrants in this group are almost exclusively individual travellers, with a low level of education, a low social status and they come from an “underprivileged background”. People smuggled in this way know they have to work in the destination country to pay off debts but typically, the conditions under which they have to work are not known to them. These “pioneer” migrants do not have connections in the destination country so are perhaps the most vulnerable to exploitation, as they do not have an existing social network to rely on for support in their destination.

The book highlights the organizational mechanisms of migrant smuggling processes to and through Germany. In addition to a detailed presentation of the conception and design of the research, the book provides an overview of the legal framework in Germany and discusses data sets on the apprehensions of smugglers and smuggled migrants, which include subjects from Afghanistan, China, India, Sri Lanka and Viet Nam. In addition, the book illustrates the different smuggling processes based on detailed case studies.

**Nozina, M. (2010). Crime networks in Vietnamese diasporas: The Czech Republic case. In: *Crime, Law and Social Change*, 53(3), pp. 229–258.**

**Key words:**

Viet Nam

Fees and payment for smuggling, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This paper analyses the structure and methods of Vietnamese criminal networks in the Czech Republic. The study argues that the Vietnamese diaspora in the Czech Republic is characterized by a fusion of legal and illegal activities. The author explores the symbiosis of the Vietnamese criminal underground and the migrant community in the Czech Republic.

The study drew on findings of a research project on Vietnamese organized crime in the Czech Republic. The first phase of the project was implemented from 1999 to 2002 and involved structured interviews with members of law enforcement to examine the geographical expansion, structure and impact of international and Vietnamese organized crime in the Czech Republic. In 2007, a follow-up project was launched to collect new data from law enforcement and NGOs. In addition, ethnographic interviews were conducted with various members of the Vietnamese community. Possible respondents were found via snowball sampling. The purpose of the ethnographic interviews was to enhance the knowledge acquired by taking into account the views within the Vietnamese community.

Vietnamese criminal networks in the Czech Republic have roots in the Communist era, when employees of the Vietnamese embassy in Prague and other actors started to smuggle goods into and out of the country. The democratic reforms in the Czech Republic presented new opportunities for criminal businesses and resulted in a new wave of Vietnamese semi-formal and irregular migration in the 1990s. Vietnamese migration agencies, which specialized in the procurement of visas and the transport of Vietnamese nationals, had a significant role because they were able to abuse gaps in the migration laws on a “legal” basis and to facilitate smuggling activities of organized crime groups.

Vietnamese criminal groups are engaged in a broad spectrum of crimes. The central actors are the so-

called “respectable men” who are simultaneously legal businessmen and criminal bosses. Highly respected within their communities, these actors create parallel power structures and merge the legal with the criminal spheres in the Vietnamese diaspora. This symbiosis of legal and criminal spheres in the Vietnamese community is one of the main factors restricting efficient measures against Vietnamese criminality in the Czech Republic.

The paper focuses on organized Vietnamese crime in general. However, it provides insight into the migrant smuggling activities of Vietnamese criminal groups as well as the smuggling of Vietnamese migrants into the Czech Republic since the 1990s. It describes semi-formal and irregular migration patterns and points to a connection between Vietnamese and Chinese migrant smuggling groups.

**Oishi, N. (2005). *Women in motion: Globalization, state policies and labor migration in Asia*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.**

**Key words:**

India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Viet Nam

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This book examines the cross-border patterns and causal mechanisms of international female migration in Asia. Through fieldwork in nine countries (Bangladesh, India, Japan, Pakistan, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand, the United Arab Emirates and Viet Nam) and Hong Kong (China), the author carried out 249 interviews, which included 116 migrant women, 22 non-migrants and 111 informants (from recruitment agencies, NGOs, international organizations and research institutions). The qualitative data is supplemented by quantitative data on macroeconomic indicators (GDP per capita, unemployment rates, women’s labour participation rates and levels of foreign direct investment) as well as demographic profiles of migrant women.

The author compares data from migrant-sending, migrant-receiving and non-sending countries to

identify the factors that encourage and discourage female migration. It is the first study of its kind to present a comparative perspective on female migration flows from multiple countries. The author examines how women's increasing rural-to-urban mobility has transformed gender norms within communities and helped establish a more acceptable environment for women to migrate to foreign countries. In doing so, the author illustrates the differential impact globalization has had on the experiences of women in developing countries in terms of internal and international migration. The author concludes that international female migration is determined by the interactions of state migration policies, women's autonomy and social legitimacy (social norms that endorse particular behavioural patterns). Although the book focuses on the regular migration of women, the author argues that her research findings can be applied to forms of irregular migration. She cautions, however, that they cannot be generalized to the phenomenon as a whole.

**Pangsapa, P. (2007). Global social policy forum: Enslavement in Thailand: Southeast Asia as the microcosm of 21st century slavery. In: *Global Social Policy*, 7(1), pp. 10–14.**

**Key words:**

Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Thailand  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Unknown

**Summary:**

This article highlights the poor conditions and exploitive experiences of migrant workers, particularly from Myanmar (but also from Cambodia and Lao People's Democratic Republic), working in Thailand. The research focuses on Myanmar migrants working in the Thai border town of Mae Sot in low-skilled industries, including factories, farms and construction sites. It highlights the plight of the workers and the lack of motivation on behalf of the Thai Government to develop and enforce policies to protect workers from exploitation and abuse.

The article states that it draws on research conducted in Mae Sot in 2005. However, no further informa-

tion is provided about the fieldwork or what it involved other than to investigate the working and living conditions of Myanmar migrant workers in the border town.

The author argues that there is little incentive on the part of the Thai Government to give migrant workers citizenship because stateless migrants are easier to exploit and therefore are a beneficial contribution to the development of the Thai economy. The article also briefly discusses push-pull factors for people in Myanmar to migrate to Thailand, including the political unrest and high unemployment and the greater economic opportunity in Thailand.

The article does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling. It does offer some insight into the experiences of irregular Myanmar migrant workers in Thailand working in low-skilled industries.

**Papadopoulou-Kourkoula, A. (2008). *Transit migration: The missing link between emigration and settlement*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan, China, India, Pakistan, Viet Nam  
Fees and payment for smuggling, Irregular migration, Routes, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This book explores the experience of transit migration within and outside European borders and examines its impact on people and states. The author argues that transit migration is a complex process that puts states and neighbours under pressure and makes migrants and refugees especially vulnerable. The author has analysed national policies and strategies for cooperation at the regional and bilateral levels as well as migrants' decision-making processes and their experiences while in transit.

The term "transit migration" is understood in this book as the situation between migration and settlement that is characterized by indefinite migrant

stays, regular or irregular, and may or may not develop into further migration, depending on a series of structural and individual factors.

The analysis draws on in-depth interviews with 50 Kurds (from Turkey) in Athens about their experiences and decisions made while in transit and semi-structured interviews with 20 policymakers and discourse analysis. In addition, background research was conducted on the selected regions.

The book shows that transit migration is happening in Member states of the European Union, such as Greece, which receives substantial and sustained migration flows, facilitated by its weak migration policy framework. The author demonstrates that transit migration is experienced in a similar fashion, although more acutely, on the outside of European borders. North African countries are simultaneously origin, transit and destination countries and two thirds of the migrants crossing irregularly into Europe are locals from the Maghreb region. This serves as a reminder of the direct correlation between development and migration. The author adds that the more difficult it gets for migrants to reach Europe, the more transit migration increases in North Africa. The author also identifies common characteristics of the differing policy frameworks and asylum procedures in North Africa: all countries maintain a restrictive approach, lack the necessary infrastructure and resources to host migrants and refugees, resort regularly to arrests and deportation of irregular migrants (including asylum seekers) as a way to alleviate the problem and they all lack a proper system for asylum. This situation renders refugees to be the most vulnerable group in North Africa.

With a long history of (internal) cross-border movements dating before the collapse of the Soviet Union, transit migration is a common and large-scale phenomenon for Eastern Europe and Central Asian countries. After the collapse of the Soviet Union, Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) and Eastern European countries were transformed into popular transit countries for irregular migrants from the Caucasus and Central and East Asia. The author found that migrants and refugees on their journey to Europe might spend a long time in transit, in part because of the enormous distances. Thus, many migrants are forced to travel in stages, and work in the informal economy until conditions

(financial, networks or other) allow them to travel further westwards.

The author also discusses the migration and asylum policy of the European Union and provides various recommendations for its improvement.

The book provides first-hand insights on migrant smuggling from Turkey to Greece, based on the experiences of the Kurdish interviewees. Based on the analysis of secondary sources, the book also provides some information on migrant smuggling (routes and fees) and irregular migration in the CIS countries, with reference to Afghanistan, China, India, Pakistan and Viet Nam.

**Pearson, E. and Punpuing, S. (2006). *The Mekong challenge: Underpaid, overworked and overlooked: The realities of young migrant workers in Thailand*. Bangkok: International Labour Organization.**

**Key words:**

Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Thailand  
South-East Asia

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Organization of smuggling, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This research report examines the level of labour exploitation experienced by migrant workers in four employment sectors in Thailand: fishing (work on fishing boats and fish-processing factories), domestic work, agriculture and manufacturing. It looks at how much of the work in these sectors is undertaken by persons recruited into situations of forced labour and who have been trafficked. The report also examines the profile and attitudes of employers of migrant workers in these sectors and recruiters of migrant workers who facilitate entry to and employment in Thailand. The report states that Thailand is the number one destination country for women and children who are trafficked in the Greater Mekong Subregion. Thailand was selected for this study to better understand the vulnerabilities of children and

young people to exploitation at points of destination and their workplace conditions.

The definition of trafficking in persons used in this research was taken from the Trafficking in Persons Protocol.

The report draws on both qualitative and quantitative research. Beyond a review of the relevant literature, the research involved surveys conducted with migrant children and young people, employers and recruiters in the four employment sectors. A total of 376 migrants were surveyed in the fishing, agriculture and manufacturing sectors. A further 316 employers were surveyed and in-depth interviews to obtain supplementary information were conducted with 97 migrants, 44 employers and 10 recruiters. Data gathered by the Institute for Population and Social Research from interviews with 320 migrant domestic workers is also used in the report.

The surveys and interviews revealed evidence of exploitation of migrant workers in the four sectors and the role and profile of recruiters who help to facilitate their entry into Thailand and employment. Across the four sectors, the most exploitive area of work appeared in the fishing industry, particularly work on fishing boats. One fifth of workers in fish-processing factories were found to be children younger than 15 years. Domestic workers had the longest working hours, the greatest restriction on movement, no regular days off and were the most vulnerable to abuse because of their “invisible” status. Workers in manufacturing also suffered long working hours. The migrant workers surveyed in agriculture reported slightly better working conditions, although many cited issues concerning underpayment, lack of steady working days and no regular days off.

Based on the sample of 10 recruiters, the report shows that recruitment of migrant workers, mostly from Cambodia, Lao People’s Democratic Republic and Myanmar, is conducted informally and through migrant networks that largely rely on family ties and connections. Many recruiters were once migrant workers in Thailand. Recruiters have good and reliable knowledge of Thailand in terms of its geography for transport and entry, can speak Thai and have an understanding of the employment context. Many recruiters go beyond providing the service of facilitating entry and employment and also assist mi-

grants with remittance services and communication with family members back home. The report reveals that some of the surveyed recruiters take responsibility for the protection of the migrant workers, whom they protect from exploitation in the workplace.

The report provides insight into the role of informal recruiters in the facilitation of regular and irregular Myanmar migrants’ entry into Thailand for work (and a small number of Cambodian and Lao migrants in the manufacturing and agriculture sectors). It also highlights the role of recruiters in terms of helping migrants find employment and their offer of other services, including facilitating remittances and communications with family and friends at home. It provides information on the relationships between migrants and their recruiters and concludes that many recruiters are family or friends of people wanting to migrate. Informal, family-based networks are usually those responsible for the facilitation of entry into Thailand. The authors note that the surveyed recruiters were only a small pool of 10 Myanmar recruiters and that their recruitment methods are not necessarily representative of all migrant recruitment practices. The report provides a comprehensive discussion of workplace conditions experienced by many migrant workers, particularly children and young people, in Thailand’s fishing, manufacturing, agriculture and domestic service industries.

**Petros, M. (2005). The costs of human smuggling and trafficking. In: *Global Migration Perspectives* (31).**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan, China, India, Malaysia, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Thailand

Fees and payments for smuggling, Routes, Smuggling, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Quantitative

**Summary:**

This paper is concerned specifically with the financial costs of migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons. The author set out to show how costs vary across the world, how they have changed over time and what factors other than origin and destination determine their level.

The research involved the analysis of 538 secondary sources (cases) dealing with migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons. The data collection was conducted during 2004 and entailed a systematic search for information about the costs and routes of migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons. The author first grouped countries of origin and destination into five broad regions. On the basis of these regions, 14 broad routes were identified that encompassed all of the cases documented, such as Asia to Australia. Each of the 538 cases covered in the research was then categorized according to those routes. Finally, mean prices were calculated for each route. The author indicates that this analysis cannot be considered conclusive and that there are a number of methodological and analytical reservations to consider.

The research findings include the identification of approximate mean costs of migrant smuggling for the main interregional movements around the world, trends in those costs and some of their main determinants, such as distance, mode of transport and number and characteristics of “travellers”.

The author points out that the distinction between migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons proved to be subjective and difficult to find in practice. Some sources used in the research made little distinction between the two concepts and used the terms “smuggling” and “trafficking” interchangeably. Routes were not always described in great geographic detail and costs were often presented without providing specifying details of the journey.

**Phetsiriseng, I. (2003). Lao PDR preliminary assessment of illegal labour migration and trafficking in children and women for labour exploitation. In: *ILO Mekong Sub-Regional Project to Combat Trafficking in Children and Women*. Bangkok: International Labour Organization.**

**Key words:**

Lao PDR, Thailand

Concepts, Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants, Routes, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

The purpose of the research described in this report was to provide a preliminary assessment of “illegal labour migration” and trafficking of women and children from Lao People’s Democratic Republic to Thailand. The author argues that the demand for cheap labour in Thailand and low levels of education and employment opportunities in Lao PDR has led to the existence and operation of trafficking networks and labour recruitment services to facilitate irregular migration to Thailand.

The concept of trafficking in persons uses the definition provided by the 1999 Regional Conference on Illegal Labour Movements: The Case of Trafficking in Women and Children (prior to the Trafficking in Persons Protocol). The research was conducted in 2000, the same year that the Trafficking in Persons Protocol was drafted, which included the first internationally accepted definition of trafficking in persons.

The research relied on a mix of qualitative and quantitative methods. It involved a review of the relevant literature, including research and reports, policy, laws, project documents, statistics and press clippings. Interviews were conducted with 38 informants, such as Lao government officials, provincial and district governors of the targeted provinces, social workers, immigration police, security officers, village leaders and villagers to develop an understanding of the experiences of irregular Lao migrant workers in Thailand. Where possible, the interview team interviewed returned migrant workers who had experienced living and working in Thailand irregularly.

A structured survey was conducted in the three Lao provinces of Khammouane, Savannakhet and Champasak. Each of them borders with Thailand and has a large number of irregular Lao migrants moving to Thailand for work. The worst affected villages for potential migrants and migrant workers were targeted within these three provinces. Some 1,614 families of migrant and returned migrant workers were surveyed, including 21 child returnees.

The research resulted in a number of findings, the most significant of which is clarity on the factors behind the demand for cheap labour in Thailand and the prevalence of labour recruiters and trafficking networks between the two countries. The push-pull



factors provide the incentive and the means for Lao people to migrate to Thailand irregularly in search of work. There are a number of well-established trafficking networks. The author argues that many Lao migrants know where they are traveling to in Thailand and what terms of employment they can expect on arrival. Because of this, the author contends that the traffickers often don't have to resort to coercion or deception to recruit. The research also indicates that prevention policies concerning irregular migration of Lao people to Thailand are ineffective on both sides of the border. The author concludes, drawing on the discussions with local Lao villagers, that improving access to and increasing the quality of education, vocational training and income-generating activities and awareness raising could prevent the irregular migration of Lao people to Thailand.

**Phetsiriseng, I. (2007). *Gender concerns in migration in Lao PDR: Migration mapping study: A review of trends, policy and programme initiatives*. Vientiane: United Nations Development Fund for Women, Regional Programme on Empowering Women Migrant Workers in Asia.**

**Key words:**

Lao PDR, Thailand

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Profiles of irregular migrants, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This report presents the results of a mapping study of the trends, policies and programme initiatives regarding labour migration from Lao People's Democratic Republic to Thailand. It was developed from a gender perspective and provides information on the risks and practices that migration from Lao PDR to Thailand has on female Lao migrants.

The research involved a literature review and analysis of data from interviews and focus group discussions. Forty interviews were conducted with government officials, experts and representatives from women's

rights organizations and workers' and employers' organizations, including those organizations that employ female Lao migrant workers. The interviews were used to analyse the general policy environment and the effects of policies relating to female migrant workers and their families and the activities taking place to improve the situation of Lao migrant workers in Thailand. In addition, 20 interviews in eight villages were conducted with returned female migrant workers and their families in the Lao provinces of Savannakhet and Champasak to identify problems that the women faced in returning and reintegrating after working in Thailand. During the field visits, the researchers organized five focus group discussions with returned female migrant workers.

Statistical data from relevant Lao government ministries in the three provinces of Khammouane, Savannakhet and Champasak are presented throughout the report to highlight the situations and experiences of returned female Lao migrants. A number of case studies of individual female Lao migrants and their experiences of migration and working in Thailand are also included.

The report presents an in-depth discussion on a number of push-pull factors that influence Lao women in their decision to migrate to Thailand. The main push factors refer to poverty, low education levels and lack of employment opportunities.

The author concludes that the policies and practices initiated by the Lao and Thai governments to regulate and make migration safer are too slow and expensive and are often avoided by Lao migrants who then choose to migrate through irregular channels. The author argues that women are increasingly vulnerable to exploitation and abuse in the irregular migration process, including the dangers of using smugglers to facilitate migration.

The research found that a majority of Lao women employed in Thailand are in the domestic sphere, where their rights and labour standards are not protected by Thai labour laws or policies. This leaves Lao migrant women particularly vulnerable to abusive and exploitative employment practices. In addition to the Lao and Thai policies on labour migration, the in-depth analysis and critique includes the MOU between the countries on employment cooperation that was designed to regulate labour migration to Thailand.

Along with the women's experiences, the report discusses the methods of migrant smuggling networks, characterizing them as well organized and well established along the border. A map and short discussion of migration routes and information on smuggling fees are also provided. The report contains an insightful discussion contrasting irregular migration through smuggling networks with the regular migration channels directed under the Lao-Thai MOU. This contrast highlights the reason why irregular networks are favoured, which is that they are cheaper and more efficient than the official channels. The report also touches on the role of family networks in the irregular migration movement to Thailand and assistance in seeking and providing reliable employment on arrival.

**Pieke, F. N. and Biao, X. (2009). Les Chinois au Royaume-Uni, ou l'illusion de l'immigration choisie. In: *Critique internationale*, 4(45), pp. 97–117.**

**Key words:**

China

Fees and payment for smuggling, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Profiles of irregular migrants, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

Based on ethnographic research carried out in both China and the United Kingdom, the authors argue that migration policies of the West, such as Great Britain's, lead to a hidden agenda on migration. Policymakers speak of halting migration while making decisions that in practice have the opposite effect. Demand for cheap labour stimulates migration and the employment of undocumented workers, skilled or unskilled, from around the world. More than 100 interviews were conducted with irregular migrants in the United Kingdom, migration agents in China, British police, lawyers in China and London and Chinese taking steps to migrate to Britain. The authors illustrate how selective migration policies only result in limiting the number of entrants, with no bearing on their quality. Because opportunities to

migrate to and work legally in the United Kingdom remain severely restricted, the overwhelming majority of migrants only have irregular options available to them. The authors conclude with a discussion of how Chinese migrants to the United Kingdom often enter into a "neo-proletarian" sector that acts as a transitional sector before integration into the mainstream labour market, even though the conditions are often exploitive.

**Pieke, F. N. (2010). Migration journeys and working conditions of Chinese irregular immigrants in the United Kingdom. In: G. Yun (ed.), *Concealed chains: Labour exploitation and Chinese migrants in Europe*. Geneva: International Labour Organization (Vol. 1).**

**Key words:**

China

Fees and payment for smuggling, Irregular migration, Routes, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This paper explores the living and working conditions of irregular Chinese migrants in the United Kingdom. It draws on qualitative interviews with 35 Chinese migrants and a background study of British media coverage of Chinese migration, forced labour and exploitation.

According to the study, current Chinese migration to the United Kingdom is much more diverse than in the past, regarding areas of origin and employment. While Fujian Province is still the major sending area in China, migrants increasingly originate from other areas and are mainly from urban centres. The author found that Chinese migrants from Fujian continue to rely on the services of smugglers, while urban Chinese pay travel agencies to arrange for business visas. This method revolves around a loophole in British immigration laws and allows migrants to enter the United Kingdom through authorized channels. The author did not find any evidence for forced migration or trafficking in persons.

Recent migrants tend to work outside the Chinese hotel and restaurant sector. They are employed in

unskilled or semi-skilled jobs, often under highly exploitive circumstances (health and safety). None of the respondents experienced physical violence from Chinese employers; however, Chinese migrants working for British or other non-Chinese employers said they frequently fear verbal or physical abuse, general ill treatment, withholding of wages and arbitrary deductions of fees. According to the various responses, those problems seem to have become standard in the sectors of the British economy that employ low-skilled and irregular migrant labour. The author notes that employment opportunities combined with the low exchange rate of the Chinese yuan is the most important pull factor for Chinese migration. The author concludes that the presence of a large population of irregular Chinese in Britain is an employment as well as an migration issue.

Although migrant smuggling is not the main focus of this paper, it does provide some information on the issue within the context of migration methods that are used by Chinese migrants. The author does not describe the methods employed by Chinese smugglers in detail and points to the reviewed literature on that matter. However, the paper does present interview excerpts that highlight the hardships and dangers that some of the migrants experienced while in transit. The interviews also attest to the fear of retaliation against family back in China and the risk of sexual abuse of female migrants. Some of the interview excerpts also contain information on fees, routes and transportation. The study confirmed that the period of highest risk of abuse and violence occurs during detainment in safe houses. The author draws attention to the fundamental differences in the method of migration used by Chinese migrants, depending on their area of origin, but points out that there is currently no sufficient explanation for this phenomenon.

**Pollock, J. and Soe Lin, A. (2010). Critical times: Gendered implications of the economic crisis for migrant workers from Burma/Myanmar in Thailand. In: *Gender and Development, 18(2)*, pp. 213–227.**

**Key words:**

Myanmar, Thailand  
Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This article analyses the effect that the global economic crisis has had on irregular Myanmar migrants working in Thailand. It uses the example of Myanmar workers in Mae Sot, Thailand to illustrate the negative impacts the economic crisis has had on those workers. It analyses the situation for Myanmar migrant workers from a gendered perspective, comparing the impacts of the crisis on both men and women.

The research involved both qualitative and quantitative methods. The article draws upon the findings of a research report from early 2009 that explored the gendered implications of the economic crisis on migrant workers in Thailand. It also makes use of the grass-roots expertise and knowledge of the MAP Foundation, a Thai NGO with activities in Mae Sot that supports Myanmar migrant workers and the protection of their rights. In addition, the article relies on insights from four focus group meetings, 15 interviews with Myanmar migrants and 331 surveys completed by Myanmar migrant workers in Mae Sot from June to August 2009.

The insights show that Myanmar migrant women in Mae Sot have experienced decreases in already low wages and an increase in lay-offs. There is a growing gap between wages and the cost of living, with the result that many migrant workers now struggle to support themselves. A large number of women (and men) are not able to support their family back at home, which is often the reason for migrating in the first place.

The article does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling, but it highlights the working conditions of many irregular Myanmar migrants in Thailand, which have worsened since the global economic crisis, particularly for women.

**Pro Asyl. (2007). *The truth may be bitter, but it must be told: The situation of refugees in the Aegean and the practices of the Greek Coast Guard*. Frankfurt: Pro Asyl.**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan  
Irregular Migration

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

The study reflected in this report explored the reception and detention conditions of newly arrived irregular migrants landing on the Greek islands of Chios, Lesbos and Samos. It considered and analysed the human rights situation at the Turkish-Greek border, the practice of detention and the shortcomings of the Greek asylum system. The research included a visit to Greek detention centres and interviews with local authorities, representatives of the coast guard and human rights groups and more than 100 irregular migrants, of whom a significant number originated from Afghanistan and Iraq.

Most of the interviewed migrants had attempted to reach one of the Greek islands off the Turkish coast, or by crossing the land border in the Evros region between Turkey and Greece. The study found serious human rights violations by the Greek coast guard. These included refoulement of irregular migrants at sea, detainment without official registration and systematic abuse and torture, which is illustrated through several interview excerpts. The report characterizes the conditions in detention centres as inhuman and degrading. It states that no special provisions are made for minors, torture victims, victims of trafficking, disabled persons or persons with physical and psychological problems. The report concludes that the conduct of the Greek authorities violates international refugee and human rights laws.

The focus of this study was on the reception and detention conditions of newly arrived irregular migrants in Greece and the conduct of Greek law enforcement and did not specifically address the transit phase. Interview excerpts indicate that some of the migrants had paid for their travel by sea, but the report does not explore that issue. Thus the report does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling.

**Rudnyckyj, D. (2004). Technologies of servitude: Governmentality and Indonesian transnational labor migration. In: *Anthropological Quarterly*, 77(3), pp. 407–434.**

**Key words:**

Indonesia

Irregular migration, Routes

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This paper examines the techniques and networks that enable the transnational movement of migrant labourers from Indonesia and argues that those flows are dependent on patron-client networks. In addition to relying on secondary literature, the author in 2001 and 2002 interviewed returned migrant labourers, employees of human resource companies and NGO activists. The author does not provide details on the methodology of the interviews or how many individuals were interviewed. Migrant smuggling is not explicitly addressed.

The paper explains that Indonesia has become one of the largest exporters of migrant labour in the world within the past 15 years and that the movement of these labourers to other countries is regulated to a high degree. Maids from Indonesia are mainly sent to Kuwait, Malaysia, Saudi Arabia and Singapore. Remittances from them are an increasingly important source of revenue in Indonesia.

Localized patron-client relations are critical in allowing Indonesian women to gain access to the transnational domestic labour market. Within these networks, clients willingly consent to a level of exploitation by patrons with the expectation that the patron will ensure their livelihood in the event of hardship. The local broker is crucial in facilitating transnational labour migration from Indonesia. The broker is usually respected in the community and provides small loans to migrants unable to finance their journeys as well as contacts with human resources companies in Jakarta. Because of a broker's good reputation within the community, migrants and their families often feel more comfortable entrusting their physical and financial welfare to them. The broker's relationship with the migrant often ends with the provision of funds and contacts. If problems arise in the workplace, such as abuse, the broker may not know how to assist the migrant.

The rationale for working abroad is overwhelmingly the motivation for an improved standard of living.

Sending companies rarely need to recruit workers because many prospective migrants seek them out after seeing the relative wealth of returned labourers. While waiting for their necessary paperwork, prospective migrants are trained on the skills and dispositions expected of them. All domestic workers who migrate through regular channels are required to attend these trainings, which last for months and leave migrants indebted to the company. The migrants' first six months of earnings are sent directly to the human resources company to repay that debt.

Although the paper focuses on regular channels for labour migration and does not directly address migrant smuggling or irregular migration, it provides important first-hand information on labour migration processes from Indonesia. The detailed description of potential migrants' reliance on local brokers is also of relevance, considering that some brokers assist migrants to migrate irregularly by providing contacts and funds. Because official migration channels involve invested time and money and limited freedom, as detailed by the paper, many migrants seek to migrate irregularly to avoid the costs, a behaviour that can feed into smuggling flows.

**Saat, G. (2009). Human trafficking from the Philippines to Malaysia: The impact of urbanism. In: *South Asian Survey*, 16(1), pp. 137–148.**

**Key words:**

Malaysia  
South-East Asia  
Organization of smuggling, Profiles of irregular migrants, Smuggling, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This article presents an explanatory model for trafficking in persons through urbanism and explores the underlying forces leading to trafficking in persons through the case study of trafficking from the Philippines to Malaysia. "Urbanism" refers to the economic forces of the urban world and assumes that illegal economic activities always exploit the legal structure in order to secure their sustainability. Empirical data for the one-year case study was collected

from 2001 to 2002. Trafficking is defined according to the Trafficking in Persons Protocol. Within the author's conceptual framework, economic activities constitute the most vital component of social structures, meaning that urban centres draw people hoping to get a job and secure a better life. Market forces determine the lives of individuals.

The selected case study focuses on the trafficking of Filipinos to Sabah, a state in East Malaysia. In total, 30 victims and 19 experts were interviewed; all the victims were young women, most of whom were from poor, rural areas. The article describes the process of trafficking used and which actors were involved.

According to one of the experts interviewed, there are 11 criminal groups in West Malaysia involved in trafficking and smuggling people from the Philippines. The criminal groups range in numbers from fewer than 5 up to 20 members. The author characterized the groups in four levels: level one includes persons about which very little is known other than that they are well known and powerful; level two includes individuals who receive orders, pass information and give directions to the third level; level three organizes on-the-ground work, works closely with the fourth level and has close ties with government officials in the police and immigration departments (they may be pimps, madams or small brothel owners); level four includes errand boys who arrange transportation, buy food for women and pass information. They also look for potential clients and areas of expansion and pass this information to level three. People working on the fourth level usually know the local sex workers and deal in hard, illicit drugs and pharmaceutical drugs.

The structure of organized criminal groups in Sabah has three levels: level one consists of the sponsors who receive the trafficked women and force them into prostitution; level two includes groups of people, almost always working in employment agencies, who recruit, sell or hand over the women to sponsors in Malaysia or agents in the Philippines; level three consists of recruiters who are hired by level two to recruit the young women in the Philippines. They target young women from poor families and others looking for opportunities abroad.

The case study describes trafficking routes from the Philippines to Malaysia via air, land and sea. Estim-

ed costs for travel and job placement are also listed. Due to the costs, most women are indebted upon arrival. All the women interviewed were trafficked into the sex industry and were frequently rotated among locations. The case study concludes that there is not enough monitoring of the trafficking situation in the Philippines and Malaysia. Some high-level officials maintained when interviewed that trafficking does not exist in their country.

The article provides unique information about the structure of organized crime syndicates in the Philippines and Malaysia involved in both trafficking in persons and migrant smuggling. Although the focus is trafficking, much of the relayed information can also be applied to smuggling operations.

**Sadiq, K. (2005). When states prefer non-citizens over citizens: Conflict over illegal immigration into Malaysia. In: *International Studies Quarterly*, 49(1), pp. 101–122.**

**Key words:**

Indonesia, Malaysia  
Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Profiles of irregular migrants, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This article demonstrates how Malaysia incorporates irregular migrant populations into its society and often excludes its own citizens through a case study of irregular migration from the Philippines to Sabah, Malaysia. As the article points out, irregular Filipino migrants are able to vote in large numbers and thereby influence the politics of their receiving country because they illegally procure documents that secure them the privileges of citizenship. At the same time, many true citizens are not able to procure documentation to prove their citizenship and thereby realize their rights. The author conducted primary research on Filipinos in Sabah through interviews with Filipino migrants and Malaysian politicians located there. No explanation of the methodology used for conducting the interviews is given. Secondary literature, government reports and media sources were reviewed to complement the interviews and provide a broader political context. Data was also taken from the Malay-

sian census. The author suggests that the conclusions of the case study can be applied to other developing countries, considering that many of them share similar elements of irregular migration and citizenship.

According to the author, in many developing countries, including Malaysia, citizenship is weakly institutionalized, and legal documentation is either absent or barely present among native populations. Weak documentation systems leave countries vulnerable to the irregular entry of migrants through document fraud and also to electoral fraud because non-citizens can easily acquire citizen status in such systems. This has serious implications for national security because people can acquire visas to other countries through their alleged citizenship in Malaysia.

Geographic proximity between Sabah and the Philippines enables irregular migration flows. Many irregular migrants then become seemingly legal through fake documents, which they procure from smugglers or “towkays”. Towkays receive the initial earnings of the migrants as payment for their services.

Although the article provides some information on the migrant smuggling process, most of its focus is devoted to political integration into Malaysian society through falsified documentation of migrants who have entered the country irregularly. The origins of such falsified documents in the smuggling process, such as through forgery or illegal procurement, are not discussed beyond the fact that they are procured by smugglers. Migrants’ motivations for entering Sabah irregularly or through smuggling channels are also not discussed.

**Saha, K. C. (2007). Smuggling of Indian citizens: Preliminary findings. In: *Journal of Immigrant and Refugee Services*, 5(1), pp. 55–69.**

**Key words:**

India  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Profiles of smugglers, Smuggling, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This article tries to examine the smuggling of Indian citizens to other countries and offer insights into the methods of smugglers. Therefore, two sources of information were used in the investigation. First, the deportation records of Indian citizens from other countries to the international airport in New Delhi were accessed and this open source document constituted the main data resource. Second, six in-depth telephone interviews were carried out with deportees from Punjab. Although the author describes the six interviewees as randomly selected, no further details concerning the process of selection of interviewees is given.

The findings of the study are broken down into three categories: (1) the migrants, (2) the smugglers and (3) the duration of the stay. All deportees were male; more than 51 per cent were aged 18–25 years and almost 28 per cent were aged 26–30 years. Slightly more than 14 per cent of the migrants said they used the services of smugglers, although the author suspects that the rate was actually higher. The supposition, based on this statistic, was that migrants tend to attempt this task on their own before turning to smugglers. No information is reported as to how the percentages used in this discussion were determined, only overall numbers are given. The author does make reference to difficulties — government reluctance to release statistics — in obtaining records, so it is possible that some data were analysed but not reported in the study. Final observations focus on the geographical origins of deportees as well as their families' involvement in the process.

Smugglers are discussed in terms of how the migrants/smugglers met, the location of those meetings, the costs of irregular migration, routes taken and conditions under which migrants were smuggled. Some statistics are included (for example, 12 per cent of the deportees contacted smugglers in Punjab), but there is no explanation of how the numerical data were obtained and analysed. The final section discusses the nature of the work in which the deportees engaged, how long they stayed and the amount of money earned. Conclusions and implications for further study were based on general knowledge about the nature of migrant smuggling rather than the study itself.

**Saha, K. C. (2009). Smuggling of migrants from India to Europe and in particular to the UK. A study on Tamil Nadu. New Delhi: United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime.**

**Key words:**

India, Sri Lanka

South Asia

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Profiles of irregular migrants, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Profiles of smugglers, Quantitative assessment, Routes, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This report presents findings from a study on the scope and magnitude of irregular migration from India's Tamil Nadu state, drawing the conclusion that the level of such migration is both substantial and on the rise. Two main categories of irregular migrants are described, with the first being unskilled migrants bound for the Middle East and South-East Asia and the second being migrants heading to Europe, with the United Kingdom the most common destination country. The study drew upon new data gathered from interviews with government officials, travel and migration agents, representatives of relevant organizations and villagers, including irregular migrants, deportees and family members. Other existing data was used to guide the research and support the interview content and was gathered from enforcement authority records in Tamil Nadu.

Trends and volumes of irregular migration were analysed, including routes to final destination countries (most irregular migrants to the United Kingdom travelled through France), types of visas and issues with their use during the journey (tourist visas were commonly used illegally for migration) and hubs in Tamil Nadu where migrants often organized their travels and departed from. Suggestions are made for further studies based on some of these trends, including irregular migration by overstay, how knowledge of migrant hubs could be used in the processing of visa applications and the use of Tamil Nadu as a

transit point for Sri Lankan nationals attempting to reach Europe through irregular migration means.

Irregular migrants are profiled according to the study findings, including an analysis for the drivers of their irregular migration and the choice of destination countries. Significant discussions are also presented on the roles of agents and subagents facilitating travel, including an acknowledgement that although these organizations are known to undertake illegal activities encompassing document forgery, agents appear to be overlooked by law enforcement offices, particularly in more rural settings. Services provided include the issuing of passports, visas and other travel documents but can also often be based on informal understandings, particularly concerning fees. Because of this, documentation of transactions is rarely found. The author notes that when law enforcement bodies do examine travel agents, it is often those facilitating travel for lower fees (therefore for poor migrants) who are caught, leaving the higher-end agencies operating with a success rate of almost 100 per cent.

Government responses to irregular migration from Tamil Nadu were found to include dialogues and actions on protecting the interests of those who want to legally pursue unskilled labour opportunities overseas because these migrants were perceived as needing assistance in negotiating appropriate terms and conditions for travel and employment. The Government of India was also found to be active in tightening immigration clearance at airports, including in Tamil Nadu, thus preventing would-be irregular migrants from leaving the country. However, even when individuals are intercepted, it is recognized that limited actions can be taken against the travel agents who organized their documents or work arrangements due to the difficulty proving involvement without any formal documentation or receipts of transactions.

Case studies of individual migrants and recommendations for future actions conclude the report. Suggested actions are relevant to future UNODC programming in Tamil Nadu as well as other actors interested in irregular migration. Recommendations include more studies on irregular migration from different areas of India as well as relating to Sri Lankans of Tamil origin and an additional study investigating the use of sea routes by irregular migrants.

**Samarasinghe, V. (2008). *Female sex trafficking in Asia: The resilience of patriarchy in a changing world*. New York: Routledge.**

**Key words:**

Cambodia  
South Asia, South-East Asia  
Concepts, Routes, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

Drawing on field visits to red-light districts as well as interviews with victims of trafficking, sex workers, brothel owners, managers, pimps and NGO activists, this book examines why female trafficking for sexual exploitation occurs and how place-specific historical and political factors shape its form and structure. Using three country case studies — Cambodia, Nepal and Philippines — the author presents a detailed analysis of the differences among the countries to illustrate how the premise of female trafficking for sexual exploitation is grounded in patriarchal norms and female subordination. She examines the different definitional and analytical approaches (gender, development, criminal networks, labour, migration, abolitionist and health) used by scholars, advocates, policymakers and practitioners and proposes a generalized model that maps both the supply and demand side of the phenomenon. The book further highlights the evolving discourse of female trafficking for sexual exploitation, the methodological challenges in carrying out research, the theoretical underpinnings of female vulnerability and subordination, the demand side of the sex industry and the different patterns, causes and consequences of trafficking for sexual exploitation in the three countries.

Using reviewed literature as well as qualitative data, the author argues that the vulnerability of the trafficked victim arises from his or her gendered positioning across historical, social, economic and political situations. In the concluding chapter, she discusses gaps in knowledge and highlights some of the shortcomings of current anti-trafficking strategies being implemented by development organizations. She recommends that greater attention be paid to location-specific dimensions of sex trafficking in the design and implementing of interventions.



**Santhiago, A. (2005). Human smuggling, migration and human rights: A Malaysian perspective. [Paper presented at the Review Meeting Migration: Human rights protection of smuggled persons, Geneva, 25–26 July 2005.] Retrieved from [www.ichrp.org/files/papers/140/122\\_Santhiago.pdf](http://www.ichrp.org/files/papers/140/122_Santhiago.pdf) (accessed 16 January 2012).**

**Key words:**

Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Singapore, Thailand  
 Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Routes, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This paper examines human rights issues related to migrant smuggling and whether Malaysia's migration system effectively protects migrants from human rights abuses. The paper is based on secondary research and interviews with economic migrants, asylum seekers, refugees, lawyers, law enforcement officers, UNHCR officers and relevant civil society actors. The author does not specify how many interviews were carried out or how interview partners were chosen. Case studies of irregular and smuggled migrants are provided. The author concludes that there is no comprehensive migration policy to protect and promote human rights and that the current policy of deporting migrants feeds into the smuggling cycle. Policy recommendations for a more comprehensive and effective migration policy are listed.

An estimated 2.6 million economic migrants reside in Malaysia, about half of whom are undocumented and most of whom are from Indonesia. Most irregular entries take place in the state of Sabah, where the number of undocumented workers is estimated to be twice that of documented workers. Increases in irregular migration from Indonesia to Malaysia are attributed to recruiting agents, labour trafficking and migrant smuggling, which includes a highly organized trade in documents and corruption of law en-

forcement agencies. Much undocumented migration results from overstayers from other ASEAN countries, particularly Indonesia and Philippines.

The paper defines migrant smuggling according to the Migrant Smuggling Protocol and states that in Malaysia, the terms "trafficking" and "smuggling" are legally interchangeable because relevant laws (at the time this paper was written) only distinguish between "legal" and "illegal" migrants. Smugglers or organized groups provide a variety of services, such as transportation, obtaining documents, extending visas and providing contacts with local employers. Within the author's research, smugglers were sometimes referred to as good people who helped migrants from regions of conflict travel to safety. Smugglers operate by land, sea and air and constantly develop new routes when the authorities discover other routes. The relationship between smuggler and migrant normally ends upon reaching the destination country, unless the smuggler provides assistance in finding employment. Smuggling routes from countries in the region also flow through Thailand, where migrants are often hidden in cars or cross jungle borders on foot. The author lists various smuggling fees for different smuggling routes. Criminal organizations also facilitate the use of forged documents and stolen passports.

The paper is an excellent source of information regarding smuggling activities to Malaysia. Routes and methods from various countries are detailed, and payment and the relationship between smugglers and migrants are also described. The organization of smuggling syndicates is not explained, although it is stated that smugglers can either be individuals or organized groups. Motivations for choosing smuggling services are provided in various case studies, however, no overarching motivations for enlisting smuggling services are addressed.

**Sarkar, K., Bal, B., Mukherjee, R., Chakraborty, S., Saha, S., Ghosh, A. and Parsons, S. (2008). Sex-trafficking, violence, negotiating skill and HIV infection in brothel-based sex workers of eastern India, adjoining Nepal, Bhutan and Bangladesh. In: *The Journal of Health and Popular Nutrition*, 26(2), pp. 223–231.**

**Key words:**

India  
Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Quantitative

**Summary:**

Although this paper focuses on a health issue – HIV, it provides useful information on a range of topics related to sex workers, including trafficking in persons in general. Data were gathered from a sample of 580 sex workers in brothels who voluntarily agreed to respond to a questionnaire designed to elicit responses related to socio-demographic variables, trafficking, violence, negotiating skills and risky behaviours. Blood samples were drawn because HIV was the prime focus of the investigation. Univariate and multivariate analyses were carried out, with HIV considered an independent variable and such factors as age, trafficking, violence and negotiating skills as dependent variables. Trafficking for sexual exploitation was assessed by asking such questions as, How did you join this profession? Response options included: (a) voluntarily, (b) forced by family member(s) and (c) misguided/forced by other less known/unknown/distant relative(s).

The paper describes the nationalities of origin as well as ages of the sex workers along with the incidence of HIV. Regarding push-pull factors, the research found that the majority of women joined the profession due to poverty, a finding that is congruent with other studies. Violence was another dominant theme of the investigation, with 29 per cent experiencing violence in various forms. Even the sex workers who entered the profession “voluntarily” reported violence. A unique facet of the research was revealed regarding negotiating skills. Negotiating skills relate specifically to condom use, and the portrait was bleak in that numerous sexual encounters were carried out without condoms. A final analysis centres on alcohol consumption in general and its relationship to condom negotiation in particular and that the group of trafficked sex workers had the highest rate of HIV infection. No recommendations emanated from the research, but areas for further study are suggested.

**Sciortino, R. and Punpuing, S. (2009). *International migration to Thailand*. Bangkok: International Organization for Migration.**

**Key words:**

Thailand  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Routes

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This research report provides an update to the 2005 International Labour Organization report on international migration in Thailand by Huguet and Punpuing. The purpose of the report is to assess the state of knowledge on international migration in order to provide the Thai Government with input for further international migration policy development. It provides an analysis and assessment of regular and irregular migrants, asylum seekers, refugees and displaced persons in Thailand and of the migration of Thai migrants abroad.

The concept of irregular migration is presented as defined by the International Organization for Migration. The concept of trafficking refers to the Trafficking in Persons Protocol.

The research involved a desk review of relevant literature, including NGO and government studies on international migration in Thailand and analysis of both published and unpublished data on migration trends issued to the researchers by the Thai Government. A number of informal interviews to gain different perspectives on migration issues were conducted with representatives of national and international NGOs and the multi-agency Thematic Working Group on International Migration based in Thailand, Thai Government officials and other relevant actors.

Several field trips were also conducted in the provinces of Phuket and Phang Nga, which were targeted on the basis of having a large number of international migrants and because they have provincial decrees on migration and are hubs for further migration to the south of Thailand and onwards to Malaysia and Singapore. Through the field visits, the researchers observed day-to-day living conditions experienced by migrants and interacted with them for additional information gathering.

The report points out that Thailand is a major hub for international migration as a country of origin,

transit and destination for migrants, and that Thailand is struggling to find the right balance between security, socio-economic development and humanitarian concerns in its responses to international migration, particularly from neighbouring countries to Thailand. The report states that Thailand is still confronted with a large number of irregular migrants and is pressured nationally, regionally and globally to better govern migration because the current management policies are inadequate to address the magnitude and diversity of the phenomenon.

This report does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling. It does provide a useful and comprehensive discussion on related issues, including irregular and regular migration patterns and trends into Thailand from neighbouring countries and the outflow of Thai migrants in search of work abroad. The report also presents a discussion on the development of Thai migration management policy and offers a series of recommendations to the Thai Government on how to strengthen and improve this policy. There is some discussion on Thai policy against trafficking in persons as well.

**Sein, A. J. (2008). The prosecution of Chinese organized crime groups: The Sister Ping case and its lessons. In: *Trends in Organized Crime*, 11(2), pp. 157–182.**

**Key words:**

China  
Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article analyses the investigation and prosecution of contemporary Chinese criminal organizations in the United States in order to draw lessons for understanding Chinese organized crime and its control. This is done through the analysis of one major migrant smuggling case (which involved a woman smuggler): the trial of Chen Chui Ping, commonly known as Sister Ping. The article draws on interviews with parties familiar with the case, court documents and media reports. Beyond this, no particular information about the methodology is provided.

The article concludes that the emblematic prosecution of Sister Ping will not necessarily significantly disrupt the Chinese migrant smuggling industry. The reason for this is seen in the powerful monetary incentives for smugglers and the high demand for their services. The most distinguishing feature of modern Chinese migrant smuggling groups, such as the one controlled by Sister Ping, is their lack of formal structure. The author argues that this may alter the manner in which Chinese organized crime groups are prosecuted (in the United States). Effective prosecutorial tools against traditional crime groups and gangs may be of little use against decentralized and formless Chinese migrant smuggling groups. The study confirms the need for cooperation among international law enforcement agencies. Cooperation particularly with Interpol and Hong Kong (China) authorities helped to facilitate the successful investigation and prosecution of Sister Ping.

The article analyses the case of Sister Ping with a focus on the process of investigation and prosecution and thus describes in detail the investigation, indictment and trial of Sister Ping. It provides insights into the organizational structure and the methods of Sister Ping's migrant smuggling organization.

**Sen, S. and Ahuja, J. (2009). *Trafficking in women and children: Myths and realities*. New Delhi: Concept.**

**Key words:**

India  
Concepts, Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Smuggling, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

Based on research carried out by a joint National Human Rights Commission (NHRC) and Institute of Social Sciences (ISS) team as well as data from the Action Research on Trafficking in Women and Children, this book discusses the myths and realities associated with trafficking in women and children in India. Although 1,500 victims of commercial sexual exploitation were interviewed across 12 states in India as part of the NHRC-ISS study, the book does not include sufficient detail on how the research was

carried out to enable an accurate critical appraisal of the evidence. Insights are offered on aspects of trafficking in persons, such as push-pull factors, profiles of victims and traffickers and experiences of sex workers with law enforcement and other agencies. Trafficking for non-sex-based exploitation, including domestic labour, begging, camel jockeys and adoption, is also discussed. The authors fail to contrast the myth and realities of trafficking in women and children as the title suggests. The book does provide a general (although uncritical) overview of trafficking in persons.

**Shaw, J. (2010). *From Kuwait to Korea: The diversification of Sri Lankan labour migration*. In: *Journal of the Asia Pacific Economy*, 15(1), pp. 59–70.**

**Key words:**

Sri Lanka

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This paper probes changing migration patterns of Sri Lankan migrant workers, especially those related to geographic areas and gender. Existing data are used to examine these patterns in general, but the author goes further by carrying out fieldwork in February to March 2006 in the district of Kurunegala to profile rural migrant-sending households and to examine differences in socio-economic characteristics, destinations and occupations, remitting behaviours and the role of remittances in the household economy. Using a snowball sampling technique, the researcher secured a sample of 153 remittance-receiving households. Surveys were conducted to gather data on pre- and post-migration living standards and livelihood activities, while in-depth interviews with both returned workers and remittance recipients were made to explore the personal, social and economic effects of migration.

Recent data reveals the changing nature of migration patterns, with low-wage women dominating, in contrast to data since the 1990s that showed that almost half of migrants had been male. Moreover, where-

as the Middle East typically was the destination of choice, more migrants are choosing destinations in Europe (such as Italy) and Asia (such as the Republic of Korea). Reasons for these changes are discussed. The survey and interview data were examined using two categories of analysis — destination choice and incomes of migrants (including remittances).

Destination choices can be broken down into two subcategories — preferred destination country and reality. The surveyed men and women preferred countries such as Italy because of higher salaries, a large Sri Lankan expatriate community and the prospect of permanent residence. Other countries were desired because of such factors as safety (Cyprus for domestic workers) and the Republic of Korea (higher wages for males). The reality of the situation is that many workers, especially women engaged in domestic work, continue to migrate to the Middle East because the procedures are formalized and costs to obtain work are relatively cheap. The effects of migration in the household economy are both straightforward and complex. For example, a large proportion of families with a member working abroad depend on remittances, which is a predictable outcome. Other findings are more problematic: males make more money than females but remit less. Reasons for this disparity are described, as are the general effects of money management while one household family member is working abroad. The study does not offer specific recommendations as to how the findings could affect policy, but possible implications may be seen from the conclusions.

**Sheehan, J. (2009). *Human trafficking between China and the UK*. Nottingham: China Policy Institute, University of Nottingham.**

**Key words:**

China

Irregular migration, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Unknown

**Summary:**

This discussion paper focuses on the phenomenon of trafficking in persons between China and the United Kingdom. It examines the effects of the introduction of the National Referral Mechanism (NRM) in the

United Kingdom on identifying suspected victims of trafficking and to discuss problems that Chinese victims of trafficking face despite having their needs identified and protected in the United Kingdom. The paper also discusses some of the push factors in China as well as the availability of repatriation and protection measures for trafficking victims in China.

The paper refers to trafficking in persons as defined by the 2005 Council of Europe Convention on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings.

The research method, data sources and sample are not explained in detail. The paper refers to accounts from 12 Chinese trafficking victims and notes research conducted by the University of Nottingham. The paper points out that the 12 trafficking cases on which the comments are based may not be considered representative.

According to the author, Chinese victims of trafficking appear to be disadvantaged in the asylum system, due to its focus on detail and consistency of a claimant's story in asylum interviews. Certain features of the trafficking process as well as cultural and social norms around sexual behaviour often lead to discrepancies and gaps in the stories of Chinese victims. As a result, some trafficking victims have been detained and fast-tracked for removal, without being identified as trafficking victims until late in the process of removal to China, even after the introduction of the NRM. Thus the author suggests making more frequent use of the NRM 45-day reflection and recovery period.

Through the research, the author found that Chinese victims of trafficking face certain risks after repatriation, due to insufficient prevention and protection measures in China. Victims of trafficking in China are still not proactively identified as such, which includes repatriated victims of transnational trafficking. As a result, repatriated victims may be criminalized as irregular migrants or sex workers. Further, they face the risk of being re-trafficked or punished by their original traffickers.

The author argues that, although China is making progress in combating trafficking in persons and seeks cooperation with international organizations, efforts are often hampered because Chinese authorities are reluctant to address some of its root causes,

including the gender imbalance resulting from the Government's one-child policy and the cultural phenomenon of male preference. The author suggests that British-Chinese cooperation efforts should be improved.

The paper does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling. It briefly points out that, although fees for smuggling services are lower compared to the past, fewer migrants rely on smuggling services to reach the United Kingdom because alternative channels are available. The paper does not provide further information on this issue.

**Silverstone, D. and Savage, S. (2010). Farmers, factories and funds: Organised crime and illicit drugs cultivation within the British Vietnamese community. In: *Global Crime*, 11(1), pp. 16–33.**

**Key words:**

Viet Nam

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Irregular migration, Organization of smuggling, Profiles of irregular migrants, Routes, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

With particular reference to the cultivation of cannabis, money laundering and migrant smuggling, this article explores the growth of organized crime within the Vietnamese community in the United Kingdom.

The research involved two sets of qualitative data: one set was based on 45 interviews with law enforcement personnel in Viet Nam and the United Kingdom as well as with actors in the Vietnamese community; the interviews were conducted mainly through translators. The other set was based on structured questionnaires issued to 34 London-based members of the Vietnamese community, 24 of whom were irregular migrants living in the United Kingdom. Vietnamese community workers assisted the researchers in putting together a non-random sample by means of snowballing. According to the authors, the interviews were used to gather information on issues concerning irregular migration from

Viet Nam into the United Kingdom and to identify the means of subsistence of Vietnamese irregular migrants, including their possible involvement in the business of cannabis cultivation.

The authors conclude that Vietnamese organized crime in the United Kingdom and in Viet Nam is characterized by networks of independent small groups or individuals operating locally but engaging with global activities. Actors operate in mono-ethnic criminal networks, which are almost exclusively Vietnamese. The primary incentive for those involved in cannabis cultivation, money laundering and migrant smuggling is to make a profit. They are not prone to run their businesses through violence or the threat of violence but rather through trust, informal contacts and the exploitation of corrupt Vietnamese officials.

The study discusses various activities of Vietnamese organized crime in the United Kingdom, including migrant smuggling. Based on empirical results, it provides insights on migrant smuggling from Viet Nam into the United Kingdom, including profiles of irregular migrants, smuggling routes, smuggling fees and the business relationship between smugglers and migrants. It discusses the irregular migration of minors, points to possible drivers for irregular migration and provides background information on the different phases of Vietnamese immigration since 1975.

**Silvey, R. (2007). Unequal borders: Indonesian transnational migrants at immigration control. In: *Geopolitics*, 12(2), pp. 265–279.**

**Key words:**

Indonesia

Concepts, Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

As a way of analysing the Indonesian State's strategy for managing return labour migration, this article examines Indonesia's practice of segregating returning migrant workers from other passengers at the Jakarta International Airport. Everyday practices in the

terminal are assessed to theorize the concept of the Indonesian State and its spatiality through the contact between officials and low-income workers. The author concludes that, although the re-entry system was established to protect migrants and their rights, in practice it reproduces social inequalities through the selective and irregular application of regulatory procedures.

The article is based on multi-site research carried out between 1995 and 2004. In 1995, the author conducted interviews with migrants regarding their perceptions and experiences with gender development and migration. Follow-up interviews were carried out in 1998 within the same community regarding the effects of the Asian economic crisis on gendered migration politics and labour organization. In 2000, a broader survey with 185 respondents was carried out in two villages in West Java, based on a random sampling through village registers. In 2002, a subsample of respondents was interviewed to analyse the politics of transnational migration. In 2004, the author worked with NGOs in the area of migrant rights for two months in Jakarta and conducted another round of interviews in an original field site. Government officials in Jakarta in the areas of migration and women's human rights were also interviewed. The author visited the Jakarta international airport in 2004 to observe the practices in terminal 3, which is reserved for returning migrants. At the terminal, the author interviewed police, employees and returning migrants. In total, the author spent five days at the terminal.

The author found that data collected on migrants upon re-entry were often inaccurate because both migrants and officials pay little heed to ensuring that the information is correct. Data such as age, reason for return and overseas earnings were often changed by border officials either out of boredom or because they did not believe the information provided by the migrants. The migrants often had passports with incorrect ages in order to bypass age requirements.

Although the article does not provide specific information about the migrant smuggling process, it offers valuable information about informal recruiting processes in Indonesia, which can be interpreted as migrant smuggling. The author states that most migrants at some point in the migration process turned to an informal middleman or were assisted by an un-

licensed broker. It is often impossible for migrants to differentiate between formal and informal brokers because individual brokers can be active in both regular and irregular recruitment.

This article provides solid information about the Indonesian State's handling of migrant workers and the migration process experiences by Indonesian migrant workers. While migrant smuggling is not explicitly addressed, the article provides important information on informal recruitment practices as well as vital background knowledge on the recruitment process.

**Sim, A. and Wee, V. (2009). Undocumented Indonesian workers in Macao: The human outcome of colluding interests. In: *Critical Asian Studies*, 41(1), pp. 165–188.**

**Key words:**

China, Indonesia

East Asia

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article focuses on female labour migration from Indonesia to Macao (China) and demonstrates how labour export policies in Indonesia and migration policies in Hong Kong (China), are important factors in creating a pool of irregular Indonesian overstayers in Macao (China). It further argues that undocumented female migrant workers are subordinated through patriarchal class relations, which are reinforced by Indonesia's policy of limiting legal sectors of employment for women. The article concludes that labour migration flows from Indonesia to Macao (China), even exploitive flows, are reinforced by both the interest of Macao (China) to remain competitive and the interest of Indonesia in receiving remittances. Field research was conducted for this article from August 2006 to March 2007, during which 66 undocumented female Indonesian workers in Macao (China) were interviewed. Due to the sensitivity of the topic, the interviews were carried out by Indonesian migrant workers and the questions they posed were open-ended.

Most Indonesian migrant workers in Macao (China) originally worked in Hong Kong (China), where their work contracts were either terminated or expired. To avoid returning to Indonesia, where the "one door exit policy" subjects migrants to confinement in training camps and leads to a cycle of debt, they decided to try their luck at finding work in Macao (China). High fees for official recruitment agencies motivate both women and men to migrate irregularly. Most undocumented migrant workers in Macao (China) are overstayers who hope to find employment, but their work opportunities are limited and insecure. Overstaying is a result of the ease of legal entry — without needing to show an exit flight or proof of employment. Irregular workers are tolerated and the authorities expect them to earn the money necessary for their plane ticket back to Indonesia, which can take a considerable amount of time.

The article exposes the vulnerabilities of female migrant domestic workers in Macao (China). The displayed migratory patterns are useful, but the overall relevance of the source is limited because the described irregular migration flows do not involve migrant smuggling operations.

**Soudijn, M. R. J. (2006). *Chinese human smuggling in transit* (first edition). Den Haag: Boom Juridische Uitgevers.**

**Keywords:**

China

Fees and payment for smuggling, Irregular migration, Human and social costs of smuggling, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Profiles of smugglers, Smuggler-migrant relationship

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This book explores the phenomenon of Chinese migrant smuggling to and through the Netherlands to provide more information on this issue through empirical research. The focus of the research primarily targeted the organizers of the smuggling process.

The research involved the analysis of 88 court files, corresponding to 172 defendants, regarding the smuggling of Chinese migrants between 1999 and

2003. The cases were chosen on the definition of migrant smuggling according to article 197a of the Dutch Penal Code. The author drew up a checklist to guide the process of analysing the case files. It was then tested by means of a pilot study and altered to adapt it specifically to the phenomenon of migrant smuggling rather than organized crime in general. The author had access to tapped telephone calls of the corresponding court cases.

In addition to the case file analysis, the author conducted interviews with 22 Dutch government officials involved in the investigation of migrant smuggling. Interviews were also conducted with German and British police officers who worked with the Dutch authorities on smuggling cases as well as two officers from Europol. General information on Asian crime in the Netherlands was obtained from the author's prior work and contact with members of police specialized on this topic.

Data was analysed against three primary models: a hierarchical approach, characterized by smugglers working in fixed settings under one central management; a network approach, in which smuggling activities are characterized by loosely connected networks of individuals; and a migratory approach, defining smuggling merely as migration by illicit means.

According to the author, the network approach is the most applicable concerning the organization of Chinese migrant smugglers. Several separate groups located in different countries organize each stage of the journey and pass on the migrants to the next group, after fulfilling their part of the deal; for example, migrants are smuggled from China to Russia, from where they proceed to the Czech Republic, Germany or the Netherlands and then possibly to the United Kingdom. At times, these groups form a loose network, which enables one group to take over should another group encounter problems with law enforcement. The court files revealed that the smugglers altogether were responsible for smuggling some 250 migrants to and through the Netherlands each year. However, most of the migrants in this study were subsequently smuggled out of the country, which underlines the Netherlands primary role as a transit country.

The research did not find any evidence of an existing relationship between Chinese migrant smugglers

and forced prostitution, drugs, extortion or robbery in the Netherlands, suggesting that there is little connection to other forms of organized crime in the country.

The research also found that any effective government approach to resolve the problems connected to Chinese irregular migration are obstructed by certain issues that date back to the 1970s. Because the Chinese Government seldom recognizes Chinese irregular migrants as citizens, it is difficult or impossible for the Dutch Government to deport them. Furthermore, the study found holes in the Dutch system that may encourage small-scale smuggling, such as the lack of a criminal law against false guarantors. A guarantor can operate at a small scale and fraudulently "invite" one or two migrants per year without the risk of being detected or prosecuted. The author concludes that migrant smuggling to the Netherlands is best countered by effective "post-border" (internal) controls instead of more stringent border controls. This approach entails closely monitoring the work sectors in which irregular Chinese migrants are known to be active, such as Chinese restaurants. The author argues that if employers using unauthorized labour face a high risk of detection and conviction, it will lead to a reduction in demand for illegal labour and thus gives irregular migrants less incentive to go to the Netherlands. However, the author notes that internal controls have no effect regarding smugglers who use the Netherlands as a transit country. Thus effective and comprehensive police investigations remain an important part in combating migrant smuggling.

The research findings are limited by the fact that 44 of the 172 defendants in the corresponding court files turned out to be non-Chinese. The author also notes that the information in the files concerned the smugglers and provided little information on the socio-economic background of the smuggled persons or their reasons for migration. This made it difficult for the author to study the social relationship between the smugglers and the migrants.

The book provides in-depth insights into the profiles of Chinese smugglers, the organization of their smuggling activities in the Netherlands and gives some information concerning the relationship between smugglers and migrants. In addition, the study examines to what extent actors in Chinese



smuggling operations are involved in other criminal activities and discusses whether Chinese smuggling has evolved over the past years. Finally, the study elaborates on the implications and consequences regarding law enforcement policies.

**Soudijn, M. R. J. and Kleemans, E. R. (2009).** *Chinese organized crime and situational context: Comparing human smuggling and synthetic drugs trafficking.* In: *Crime, Law and Social Change*, 52(5), pp. 457–474.

**Key words:**

China

Concepts, Profiles of smugglers, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article explores Chinese organized crime and compares findings from two transnational criminal activities that were carried out by Chinese offenders in the Netherlands — drug smuggling and migrant smuggling. The purpose of the study was to identify major theoretical and empirical similarities and differences between the two criminal activities and to discuss the relevance of the main findings for theory development and future research.

The authors criticize the “ethnic” conception of organized crime and argue that it produces a kind of “lock-in effect”. They propose an alternative view that focuses on social networks and situational contexts.

The research drew on empirical data from police investigations in the Netherlands, which included intercepted telecommunications. Two sets of data were collected: The first set (based on police investigations) was collected in the context of prior research into Chinese migrant smuggling and covers the period of 1996–2003. That data set contains information on 178 suspects who were brought to trial on charges of Chinese migrant smuggling. The second data set concerns drugs and precursors and covers the period of 2004–2006. During this three-year period, an investigation team from the Dutch National Crime Squad collected information on more than a

hundred Chinese suspects in the Netherlands as well as abroad. Researchers of the National Crime Squad then interpreted the data set.

There are empirical similarities and differences between the two criminal activities. For example, they are characterized by different criminal profiles. While the migrant smugglers were in their 20s or 30s and often used Mandarin to communicate, the synthetic drug smugglers were in their 40s and 50s, had lived in the Netherlands for a longer period of time and originated from Cantonese-speaking areas. In both cases of migrant smuggling and synthetic drug trafficking, Chinese women sometimes had a major role as organizers. The authors found that the migrant smuggling showed less violence between smugglers than between those active in the drug market. Furthermore, both forms involved non-Chinese actors. In migrant smuggling businesses, however, the non-Chinese actors can be characterized as contractors. The research found no indication of the involvement of pyramid-structured organized crime in migrant smuggling cases. Rather, the term “temporary business alliance” seems the more appropriate description when migrant smuggling groups operate on an international level. However, at the local level, migrant smuggling groups tend to be quite cohesive. The authors suggest that ethnicity as an explaining factor should not be rejected but it should be placed in a situational perspective.

The article points out that data such as suspects’ backgrounds or motives was missing from the analysed information due to the fact that it was primarily collected in the interest of criminal prosecution. The authors do not consider the sample as representative and therefore opt for a more qualitative way of describing the data rather than making quantitative statements.

**Tenaganita. (2008).** *The revolving door: Modern day slavery refugees.* Kuala Lumpur: Tenaganita SDN BHD.

**Key words:**

Malaysia, Myanmar, Thailand

Irregular migration, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This book is a collection of testimonies of Myanmar refugees in Malaysia that expose abuse at the hands of Ikatan Relawan Rakyat officers (Rela), corruption within law enforcement and immigration and cases of trafficking in women, children and refugees. In addition to the first-hand accounts, the book provides general background information on the migration system in Malaysia and non-recognition of refugees, the refugee situation in Myanmar and the global dynamics of migration.

The interviews with Myanmar refugees in Malaysia were carried out by staff of the Malaysian NGO Tenaganita, with the assistance of translators. The refugees had approached Tenaganita for assistance and were willing to share their stories. Secondary literature is used for the introductory background information that precedes the interviews.

The interviews primarily refer to raids by Rela, which is the People's Volunteer Corps that assists with arresting irregular migrants. Because Malaysia does not officially recognize refugees, even individuals with UNHCR refugee status are considered to be irregular migrants and are often subjected to arrest, detention and even deportation. According to various accounts, UNHCR cards are disregarded and/or confiscated by Rela officials during raids. The refugees said that when interviewed by Rela officers or other Malaysian officials, they were seldom provided with an interpreter and thus had no idea what was being asked of them. In detention centres and prisons, refugees and undocumented migrants were often beaten, provided with insufficient sustenance and denied basic hygienic needs, such as showers and toilet breaks. Rela is also cited as trafficking detainees into neighbouring countries or the jungle and demanding ransom for their return.

The book does not address the issue of smuggling of migrants. However, it does provide first-hand accounts of refugee flows, irregular migration and trafficking in persons. Through the concise and comprehensive introduction to the topic of migration in Malaysia and Myanmar, the book balances secondary sources with individual interviews, which provides a general account of the refugee and trafficking situation in Malaysia.

**Thongyou, M. and Ayuwat, D. (2005). Social network of Laotian migrant workers in Thailand. In: Working Paper Series (80).**

**Key words:**

Lao PDR, Thailand

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This working paper focuses on the experiences of irregular Lao migrant workers in Thailand. It particularly focuses on the social networks that facilitate the migration of many Lao workers to Thailand and that have a significant impact on their lives once they arrive. Most of the social networks consist of friends and family of the migrant. The paper first presents a series of social and economic demographics of irregular Lao migrants. Then it examines the role and significance of two social networks that facilitate and assist with the irregular migration of many Lao migrants wanting to travel to Thailand. The two social networks include those in the community of origin in Lao People's Democratic Republic used for finding information on migration routes, employment and housing in Thailand and the social networks in Thailand that help the individual to reduce settlement costs and deportation risks, offer social and emotional support and better assimilate into their new environment.

The concept of migrant smuggling is not used explicitly within the text, although the paper focuses on what can be interpreted as the smuggling of Lao migrant workers to Thailand through Lao social networks based in both countries.

The research involved a series of structured interviews, conducted using a questionnaire with 276 irregular Lao migrant workers from across five Thai provinces who participated in the Thai Government's 2004 migrant worker registration process. The interviews were conducted at the registration site. It was easiest for the researchers to interview those Lao migrants willing to register as opposed to irregular Lao migrants who were not as willing to be interviewed

because of their irregular status in Thailand. The interviews were used to collect information on the pre-migration experiences of Lao migrant workers and their living and working experiences in Thailand. The paper gives particular attention, including data, to the role of social networks in both Lao and Thailand in the migration process and as a social support for Lao workers in Thailand. More detailed and open-ended interviews were conducted with 10 Lao migrant workers in Thailand to gain more information relevant to the research.

The paper provides many statistics related to the gendered experience of irregular Lao migrant workers in Thailand and their reliance on social networks. This was concluded largely from a survey conducted with 276 irregular Lao workers. The survey results indicate that the majority of irregular Lao workers in Thailand are women younger than 24 who have lived in Thailand for an average of 6.5 years, that many were unmarried at the time of migration, that most had completed at least primary level education, that most were from rural communities and that poverty was the main push factor for leaving home. Most significantly, the research highlighted the importance of and reliance on social networks for many Lao migrants looking to work in Thailand. Social networks are important for the purpose of providing information on the migration route, assistance with crossing the border, helping to find or provide accommodation and employment in Thailand, facilitating or assisting with the remittance of earnings to the family back home, social and emotional support in Thailand and return to Lao PDR.

The paper helps to develop an understanding of Lao social networks in the migrant smuggling process. These social networks can be responsible for the organization and facilitation of the migration of many Lao migrants wanting to migrate irregularly to Thailand for the purpose of work. The roles and purposes of social networks are explained regarding the facilitation of unauthorized entry and stay in Thailand.

**Thunø, N. and Pieke, F. N. (2005). Institutionalizing recent rural emigration from China to Europe: New transnational villages in Fujian. In: *The International Migration Review*, 39(2), pp. 485–514.**

**Key words:**

China

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article discusses the prevalence of large-scale migration from a small region in the Chinese province of Fujian to Europe. According to the authors, that large movement has associated Chinese migration with organized crime, exploitation and opportunism in a number of popular and academic writings in China as well as abroad. The authors argue that migrant smugglers should not be seen as the root cause for migration from Fujian. The purpose of the study was to identify the factors that are responsible for the large-scale migration from Fujian.

The study involved fieldwork conducted in two villages in central Fujian, both characterized by large-scale migration to Europe but reflecting very different economic and social environments. A total of 106 Interviews with officials at all administrative levels and with migrant households were conducted in 1999 and 2000. In addition, a questionnaire survey was conducted in one of the villages. The sample of 81 migrant households represents 50 per cent of all migrant households in the two villages. The article does not provide details about the data collected; however, it notes that a book-length report on the project was published.

The authors conclude that migration from Fujian is strongly embedded in local political, socio-cultural and economic institutions and histories. For example, research in one of the villages revealed the factors that generate, direct and perpetuate the flow of migration include a lack of government investment, the prominence of smuggling between 1949 and 1978, the late start of government investment in Fujian, the promotion of overseas Chinese links and migration by the village leadership as well as a tradition of migration. These in turn have been created or transformed by sustained migration. According to the authors, population mobility from each area in China is highly specific. Therefore, they point out, generalizations about the causes, nature and direction of the Chinese migration will ultimately lead

to misinterpretation. Yet the migratory flows from Fujian are also part of the “new Chinese migration” that commenced after the onset of the reforms in 1978. Against this backdrop, the authors propose that migrant smugglers should be viewed as merely a part of the local institutions that have come to play a critical role in mediating the scope and the nature of international mobility.

The study highlights the local political, socio-cultural and economic factors that have led to large-scale migration from Fujian. The article does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling, but it discusses in detail the factors that contribute to regular and irregular migration from China.

**Toyota, M. (2006). Health concerns of ‘invisible’ cross-border domestic maids in Thailand. In: *Asian Population Studies*, 2(1), pp. 19–36.**

***Key words:***

Myanmar, Thailand

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration

***Research method used:***

Qualitative

***Summary:***

This research paper examines the plight of Myanmar domestic workers in Thailand and their vulnerabilities as irregular migrants who fall outside of the Thai Government’s migration and migrant health policies. It highlights the health vulnerabilities experienced by irregular Myanmar migrants, with a particular focus on the experiences of Myanmar domestic maids. While the Thai Government extends a degree of health support to “high-risk” irregular migrant workers, including factory workers, workers in the fishing and agriculture industries and sex workers, domestic maids are not covered by the policy. Domestic maids are “invisible” in Thai society because they often live in isolation from others outside their employer’s household and are thus not considered for protection under the Government’s migrant worker health and labour protection policies. The paper explores the socio-historical context of the migration of Myanmar women and girls to Thailand to work as domestic maids and the development of

Thai policy towards migrants since 1997 and how it has impacted the most vulnerable migrants.

The author conducted initial ethnographic fieldwork on transnational migration among minorities along the Thai-Myanmar-China border from 1994 to 1997. Part of this fieldwork concentrated on surveying Myanmar ethnic minorities working in northern Thailand, mainly in Chiang Mai. The author received 1,647 responses to the initial survey (790 males, 857 females), which provided the foundation of information for the research paper. Follow-up research on the issue of Myanmar domestic maids working in Thailand was conducted in January 2003, which involved conducting semi-structured interviews with Myanmar domestic maids and Thai employers (12 maids, 8 employers). From those interviews, three individuals who were identified as having health problems were selected for another interview (in March 2004), with a focus on their health issues. The author had known these individuals since the time of the initial ethnographic fieldwork and thus the findings are based on the rapport established over time. The interviews were used as the basis for three case studies.

The author notes that the research does not claim to represent the types of health problems that all domestic maids may experience; however, the case studies do focus on specific health problems, including HIV/AIDS, reproductive health and sexual abuse.

The research shows that although Thailand has developed policies concerning the protection of the most vulnerable migrant workers, including their access to health care, Myanmar domestic maids fall outside of the policy coverage because they are “invisible” workers in Thai society. These maids are often not under any formal contract with their employers, are residing irregularly in Thailand and are isolated and out of public and political sight. They are largely out of reach of NGOs, labour organizations and public health services because of their place of employment, which makes it nearly impossible for them to access health services and support. Other groups of irregular migrants are also vulnerable to exploitation and health risks, but they are more “visible” than domestic maids and are therefore targeted more easily by these policies.

The research paper does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling. The paper’s ab-

stract briefly mentions the recruitment of Myanmar domestic workers through informal channels that are linked to regional transnational networks that smuggle them into Thailand. But this issue is not explored within the paper. There is some discussion of push-pull factors specific to the migration of Myanmar domestic maids to Thailand, including poverty, the drain of Thai domestic maids and the appeal of Myanmar domestic maids to Thai employers.

**Uehling, G. L. (2008). *The international smuggling of children: Coyotes, snakeheads and the politics of compassion*. In: *Anthropological Quarterly*, 81(4), pp. 833–871.**

**Key words:**

China, India

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants, Profiles of smuggled migrants; Organization of smuggling, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This advocacy-based article focuses on two conflicting aspects of how to deal with smuggled unaccompanied children: security and a compassion for their plight. The author takes the stance that security currently is the dominant force in dealing with irregular migration in general, and this situation does not change when the trafficked persons are unaccompanied children. Moreover, the author argues that migration from China, India, Mexico and Central America reveals a racially and ethnically coded system that protects some children more than others.

The author combines analysis from a literature review with accounts of three ethnographic visits: (1) a facility housing unaccompanied or undocumented migrant children; (2) the case of an undocumented child who received a heart transplant in the United States; and (3) a speech given at the Keeper of the American Dream Awards Dinner. Other data gathering included interviews with children in shelters, interviews with residents affected by smuggling routes and discussions with government officials. Unfortunately, there is no evidence that the data were collected in a systematic manner and no detailed descrip-

tion of the methodology other than the reference to the ethnographic moments.

No specific recommendations emerged from this article; instead, the author points out that the United States needs a clearer understanding of who these children are and knowledge of the paths they take. Arguments are made supporting the notion that a more humane, egalitarian and socially just response is needed to deal with the issue of unaccompanied irregular migrant children.

**United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2007). *Perspectives on gender and migration*. Bangkok: United Nations.**

**Key words:**

Cambodia, China, Thailand

South-East Asia

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary of two chapters:**

Within the overall context of this UNESCAP report on migration from a gendered perspective, the chapter “Female labour migration in Cambodia” focuses on the regular and irregular migration of Cambodian women within Cambodia (rural to urban migration) and beyond to such destinations as Malaysia, Republic of Korea, Saudi Arabia and Thailand. There is a strong emphasis on the discussion surrounding the irregular migration of Cambodian women to Thailand. The chapter argues that Cambodian women have limited economic opportunities in Cambodia and abroad because they often have a low education and literacy level and are low skilled, which makes them a vulnerable migrant group.

The research methodology appears to have included a review of relevant literature and an analysis of quantitative data obtained from a variety of sources, including government and non-government sources. The chapter also refers to interviews, but no further information is provided.

Three distinct areas are discussed in relation to Cambodian migrant women: (1) gender dimensions of international migration (including regular and irregular migration), (2) gender dimensions of internal migration and (3) a review of the legal and policy frameworks on migration. The author notes that many Cambodian migrant women are employed in the domestic sphere but also in factories, restaurants, as shop assistants, in the sex industry and in seafood processing. Regarding internal migration, the chapter notes that Cambodian women are known to migrate for seasonal or more permanent work.

The research shows that regular migration of Cambodian women is often facilitated by private recruitment agencies, while those who migrate irregularly, particularly from Cambodia to Thailand, are likely to employ the services of labour brokers, smugglers and intermediaries. The author argues that cross-border networks, including kinship networks, have flourished to help facilitate entry into Thailand in recent years and that irregular female Cambodian migrants are more vulnerable to exploitation in Thailand because they are not protected by Thai labour laws.

The chapter briefly discusses smuggling fees from Cambodia to Thailand as well as the fact that smugglers are often former irregular migrants. The chapter argues that cross-border irregular migration from Cambodia to Thailand is facilitated by networks of family and friends, labour brokers, migrant smugglers and intermediaries, although limited information is presented about their recruitment techniques and operations.

The chapter sheds light on some migration routes used by Cambodian women migrants who travel to overseas destinations for employment, through regular and irregular migration channels. The chapter has a strong focus on the irregular migration of Cambodia women to Thailand and does not offer the same level of detail on the migration of Cambodian women to Malaysia, Republic of Korea or Saudi Arabia.

The chapter also provides some insight into the experiences and conditions that irregular Cambodian migrant workers endured in Thailand, including low salaries, loneliness, homesickness, long working hours, communication difficulties, lack of human rights and labour protections and exploitation and abuse.

Within the same book, the chapter “Female migration in Thailand: A study of migrant domestic workers” focuses on the experience of female labour migrants in the sphere of domestic work in Thailand. The research provides a review of the migration situation in Thailand and Thai migration policies. The chapter additionally discusses the conditions and experiences of female labour migrants in the domestic sector from Cambodia, Lao People’s Democratic Republic and Myanmar. Recommendations for improving the protection of migrant workers in Thailand are provided.

A recruiter is defined as someone who facilitates domestic workers to find employment with or without a service fee. Domestic workers are defined as someone who performs duties in a private household, according to the Thai Labour Protection Act of 1998. The chapter draws on a number of studies and reports on the issue of migration to Thailand and the experiences of female domestic migrant workers. Data are provided from Thai government and international NGO reports, including the numbers and percentages of registered migrant workers by nationality and sex between 1998 and 2004, the numbers of irregular migrant workers who registered from 1996 to 2006 and the number of registered migrants in Thailand and type of employment and nationality in 2006). A series of quotes are taken from migrant domestic workers regarding their experiences of working in Thailand. It is not clear if these quotes were taken from interviews conducted by the researcher or how they were obtained. No research methodology is provided for the chapter.

Many migrant domestic workers were found to suffer from varying degrees of exploitation and abuse within their employers’ households. Thai labour protection does not cover migrant domestic workers, who are often isolated and not considered to be migrant workers due to their work in private homes and the perception that they do not engage in productive work. The research also found that the majority of migrant domestic workers in Thailand are from Myanmar, with a large number also from Cambodia and Lao PDR. Push-pull factors for domestic migrant workers in Thailand stem from poverty and the search for greater economic opportunity, capitalizing on the Asian perception that domestic work is women’s work and fulfilling the demand for domestic workers in Thailand.

The chapter provides some insight into the role of recruiters in facilitating general labour migration to Thailand and their abilities to assist migrants with securing employment, including work in the domestic sphere. The chapter also sheds light on the attitudes of recruiters by explaining that some seek purely to profit from labour migrants at any cost, often exploiting them and treating them harshly in the migration process. Some migrants end up being trafficked and/or held in debt bondage to their recruiters because of the costs associated with recruitment, travel, facilitation of entry and finding employment. Other recruiters are shown to sympathize with the migrants they assist, even going so far as to help protect them from exploitive working situations through reliable and trusted connections and networks with employers. Recruiters can also assist with sending remittances and communication from the migrants to their families back home.

**United Nations Inter-Agency Project on Human Trafficking. (2010). *The Mekong region human country datasheets on human trafficking 2010*. Bangkok: UNIAP. Retrieved from [www.no-trafficking.org](http://www.no-trafficking.org) (accessed 18 August 2011).**

**Key words:**

Cambodia, China, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Thailand, Viet Nam  
South-East Asia  
Routes, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

These datasheets include maps with information and statistics relating to trafficking in persons and associated issues in the six countries of the Greater Mekong Subregion (Cambodia, China, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar, Thailand and Viet Nam). The reference to trafficking in persons uses both the United Nations Inter-Agency Project on Human Trafficking and the Trafficking in Persons Protocol definitions.

The datasheets provide a snapshot of trafficking in persons in the six countries to inform counter-trafficking efforts. The sheets are country specific and

include statistics on the number of people trafficked and the number of perpetrators prosecuted for trafficking offences in 2009, patterns of cross-border trafficking, trends in trafficking, data on anti-trafficking laws, offences, penalties and general demographic and migration information for each country.

The datasheets also include an analysis of statistics provided by the relevant government ministries from each country. Information is also drawn from research and reports produced by anti-trafficking NGOs and their partners at both the country and regional levels. Additionally, the datasheets present findings concerning the various trafficking routes to, within and from each country and the kind of employment trafficked persons engage in at their point of destination.

Although the datasheets do not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling, they help to identify trends in terms of migration movements and routes.

**United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking. (2009). *Global report on trafficking in persons*. Vienna: UNODC and UN.GIFT.**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan, Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Maldives, Myanmar, Pakistan, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Viet Nam  
East Asia, South Asia, South-East Asia, West Asia  
Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

The purpose of this report is to catalogue and provide analysis of the global responses to trafficking in persons, based on criminal justice and victim assistance data from 155 countries. The research for the report was undertaken in 2007 and 2008, within the framework of the United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking (UN.GIFT). The report provides a summary of the information, discussion on the global and regional figures and country profiles.

The available data suggest that women are more active as perpetrators of trafficking in persons than they are in other areas of violent crime. In the East Asia and the Pacific region, females accounted for 35–50 per cent of (identified) trafficking offenders in three countries. In two countries they accounted for more than 50 per cent of (identified) offenders. Twenty-two countries in the region did not have enough data available to provide information on this topic. Most offenders were nationals of the countries where they were arrested, suggesting that local trafficking networks recruit victims and sell them to criminal networks based in destination countries. Local traffickers attempt to win the trust of victims and use their connections to threaten the victim's family members if he or she resists. Thus local traffickers have greater control over victims than those not familiar with the victim's home community. However, arrests that take place in high-income countries are more likely to involve a non-national. Diaspora populations in destination countries are also involved in trafficking networks.

The vast majority of identified victims of trafficking are females who have been trafficked for sexual exploitation. This high level of sexual exploitation may also be due to local legal priorities, meaning that other forms of trafficking may go undetected. In most cases, victims are trafficked across international borders, but this does not necessarily correlate with long distances.

Individual country reports provide specific information about counter-trafficking activities and criminal justice statistics. This includes data on victims assisted and the number of traffickers convicted.

The report is useful in its broad overview of trafficking responses across the globe. It can assist in understanding trafficking patterns in various regions and countries and States' efforts to suppress the flows. But the report is limited by gaps in data, especially in countries where trafficking in persons is known to exist but where there are few legislative or executive responses or attempts to combat it. Also, the level of national legislation or number of arrests or convictions of traffickers does not necessarily correspond with the level of trafficking in the country at hand. Finally, because the data for this report was originally collected independently by the participating countries, it cannot be systematically compared due to the different methods for collection that were used.

**United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. (2009). *Smuggling of migrants from India to Europe and in particular the UK: A study on Punjab and Haryana*. New Delhi: UNODC.**

**Key words:**

China, India, Sri Lanka  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Profiles of irregular migrants, Profiles of smugglers; Quantitative assessment, Routes, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

This report examines the scope and magnitude of irregular migration as well as the organization and methods of smuggling processes from the northern states of Punjab and Haryana in India. The study is largely based on law enforcement records, including 340,276 immigration office-related records; 196 immigration cases from Indira Gandhi International Airport in Delhi (2005–2007); 39 immigration offence related records from the international airport in Amritsar, Punjab (2007); and 103 police records against migrant smuggling agents, based on complaints made by migrants or their families in the districts of Jalandhar, Kapurthala, Nawanshahr and Hoshiarpur. Eighteen interviews were also carried out with deportees or family members, six with officers who investigated cases against the smuggling agents and 18 interviews with villagers or public representatives in more than 30 villages. Twenty-six cases from Punjab and nine cases from Haryana on irregular migration were collected and analysed. Focus group discussions were also conducted with law enforcement officials, district and village officials, public representatives and journalists. Additionally, a 10-day study tour was undertaken to the United Kingdom and France for discussions with senior government officials, police and border control officers.

Analysis of the data reveals that an estimated 20,000 youth attempt to migrate irregularly each year because regular migration options for unskilled migrants are limited. Over half of the cases examined from Indira Gandhi International Airport related to destination countries in Europe; the United King-



dom was the preferred destination, with most irregular migrants arriving via France. Punjab emerged as the hub of activities for agents and migrant smugglers, although Delhi was also an important centre for irregular migration. Agents adopted various methods, including the use of forged Indian and foreign passports, visas and residence permits. Agent fees ranged from USD 50,000 to the United States and Canada to USD 15,000 to USD 30,000 for European destinations. High success rates of agents in Jalandhar, Kapurthala and Hoshiarpur were noted. If a migrant fails to reach his or her destination, the money paid is either returned by the agent after the costs incurred are deducted or a second attempt is made to the same or an alternative destination.

The recommendations included in the report include a conceptual framework for future UNODC technical assistance initiatives pertaining to the overall fight against irregular migration from the South Asia region.

**United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. (2010). *Crime facilitating migration from Pakistan and Afghanistan*. Vienna: UNODC.**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan, China, Indonesia, Malaysia, Pakistan  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Profiles of smugglers, Routes, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This paper presents an investigation of the crimes and criminal networks that facilitate irregular migration from Pakistan and Afghanistan, with a focus on migrant smuggling. The paper draws on qualitative research involving a total of 166 human sources, with the majority in Afghanistan and Pakistan but also in Australia, the United Kingdom and the United Arab Emirates. The human sources included current and former government officials, international organizations, NGOs, migrants, migrants' families, community leaders and criminals offering services

to migrants. In addition, an extensive review of relevant literature was conducted. The purpose of the research was to gather information about factors that influence migrants' choices about which route to take and which criminal organizations to engage and to investigate the crime and criminal networks that facilitate migration.

A thriving migrant smuggling industry was found (mainly located in Pakistan) that relies on a range of complementary criminal services, such as identity fraud and money laundering. The research found that economic opportunities, security fears, educational ambitions and family reunion influence migrants' choices of routes and criminal service providers. The major influences for choosing a destination consist of diaspora connections, geographical accessibility and costs. The research found that criminal organizations offer a range of services, including transport, identity fraud and maintenance of a guarantee system. Compared to Pakistan, there is a lack of demand for sophisticated services in Afghanistan, mainly due to the fact that Afghans are able to exit their country easily. Thus, networks serving Afghans migrants are located in the Islamic Republic of Iran, Pakistan and the United Arab Emirates. Pakistan and the Islamic Republic of Iran serve as de facto exit points for Afghans. The paper assumes that the land route to Europe and air services are the main revenue pools. Compared to the drug trade, migrant smuggling is characterized by a better risk-reward ratio, less market competition, and less use of violence. The research further assessed that the structure of migrant smuggling is evolving and that there are important gaps in current legislative frameworks and law enforcement.

In addition to including recommendations for actions in Afghanistan and Pakistan, the study provides information on the costs of various smuggling services, maps a number of the significant migrant smuggling routes, proposes a method by which to estimate the overall size of the industry and presents a detailed case study using the example of Hazara migration to Australia.

**United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. (2011). *The role of organized crime in the smuggling of migrants from West Africa to the European Union*. Vienna: UNODC.**

**Key words:**

China, India, Pakistan  
South Asia

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Human and social costs of smuggling; Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Profiles of irregular migrants, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Quantitative assessment, Routes, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

Although this report examines the smuggling operations of West African migrants to Europe, it contains some references to Asia. The report was prepared through desk and field research conducted in Mali, Morocco, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal and Spain. Interviews were conducted with more than 200 people in Africa and Europe belonging to three main groups: migrants, migrant smugglers and national authorities and NGOs.

The study revealed that irregular migrants from South Asia who tried to reach Europe travelled first to West Africa by air and then overland to North Africa before crossing into Europe by sea. The research also found that Asian syndicates were involved in the smuggling of Asian migrants who entered Europe via West Africa and the Sahara. Data from Spain showed that most South Asian migrants who travelled along the South Asia-West Africa-North Africa route were from Bangladesh, India and Pakistan. Most were young men who were urged by their families to earn a better income and had an older relative who had previously worked in Europe. On average, the migrants were from families of modest income, and in many instances, parents sold land or borrowed money to pay the 15,000–18,000 euro smuggling fee. The report claims that migrants are often deserted in North Africa by the smugglers and become trapped, unable to continue their journey to Europe or return to Asia because their funds have run out. Because Asian migrants travel the greatest distances, they pay the highest fees. Chinese smuggling rings are also discussed, but the report acknowledges that the routes that involved West African countries, including the Canary Islands, are less popular now as a result of more stringent law enforcement strategies enacted by Spain.

**United States Department of State. (2010). *Trafficking in persons report*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of State.**

**Key words:**

Afghanistan, Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Maldives, Myanmar, Pakistan, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Viet Nam  
Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This report is based on information from US embassies, government officials, NGOs and international organizations, journalists, academics, trafficking survivors, reports, and research trips to every region.

According to the report, Afghanistan is a source, transit and destination country for trafficking in men, women and children, specifically for forced labour and prostitution. Domestic trafficking is more prevalent than cross-border trafficking. Children are trafficked for forced prostitution and forced labour. Forced begging is organized by mafia-like groups. Boys are subjected to forced prostitution and forced labour in the drug smuggling industry. Women and girls are subjected to forced prostitution and forced marriage, which can lead to prostitution or involuntary domestic servitude. Some families knowingly sell their children into forced prostitution. Men are subjected to forced labour and debt bondage in various countries, including Pakistan and South-East Asian countries. Male migrants from India, Nepal and Sri Lanka who willingly migrated to Afghanistan have been subjected to forced labour. Females possibly from China have been forced into prostitution in Afghanistan. Brothels and prostitution rings are sometimes run by foreigners and sometimes by larger criminal networks.

According to the report, Cambodia is a source, transit and destination country for men, women and children who are trafficked for forced labour and forced prostitution. Cambodians who migrate to Thailand, Malaysia and other countries to work may be subjected to forced labour. Debt bondage increases victims' vulnerability. The number of Cambodians travelling to Malaysia through recruiting companies tripled in 2009. Recruiters charge USD 500 to USD

700, which includes compulsory pre-departure training. Cambodian children are trafficked to Thailand and Viet Nam for begging and forced labour. Parents sometimes knowingly sell their children into forced labour. Domestic trafficking for sexual exploitation is a problem. Children are also forced into begging domestically. The selling of virgins continues, and the country is a child sex tourism destination.

According to the report, China is a source, transit and destination country for men, women and children trafficked for forced labour and forced prostitution. Women from Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar, Viet Nam and other countries are trafficked to China for forced labour and sexual exploitation. Trafficking is coordinated by international criminal syndicates and local gangs. The majority of trafficking is domestic. Debt bondage is also an issue.

According to the report, India is a source, destination and transit country for trafficking in women, men and children for forced labour and commercial sexual exploitation. Domestic forced labour and debt bondage are the biggest problem — 90 per cent of trafficking is internal. People from disadvantaged social classes are especially vulnerable. Major cities and towns are destinations for child sex tourism. Labour trafficking of Indian citizens occurs to Europe, the Middle East and the United States.

According to the report, Indonesia is a source country and to a lesser extent a destination and transit country for trafficking in men, women and children for forced prostitution and forced labour. Many Indonesian migrant workers are subjected to forced labour and debt bondage in Malaysia, Singapore and other Asian and Middle Eastern countries. It is estimated that 43 per cent of Indonesia's expatriate workforce are victims of trafficking. Labour recruiters are responsible for more than 50 per cent of female workers who experience trafficking conditions in destination countries. Recruiters work either independently or for recruitment labour companies, some of which operate similarly to trafficking rings. Sixty per cent of children younger than 5 years do not have birth certificates, which places them at a higher risk for trafficking.

According to the report, Lao PDR is a source country and, to a lesser extent, a transit and destination

country for women and girls who are trafficked into forced prostitution and women, men and children trafficked for forced labour. Lao citizens are trafficked to Thailand for forced labour. Brokers receive fees ranging from USD 70 to USD 200 for job placements in Thailand, which often lead to trafficking. A small number of Lao women and girls are trafficked to China as forced brides. Ethnic minorities are more vulnerable to trafficking to Thailand. The country is increasingly a transit country for Chinese, Myanmar and Vietnamese women trafficked for sexual exploitation and forced labour to Thailand.

According to the report, Malaysia is a destination and, to a lesser extent, source and transit country for trafficking in women and children for forced prostitution as well as men, women and children who are subjected to forced labour. The majority of victims are migrants from Bangladesh, Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand and Viet Nam who encounter forced labour and debt bondage. Traffickers are mostly individual businesspeople, but organized crime syndicates are also involved in the trafficking of foreigners. Malaysian citizens are trafficked internally as well as to Hong Kong (China), France, Singapore and the United Kingdom for commercial sexual exploitation. Almost two million people are estimated to be residing without documents in Malaysia.

According to the report, Maldives is primarily a country of destination for migrant workers from Bangladesh and India, some of whom are subjected to trafficking for forced labour. Women are also trafficked for forced prostitution. Fraudulent recruitment practices include confiscation of identity and travel documents, withholding or non-payment of wages or debt bondage. Regular and irregular migrant workers are vulnerable to forced labour. Migrant workers pay USD 1,000 to USD 4,000 to migrate to the Maldives, which increases vulnerability to forced labour. Traffickers are either (1) families who subject domestic servants to forced labour; (2) employment agents who assist migrants to the Maldives under false pretences; or (3) employers who subject migrants to forced labour.

According to the report, Myanmar is a source country for men, women and children who are subjected to trafficking in persons for forced labour and forced prostitution in other countries. Children from My-

Myanmar are subjected to forced labour as hawkers and beggars in Thailand. Many people who migrate to China, India, Malaysia and Thailand are trafficked. Poor economic conditions in the country have led to increased out-migration from Myanmar through regular and irregular channels. Men are trafficked for forced labour. Women who migrate to China, Malaysia and Thailand are often trafficked for forced labour and forced prostitution. Domestic trafficking is also a serious issue, especially in the case of child soldiers and compulsory labour.

According to the report, Pakistan is a source, transit and destination country for trafficking in men, women and children for forced labour and prostitution. Bonded labour is the largest problem and victims are estimated to exceed one million. Boys and girls are subjected to forced begging, domestic servitude, prostitution and bonded labour in the agriculture sector. Illegal agents charge exorbitant fees to parents and give false promises of decent work. Girls and women are sold into forced marriages, some of whom are forced into prostitution by their husbands. Non-state military groups kidnap children or coerce parents through fraudulent promises into giving their children away to act as spies or suicide bombers. Pakistani migrants become victims of labour trafficking through false job offers and high fees charged by authorized and unauthorized labour agents.

According to the report, Singapore is a destination country for trafficking in women and girls for forced prostitution, and some migrant workers experience forced labour. Migrants from India, Indonesia, Myanmar, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Viet Nam and other countries constitute a third of Singapore's workforce. Many domestic workers are indebted for six to ten months of their wages, due to their employment, which increases their vulnerability to forced labour. Foreign women are recruited with offers of legitimate employment but are forced into prostitution. Some women intend to engage in prostitution but are trafficked into forced prostitution for the profit of others. Most victims enter the country with a tourist visa organized by the traffickers. Organized criminal groups may be involved in trafficking for sexual exploitation. Substantial recruitment networks may be operating to supply women for the sex trade. Singaporean men are a source of demand for child sex tourism in South-East Asia.

According to the report, Sri Lanka is primarily a source and, to a lesser extent, a destination country for trafficking in men and women for forced labour and forced prostitution. Sri Lankans migrate to the Middle East and some are subjected to forced labour. Sri Lankan migrants pay about USD 1,500 in recruitment fees and often take on debt, which increases their vulnerability to trafficking. There is evidence of government complicity in trafficking through modified documents or real documents with false data. Domestically, women and children are trafficked to brothels. Boys are more likely than girls to be forced into prostitution for child sex tourism. Children are also subjected to bonded labour in the agriculture sector.

According to the report, Thailand is a source, destination and transit country for trafficking in men, women and children for forced labour and forced prostitution. The majority of migrants in Thailand are from Myanmar. The majority of trafficking victims have been forced, coerced or defrauded into forced labour or commercial sexual exploitation. Traffickers who bring foreigners to Thailand generally work alone or in unorganized groups. Traffickers who enslave Thai citizens abroad are generally more organized. Undocumented migrants are particularly vulnerable to being trafficked. Children from neighbouring countries have been trafficked for forced begging, selling flowers or working as domestic servants. Most repatriated Thai victims had worked in Bahrain, Malaysia, Maldives or Singapore. Thai men and women are trafficked domestically for forced labour. Sexual exploitation generally involves women and girls. Sex tourism is a serious problem in the country.

According to the report, Viet Nam is a source and destination country for trafficking in men, women and children for forced prostitution and forced labour. Vietnamese men and women migrate abroad through state-affiliated and private labour export companies to China, Indonesia, Malaysia, Republic of Korea, Taiwan Province of China, Thailand and other countries. Some of these workers experience conditions of forced labour. Vietnamese women and children who are trafficked into prostitution in Asia are often misled about job opportunities and then sold to brothels in Cambodia, China, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Thailand and other countries. Labour companies charge up to USD 10,000 for job placement

abroad, which often leads to debt bondage. Recruitment companies have reportedly withheld work contracts until migrants have paid significant fees and workers have signed contracts in languages they could not read. Vietnamese children are trafficked domestically and abroad for forced labour. Brokered marriages, which lead to forced labour or prostitution, are also an issue.

**Vasuprasat, P. (2008). *Inter-state cooperation on labour migration: Lessons learned from MOUs between Thailand and neighbouring countries*. Bangkok: International Labour Organization.**

**Key words:**

Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Thailand  
Fees and payment for smuggling, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Unknown

**Summary:**

The purpose of this report is to analyse the bilateral memoranda of understanding (MOUs) on employment between Lao People's Democratic Republic and Thailand and Cambodia and Thailand. The aim of each MOU is to promote the orderly flow of migrants to Thailand from Lao PDR and Cambodia and back again. The analysis is presented by looking at the scope and objectives of the MOUs, the administrative procedures and consultative mechanisms, return and repatriation of Lao and Cambodian migrant workers in Thailand and measures against unauthorized border crossings and employment. The MOUs are not legally binding, but they are a statement of intent, carrying commitments on behalf of both parties in the co-management of migration.

The report does not include information on the research methodology or data sources. It includes a number of tables with statistics drawn from various sources on such issues as demand for migrant workers, estimated recruitment costs, the number of irregular migrants from the MOU countries detected by Thai immigration authorities, the number of nationals from the MOU countries who passed through Thai immigration, the number of migrant workers arrested by Thai immigration police and the

number of persons persecuted for hiring, hosting or smuggling migrant workers. It is not clear from the report if this is primary or secondary data.

According to the report, the MOUs have neither been efficient nor effective. The report also concludes that the ongoing social, political and economic situation in Myanmar, high costs charged by recruitment agencies in Lao PDR and Cambodia to facilitate migration to Thailand, restrictive migration policies in the sending and receiving countries and ongoing labour shortages among low-skilled jobs in Thailand are likely to further increase the number of irregular migrants entering Thailand for work.

The report gives some insight into the reasons why many Lao and Cambodian migrants turn to smugglers to facilitate their journey and entry into Thailand for work. Under the MOUs, the services provided by recruitment agencies are expensive and slow in terms of facilitating transport to and employment in Thailand. There is some discussion surrounding the fees associated with smuggling in comparison to the fees charged by recruitment agencies to illustrate how affordable smuggling services. The report highlights that many Lao and Cambodian people migrate irregularly to Thailand using the services of smuggling networks and concludes that the slow implementation of the MOUs, coupled with the high costs of formal recruitment agencies, means that the business of migrant smuggling will increase.

**Vijayarasa, R. (2010). *The state, the family and language of 'social evils': Re-stigmatising victims of trafficking in Vietnam*. In: *Culture, Health and Sexuality*, 12(SUPPL. 1), pp. 89–102.**

**Key words:**

China, Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Thailand, Malaysia, Viet Nam  
Irregular migration, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

The objective of this paper was to examine the responses of the Vietnamese Government to trafficking in women and girls and the associated social

stigma of trafficked returnees. According to the paper, trafficking in persons is not widely perceived as a human rights violation but rather a form of “social evil” that badly affects Vietnamese society, customs, traditions, social morals and laws. According to the Government, the “problem” of trafficking (along with other social evils such as sex work) is destroying family happiness, increasing the risk of transmission of HIV and resulting in potential impacts on national and social security. The Government’s “social evil” approach to trafficking in persons has thus negatively influenced attitudes towards victims of trafficking as well as sex workers. According to the author, this approach serves to deflect attention away from the structural inequalities that foster trafficking in persons and prostitution rather than addressing them.

Regarding the definition of trafficking in persons, the author acknowledges the importance of the Trafficking in Persons Protocol in providing some consensus at the international level. However, the definition according to the Trafficking in Persons Protocol is criticized for its failure to recognize trafficking as a form of migration, due to its focus on the use of illicit means.

The paper draws on relevant literature and fieldwork in Viet Nam conducted from 2008 to 2009. During the course of research, the author identified five shelters that specifically offer support to trafficked returnees, located in South, Central and North Viet Nam. A questionnaire was distributed among shelter management and staff on the issue of stigma and challenges faced in providing support to returnees; three of the five shelter staff responded. The author does not provide details about the data collected. In addition, the author attended meetings and a workshop organized by the Reintegration Network in Hanoi.

The author argues that although the Vietnamese Government recognizes that many women migrate abroad for employment and takes steps to address trafficking in persons, it places trafficking prevention measures in line with the prevention and combating of “criminal and social evils”. This approach characterizes returning trafficking victims as criminals and has direct socio-economic consequences for the victims. The author also found that the ambivalent position of the Vietnamese family contributes to the impact of stigma. Families increasingly participate

in the trade of women and children, yet they convey stigma by their inability to ignore the State’s social evil approach and to create an environment that facilitates the reintegration and return of their family members. Dishonoured and labelled as disease transmitters by society, returned victims often decide not to return home or may not be able to reintegrate. Ultimately, the author concludes that the ability of returned victims of trafficking to reintegrate is undermined by the social evils approach and the responses of the State and family. Thus, the author recommends that the Vietnamese Government withdraw from its social evils approach, implement support measures for sex workers, review its prostitution regulations and actively foster gender equality.

The paper does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling due to its focus on trafficking in persons, state responses and social stigma. However, push factors for irregular migration and destination countries (Cambodia, China, Lao People’s Democratic Republic, Malaysia, Myanmar and Thailand) are mentioned.

**Wai, M., Bhumiprabhas, B. and Kerdmongkol, A. (eds.) (2004). *A memoir of Burmese workers: From slaves labour to illegal migrant workers*. Bangkok: Thai Action Committee for Democracy in Burma.**

**Key words:**

Myanmar, Thailand  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This book highlights the experiences of exploitation and abuse suffered by irregular Myanmar migrant workers in Thailand. It is a compilation of memoirs taken from Myanmar migrants working in Thailand in agriculture, garment factories, construction, fishing and domestic housemaids and their experiences of arrest and treatment by the Thai police. The book’s intent is to expose the reality endured by many Myanmar workers in Thailand. The research primarily involved direct accounts of experiences taken from a

number of Myanmar migrant workers in Thailand.

The author found that irregular Myanmar migrants working in Thailand are abused and exploited by both their employers and the police. This is exemplified by a number of case studies and accounts of Myanmar migrant workers in Thailand who have experienced such exploitation and abuse. Although many Myanmar migrant workers in Thailand suffer mistreatment and violation of their human rights on a daily basis within their work, the book demonstrates that most choose not to return to Myanmar and continue to return to Thailand to work even after they have been arrested and deported by the Thai authorities.

The book does not contribute directly to knowledge on migrant smuggling. It gives a brief discussion of the role of brokers in the facilitation of Myanmar migration to Thailand in terms of managing the trip, arranging accommodation and helping to find employment in Thailand.

**Wei, B. (2008). *Reporting human trafficking in China's print media. The Institute of Journalism and Communication and the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences. Retrieved from [www.notip.org.cn/UserImages/00001691.pdf](http://www.notip.org.cn/UserImages/00001691.pdf) (accessed 18 August 2011).***

**Key words:**

China  
Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Quantitative

**Summary:**

The author provides an analysis of Chinese media reports (both public and government) on human trafficking cases in China to learn more about human trafficking in China and how the media reports on the crime. According to the author, this is the first study of its kind in China and was developed by the Project to Prevent Trafficking in Girls and Young Women for Labour Exploitation within China, implemented by the ILO and the All-China Women's Federation. The author notes that the media was identified as a source to reveal the scale and nature of trafficking in China. While acknowledging that the study is not definitive because it only covers a fraction of China's media out-

lets, the author concludes that from the media reports analysed (748 articles), the media has demonstrated a high level of understanding of human trafficking.

The study focused on human trafficking cases reported in the Chinese print media from 1 January 2006 to 31 December 2007, specifically to: (1) look for which groups are most vulnerable to trafficking and the specific risks they face; (2) establish a baseline for a longitudinal study on trafficking trends; (3) analyse the nature of reporting on trafficking and the portrayal of victims in the Chinese print media; and (4) provide recommendations on trafficking prevention for policymakers and for working with the media.

From the media analysis, the report provides some findings on the profiles of reported trafficked victims in China, identifying that nearly 30 per cent were male and nearly 62 per cent were female (the others were not clear in terms of sex). Based on the details that were given, the most at-risk to trafficking are girls and young women aged between 14 and 20, and there appears to be a correlation between age, sex and different forms of trafficking (for example, young women and girls are more likely to be trafficked for sexual exploitation). The study also concluded that the majority of victims were trafficked through deceptive means or an abuse of their vulnerability as opposed to physical violence. However, many were controlled by restricting their physical movement or by physical violence. The media articles reported on trafficking into forced prostitution (19 per cent), into the entertainment industry (9 per cent), for brick kilns work (9 per cent), for manufacturing work (4 per cent), for domestic labour (3 per cent) and for forced begging (3 per cent). Two thirds of the articles reviewed referred to actual trafficking cases.

**Woman and Child Rights Project and the Human Rights Foundation of Monland. (2009). *Nowhere else to go: An examination of sexual trafficking and related human rights abuses in Southern Burma. Bangkok: Woman and Child Rights Project and the Human Rights Foundation of Monland.***

**Key words:**

Myanmar, Thailand  
Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This report details the experiences of a number of Myanmar migrant women and girls from Mon State at the southern Myanmar-Thai border who were trafficked to Thailand. Many of the women and girls were promised work in factories or restaurants but were instead trafficked into prostitution. The report uses a number of individual case studies to highlight the abuses and sexual exploitation suffered by a number of Mon women and girls. The report uses the Trafficking in Persons Protocol definition.

The qualitative research method relies on a number of interviews and case studies with women and girls who were trafficked. In total, 40 interviews were conducted by the Women and Child Rights Project team in partnership with the Mon News Agency from 2003 to 2004. The team interviewed survivors and witnesses of trafficking in persons and sexual violence and Myanmar women who had worked as sex workers in Thailand.

The report contains a number of in-depth case studies taken directly from the interviews with the trafficking victims. The case studies detail the interviewees' experiences associated with recruitment and the abuse and exploitation suffered in their Thai workplace.

The main finding of the research is that many women and girls who wanted to migrate to Thailand for the purpose of work were ultimately trafficked into sexual exploitation. It is often the case that the only means for Myanmar women and girls to migrate to Thailand is by using the services of a smuggler or trafficker. Regular migration is impossible for many women and girls (and indeed Myanmar men and boys) because of the Myanmar Government's restrictions on providing travel documentation. Many women and girls are promised work in restaurants or factories in Thailand but often end up forced into prostitution. Many are deceived by their traffickers with false promises of factory or restaurant work. Those who are trafficked into Thailand to factories or restaurants are also frequently exploited and abused in their workplaces, including sexual abuse.

The report does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling. It focuses on the traffick-

ing of women and girls from southern Myanmar to Thailand and how traffickers exploit and abuse them in the trafficking process. The report gives some valuable insight into why Myanmar migrants employ the services of smugglers or traffickers to facilitate their migration to Thailand.

**Yang, B. Y. F. (2007). Life and death away from the golden land: The plight of Burmese migrant workers in Thailand. In: *Asia-Pacific Law and Policy Journal*, 8(2).**

**Key words:**

Myanmar, Thailand

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This article outlines the situation that Myanmar migrant workers experience, both documented and undocumented, in Thailand. The article particularly focuses on the human rights abuses and deprivation of civil liberties. The article gives a comprehensive discussion of the many factors influencing the conditions of Myanmar migrant workers in Thailand, Thai migration management and social welfare policies, and the impact they have on Myanmar migrant workers.

The article draws on relevant research and reports as well as interviews with a number of Myanmar migrant workers, although the number interviewed is not given. The interviews were carried out at International Organization for Migration outreach events (the author was an intern at IOM Bangkok in 2005) and during field visits in a number of neighbourhoods, workplaces, community centres and ethnic enclaves in Thailand. The interviews and field visits were used to supplement the existing literature on Myanmar migrant workers in Thailand.

The research highlights the plight of Myanmar migrant workers in Thailand and their vulnerability to exploitation and abuse at the hands of their Thai employers and Thai authorities. The author criticizes Thai migration management policy and social welfare policy and the implementation of these policies



to the detriment of many Myanmar migrant workers whom the policies are designed to protect and support. Registration as a migrant worker is expensive and is often beyond the means of many migrant workers, which means that many of them migrate to Thailand by irregular channels. Employers sometimes pay for the registration and use this as a form of debt bondage against the workers. Migrants often simply go unregistered and work irregularly because they cannot afford to pay for registration. In addition, access to health services and education is often difficult for many Myanmar migrant workers because of their irregular migrant status. Push-pull factors for migration are discussed, including better economic opportunity in Thailand, a gap in the Thai low-skilled employment sector and ongoing political unrest and poverty in Myanmar. The article does not directly contribute knowledge on migrant smuggling.

**Yun, G. and Poisson, V. (2005). *Le trafic et l'exploitation des immigrants Chinois en France*. Geneva: Bureau International du Travail.**

**Key words:**

China

Concepts, Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Profiles of irregular migrants, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Smuggling, Trafficking flows

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

European countries are increasingly concerned about the problem of irregular Chinese migration and the difficult conditions that they encounter in the destination country. At the same time, there are few studies that examine Chinese migration to Europe, including methods of recruitment and working conditions. In 2003, the International Labour Organization undertook research on contemporary forms of slavery in France. The focus of the study was the population of Chinese migrants in this country, one of the largest in Europe. The study built on a previous report by one of the authors written on the broader topic of Chinese migrants

and forced labour in Europe. The study focused on newly arrived migrants who work in several sectors of the underground economy: manufacturing, catering, construction and leather working. The research confirmed that their irregular status and thus their vulnerability was a main factor leading to their involvement in those sectors.

The report first outlines definitions and the research methodology. The authors present an overview and analysis of what they consider to be the most reliable quantitative and qualitative secondary research on Chinese migrants in France. The analysis includes data collected by the International Organization for Migration, the French Office for the Protection of Refugees and Stateless Persons and the French Ministry of the Interior as well as independent researchers. Data stems from participant observation and 59 semi-structured interviews with government authorities, independent researchers, irregular Chinese migrants and NGOs. Nine case studies were also developed, which included one broker and eight irregular migrants.

The report then follows the migratory path of Chinese migrants, including the push factors for migration, methods for entry and routes of migration. The conditions upon arrival in the host country are also discussed, such as working conditions, the need to repay debts and fear due to their irregular status. Drawing on the case studies, the qualitative approach provides valuable insights into irregular migration and trafficking from China to Europe. The final sections examine French policies and legislation related to migration.

**Yun, G., Levy, F. and Poisson, V. (2006). *De la migration au travail: L'exploitation extrême des Chinois-e-s à Paris*. In: *Travail, Genre et Sociétés*, 16, pp. 53–74.**

**Key words:**

China

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Human and social costs of smuggling, Irregular migration, Profiles of irregular migrants, Profiles of smuggled migrants, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

Drawing upon a number of different empirical research studies, this article highlights the vulnerability of irregular Chinese migrants in France. Two regional groups are examined in particular, migrants from North China and migrants from Zhejiang and Dongbei provinces. The authors argue that the vulnerability of these groups is characterized by three elements: their irregular status, their debts incurred and isolation (due to language barriers, their lack of education, a fear of eviction and a lack of understanding of French society). The article offers information about the push-pull factors that influence a Chinese person to migrate irregularly and why an irregular migrant chooses to stay in France at all costs. Trapped in an irregular situation, irregular migrants find it impossible to secure a legal work permit to pay back their debts. The only alternative is unauthorized work within the Chinese community. The authors illustrate how Chinese employers exploit irregular migrants, profiting from their vulnerability. In conclusion, the authors stress how current legislative measures do little to protect the exploitation of migrants in France.

**Yun, G. and Poisson, V. (2010). Exploitation of Chinese migrants' vulnerabilities in France. In: G. Yun (ed.), *Concealed chains: Labour exploitation and Chinese migrants in Europe*. Geneva: International Labour Organization (Vol. 1).**

**Key words:**

China

Factors that fuel irregular migration, Fees and payment for smuggling, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Profiles of irregular migrants, Routes, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This book chapter explores the situation regarding forced labour and possible trafficking in persons in France, based on empirical research. The aim of the research was to identify the circumstances that promote the practice of labour exploitation of Chinese migrants in France.

The chapter is based on a field survey and qualitative studies and research. The field survey included semi-structured interviews with 59 migrants from the Chinese provinces of Zhejiang, Dongbei and Fujian. In addition, interviews with 20 experts in the field of Chinese migration were conducted. According to the authors, this approach enabled them to obtain first-hand information and to compare migrants' accounts, official reports and academic discourse. The purpose of the interviews was to expand the knowledge about the factors that create a situation of vulnerability for Chinese migrant workers, abusive practices used by employers and the different challenges faced by policymakers and law enforcement agencies.

The research found that Chinese migrants reach their destination country by direct flight, by using a visa or a combination of genuine and forged documents and/or via an overland route, which often passes through a number of countries. The journey often lasts many months and involves various means of transport. Most migrants are aware of the risks, but smugglers who have provided efficient service are well known and respected. The research pointed to different organizational relationships, ranging from smuggling by relatives and friends to transportation by internationally operating crime groups. Organizers are involved in all stages of the smuggling process. Sometimes the agreed fee is increased during travel, and migrants may be held in detention en route until their debts have been paid. According to the research, the repayment period for migrants in France is likely to be from three to ten years. However, one of the case studies shows that repayment of debt can take much longer. The research found that all migrants from Zhejiang were in debt. In some cases, the migrants, unable to pay, had to work under exploitive conditions with their wages withheld.

The authors note that Chinese crime gangs are developing in parallel with organized irregular migration in France and that Chinese prostitution increased considerably with the arrival of migrants from Dongbei. Chinese migrants in France experience harsh working conditions. The garment industry, for example, has implemented a system that uses an extremely flexible labour force, which can work up to 20 hours a day to produce goods within a very short

time. Employers also adopt strategies to avoid inspections and checks, including moving production into workers' homes. Additionally, a complex system of multiple subcontracts serves to protect employers from labour responsibilities and makes it nearly impossible for law enforcement agents to trace the real employers responsible for exploiting the most vulnerable groups.

The chapter provides first-hand insights on migrant smuggling, despite its focus on forced labour. It makes extensive use of case studies and interview excerpts, which provide valuable insight into the methods of smuggling operations, the financing of the journey and the possible risks while in transit. It also provides information on the sending regions, migrants' motivation to migrate and highlights the vulnerabilities as well as life and work experiences of Chinese irregular migrants in France.

**Zhang, S. X. and Chin, K. (2004). *Characteristics of Chinese human smugglers*. Washington, D.C.: US Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice. Retrieved from [www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/204989.pdf](http://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/204989.pdf) (accessed 16 January 2012).**

***Key words:***

China

Fees and payment for smuggling, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Profile of smugglers, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling

***Research methods used:***

Mixed

***Summary:***

This report explores the operational and organizational characteristics of Chinese migrant smuggling organizations operating between China and the United States. A "smuggler" in this report is defined as anyone who, for a fee, facilitates unauthorized entry into the United States.

The research drew on data collected from formal and informal face-to-face interviews with self-identified smugglers residing either in China or the United States. Primary sites for data collection were New York, Los Angeles and Fuzhou city in the Chinese

province of Fujian. A total of 129 interviews were conducted, of which 89 per cent were formal, semi-structured interviews. The focus of the interviews was to gain knowledge about organizational and operational characteristics of Chinese migrant smuggling.

The authors conclude that Chinese migrant smugglers come from diverse backgrounds and form temporary business alliances with little hierarchical organization. Despite this, the research revealed that specialization and division of labour was well developed among smugglers and that the smuggling process was composed of a series of one-on-one networks, each contributing to the goal of landing clients in the United States. The research also found that smugglers do not perceive themselves as criminals but rather as businesspeople providing a valuable service to their communities.

According to the authors, their inability to find a connection between migrant smugglers and traditional organized crime could be related to their sampling strategy. It is thus possible that the full range of smugglers may not be represented by the research because subjects were identified through personal contacts and the snowball sampling technique.

The report provides insights into the profiles of smugglers, types of arrangements and business structures, roles of actors within the network, the power structure and the links to government officials.

**Zhang, S. X., Chin, K. L. and Miller, J. (2007). *Women's participation in Chinese transnational human smuggling: A gendered market perspective*. In: *Criminology*, 45(3), pp. 699–733.**

***Key words:***

China

Human social costs smuggling, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Profiles of smugglers, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling

***Research method used:***

Mixed

**Summary:**

According to the authors, despite extensive sociological research on gender and organizations, criminologists have paid insufficient attention to how the organizational context and market demand may shape the extent and nature of women's participation in illicit enterprises. Their study used an organizational framework to examine the case of Chinese migrant smuggling to the United States and the involvement of women.

The authors use the enterprise model of criminal organization, which suggests adaptive and flexible networks that can easily react to the uncertainties of the illicit market. They propose a "gendered market perspective" as a theoretical framework for understanding the nature of women's participation and their place within Chinese migrant smuggling enterprises. The authors base this model on three prerequisites for women's entry into the smuggling organization (social connections, entrepreneurial spirit and the compatibility with cultural expectations of women) and on a set of market conditions, which according to the authors have reduced the traditional gender barriers commonly found in organized criminal activities.

A "human smuggler" is defined as anyone who participates in assisting a person to enter a country (in this case the United States) irregularly for a fee.

The paper draws on data from interviews with 129 individuals (including 106 men and 29 women) who were directly or indirectly involved in organizing and transporting Chinese nationals into the United States. The researchers recruited study subjects through their personal contacts and those of their research assistants. The interviews were conducted in New York, Los Angeles and Fuzhou city (China) and included informal as well as formal face-to-face interviews, based on a set of semi-structured and open-ended questions. The interviews were conducted to gain knowledge about the participation of women in Chinese migrant smuggling and to compare the backgrounds, entry requirements and roles of men and women in migrant smuggling organizations.

The researchers conclude that although migrant smuggling operations are still predominately a male enterprise, certain factors create market niches that some women may use to their advantage. These fac-

tors include the limited place of violence and turf as organizing features of migrant smuggling, the importance of interpersonal networks in defining and facilitating smuggling operations, gender ideologies about work and care giving and the impact of safety as an overriding concern for clients. The findings of this research suggest that organizational and market contexts are significant explanations for gender stratification in illicit enterprises.

Due to the use of snowball sampling, the researchers do not claim precise knowledge of the gender distribution of migrant smugglers. After all, women constituted only 18 per cent of the sample. The researchers argue that although women are clearly in the minority in the study, the findings suggest greater involvement by women in migrant smuggling than is found in other illicit enterprises, including traditional organized crime.

The paper provides valuable insights on how women enter the smuggling business and their roles in the business. It discusses market conditions and emerging opportunities for women and explains their impact on the smuggling industry.

**Zhang, S. X. (2007). *Smuggling and trafficking in human beings: All roads lead to America*. Westport, Connecticut [USA]: Praeger Publishers.**

**Key words:**

China

Fees and payments, Irregular Migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Qualitative

**Summary:**

This book presents research on how profit-oriented migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons activities into the United States are carried out and explores the legal and policy challenges for counter-measures. It aimed to provide a criminological analysis of the strategies employed to gain unauthorized entry into the United States. The research emphasized the organized and business nature of unauthorized entries facilitated by enterprising agents.

Data sources include published government and non-government agency reports, academic studies, news media reports and personal interviews with irregular migrants, migrant smugglers and law enforcement representatives. Information on the sample size or selection is not provided.

The book begins with an overview of the scope and patterns of global migration and migrant smuggling activities. It describes some of strategies and methods employed by various groups to bring individuals into the United States through authorized channels, such as marriage fraud and temporary visas.

The book further addresses the acquisition of identification documents by smugglers. Acquiring a passport is an elaborate and cautious process, which involves scouting, approaching, persuading, negotiating and purchasing. Moreover, it is an ongoing process, with Chinese smugglers constantly looking for prospective sellers and buyers.

The book also examines migrant smuggling through unauthorized entry channels (in contrast to “legal” channels, such as visa overstaying) and describes three major smuggling strategies: overland, maritime and by air. Chinese smugglers, for example, have changed their seafaring strategies. Instead of landing migrants directly on US mainland shores, they often drop their clients at peripheral locations, such as US territories in the Pacific or Mexico or Canada, hoping to gain entrance through a series of land-and-ocean relays.

One chapter of the book is dedicated to the rise and fall of the most famous female Chinese migrant smuggler known as Sister Ping, who built a smuggling empire stretching to different parts of the world. The book shows that female smugglers are not uncommon in Chinese migrant smuggling activities.

Migrant smuggling as a business is a further topic of the study. Drawing on original research on Chinese migrant smugglers conducted in a prior study by the author, this chapter describes general patterns regarding the individuals involved in the business and their organizational and operational attributes. The author argues that most migrant smugglers are enterprising agents who form groups with loose memberships and limited command structure.

The book also deals with the phenomenon of trafficking in women and children, particularly for sexual exploitation. In addition to discussing the different aspects of trafficking in persons, such as causes, the role of corruption and the business side of trafficking, the book presents two case studies to illustrate how Korean sex traffickers operate in the United States. Referring to the organization and execution, the book claims that few human traffickers come close to the level of sophistication of Korean sex traffickers.

The study discusses the nexus of terrorism and organized crime, including migrant smuggling. According to the author, organized criminal activities possess the optimal structural and operational facilities for terrorist activities. The author argues that the unauthorized movements from countries with links to Islamic extremists are likely to present opportunities to terrorist groups to place members into targeted countries.

The last chapter of this book discusses issues and challenges of combating migrant smuggling. It looks at two basic approaches used to halt migrant smuggling activities, from the perspective of the United States: macro-level changes initiated by the US Government and tactical or micro-level strategies devised and implemented by law enforcement agencies.

The book focuses on different aspects of migrant smuggling into the United States. It also provides good information on Chinese migrant smuggling organizations and their activities. This book highlights how various smuggling and trafficking activities into the United States are carried out and explores policy challenges in combating the problem.

**Zhang, S. X. (2008). *Chinese human smuggling organizations: Families, social networks and cultural imperatives*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.**

**Key words:**

China

Concepts, Factors that fuel irregular migration, Irregular migration, Modus operandi of smuggling, Organization of smuggling, Profiles of smugglers, Smuggler-migrant relationship, Smuggling

**Research method used:**

Mixed

**Summary:**

The research for this book had two objectives: first, to expose the inner workings of Chinese migrant smuggling organizations based on empirical data and second, to conduct a conceptual analysis to explain the process by which ordinary individuals have been able to turn migrant smuggling into a global business.

The book focuses on migrant smuggling and differentiates the terms “trafficking in persons” and “migrant smuggling” according to the respective Trafficking in Persons Protocol and Migrant Smuggling Protocol.

The author introduces the “dyadic cartwheel network” framework, explaining small group transactions and smugglers’ ability to thrive in a hostile and uncertain market environment. According to this, smugglers’ relations with each other are secretive and entail mostly one-on-one (dyadic) transactions. Each individual smuggler develops and maintains an additional circle of clandestine and dyadic contacts and resources. The book places this approach within the context of the “corporate model” and the “enterprise model”. The book demonstrates three advantages of such an organizational structure: business contracts are of verbal rather than written nature due to the shared origin and language of the core members (such as the Fuzhou dialect); information gathering and sharing is fast paced, due to the groups’ small size; and the dyadic “cartwheel” network provides a higher level of security for its members because of the restricted flow of information and the limited contact with other members along the smuggling chain.

The book draws on findings based on prior research conducted by the author and a co-researcher as well as researchers from China, including interviews with 129 Chinese smugglers. Data on organizational and operational characteristics of Chinese migrant smuggling was gathered in New York, Los Angeles and Fuzhou city (China). Multiple data collection strategies were employed, including face-to-face interviews, field observation and researching government documents and press reports. The book points out several limitations in the data-collecting methods: First, the

research team gained access to information mainly through personal connections, which may have resulted in systematically biased findings; second, the organizational characteristics of Chinese smuggling groups presented in the book derive from the data collected from individual smugglers who were not all part of the same organization; and last, the researchers could not rule out dishonest information provided by the interviewees, despite personal contacts.

The book identifies three basic prerequisites for forming a transnational Chinese migrant smuggling organization: an existing market demand, a tight social network and an opportunity to build a relationship with other smugglers (each oriented towards specific tasks, such as client recruiter, document vendor, transfer organizer or payment collector).

Additionally, the book describes the main operational and organizational features, based on the empirical research results. According to this, most migrant smuggling groups consist of a smaller group of peers arranged in simple hierarchies. Transactions among smugglers are mostly one on one. Migrant smugglers typically participate in smuggling activities on a part-time basis, and most of them have legitimate businesses apart from their smuggling activities. Control over crucial resources determines the degree of authority (influence on the direction and pace of a smuggling operation) within a smuggling organization. Smuggling operations involve highly differentiated and specialized roles, which cannot be easily duplicated or eliminated. Smugglers make extensive use of corrupt officials. Being dependant on the availability of clients and the socio-legal conditions of the market, smuggling organizations are mostly of a fluid and temporary nature.

The book provides valuable insights into the socio-demographic characteristics of migrant smugglers and their business operations. It describes strategies and methods used by smugglers to recruit and prepare their clients. Information on smuggling activities in transit is provided. The book reveals the profits made by smugglers and highlights the role of female smugglers in the business, which traditionally has been dominated by men. Migrant smuggling’s links to traditional Chinese organized crime is also examined. Finally, the author discusses the future of migrant smuggling and provides recommendations for policymaking.

The book offers first-hand insight into Chinese smuggling organizations, illustrated by numerous case studies and, moreover, provides a new model to explain migrant smuggling operations.







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