Trafficking in Human Beings in Global Age: A Case Study of Turkey

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Abstract

With the dissolution of the Soviet Union and the end of the monolithic international structure, asymmetric threats raised to the top of the agenda of the international community. Among them, trafficking in human beings has become one of the main issues threatening the security of the Western countries. Due to the fact that trafficking in human beings is now regarded as a modern form of slavery and constitutes one of the major crimes in international law, several studies have been conducted analysing the issue. These studies have been designed within a general framework and lacked to cover case studies on country-basis. Within this context, this article aims to analyse Turkey's approach and policies in relation with the trafficking in human beings issue. Since Turkey is a transit, destination and origin country of migration, the root causes and the dimensions of the problem for Turkey and Turkey's strategy to cope with the issue will set forth meaningful data and enable a better understanding.

Keywords*: Human trafficking, origin, transit, destination, push-pull factors, triggers*

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Introduction

Despite the abolishment of slavery in the 19th century, trafficking in human beings (THB) existed as a modern form of slavery and constituted one of the most degrading types of crime in the history of humanity. Particularly, following the fall of 'iron curtain', migratory flows have escalated unprecedentedly owing to more freedom of mobility across the globe (UNDP, 2004). However, high level risks and negative consequences of these movements have been experienced when many migrants have fallen into the networks of human traffickers. Therefore, human trafficking is interpreted both as an issue of paramount importance and as one of the "dark" sides of globalisation (Foot, 2010; Hu 2011; Ramo, 2011). Since this international crime is one of the most significant and multifaceted problems in global age, the region and country specific (case) study is necessary for a meaningful analysis. To this end, this paper aims at examining THB in Turkey which needs to take action to properly manage migratory flows. The Turkish case is to provide critical data for a better understanding.

In the citation index of UNODC (2006) Turkey ranks *medium risk* as an origin, *high risk* as a transit and *very high risk* as a destination country. Firstly, Turkish women and transgender persons are victims of sex trafficking especially within the country. Secondly, since it is a *transit zone* for a large number of irregular migrants and asylum seekers from the Central Asia, Middle East, and Slavic countries, it plays a pivotal role as "an accessory after the fact" of the THB in Western prosperity. Finally, as a destination country of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) and Central Asian countries, Turkey case can illustrate how political instability, economic hardship and family problems give rise to the *feminization of migration* which means that mostly women population migrates to Turkey in order to create better living conditions for themselves and their families.

The main premise of this paper is that since Turkey is located at the intersection of migratory flows in all main directions, it might be quite ideal

case to assess the implications of globalisation regarding THB problem in a particular country. In accordance with that premise, after defining human trafficking and briefly mentioning its extent at a global level, the first part of this essay seeks to evaluate the THB in Turkey by looking at its scope, reasons and patterns. Also, it provides supporting data to ensure better understanding of changing trends. The following part evaluates how Turkey has dealt with THB and how its attempts have been interpreted by other actors. Moreover, after drawing lessons from current attempts of a particular country, this part proposes suggestions to cope with that world-embracing problem. Clearly, both sections reflect numerous hallmarks of globalisation, so last part of the study refers back to the correlation between globalisation and THB.

1. Definition and the scope of THB

Human Trafficking is defined in the Palermo Protocol (2010, Article 3a) as:

> (…) *the recruitment*, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, *by means of* the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, *for the purpose of* exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs.

Taking note of this definition, it is noticeable that there are three main components of human trafficking namely: the act, the means and the purpose. Since all of these elements are under the influence of globalisation, human traffickers reaped the benefits of it to exploit the ones that impoverished and marginalised during the process of global economy.

In a detailed way, as Shelley (2010, p. 44) mentions while unforeseen economic problems of global economy can be mitigated by the wealthy in the developed or developing world, citizens of poor countries come across catastrophe "as the cost of basic necessities multiplies, leading to starvation or untenable debt, conditions ripe for exploitation by human traffickers". Thus, macro level economic inequality accounts for the major cause of THB worldwide.

To delineate the severity of the THB problem, International Labour Organisation (ILO) is estimated that 2.4 million human trafficking victims are in forced labour which includes prostitution, organ trafficking, forced marriage, domestic work, begging and alike. Moreover, although the data gathered appears to be deceptive or sketchy due to the illicit nature of the phenomena, a great deal of studies has been conducted to attract people's attention to the issue. To exemplify, Organisation of Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE), the US State Department, International Organisation for Migration (IOM), and many others, have referred to the migration of a steadily expanding number of people from the former Soviet Union countries to Europe, the Middle East, and South East Asia (UNDP, 2004).

Since Turkey is seen as a passage for European sex industry, mentioning this dimension might also depict the large extent of the problem. UNODC Report on Globalisation of Crime (2010) indicates that approximately 70.000 new victims are annually flowing from Balkans and Slavic Countries to Central and Western Europe as sex trafficking victims and the value of the sex exploitation market is about US$3 billion per year (see Table 1). In sum, high level profit illustrates that it is a serious matter and the role of Turkey should be examined as an area of priority.

TABLE 1: Dimensions of Human Trafficking for Sex Exploitation to the Europe	
Annual flow of new victims:	*About 70,000 victims*
Volume of market (stock):	*About 140,000 victims*
Value of market (stock):	*US$3 billion per year*
Traffickers: Western European, Balkan, Eastern European, North African, *Turkish*, Nigerian and Chinese groups	

* Source: The UNODC '*The Globalization of Crime Report*' 2010 [emphasis added]

2. The Ambit, Root Causes& Patterns of THB in Turkey

Since the very beginning, human trafficking is seen as highly-associated with sex trade of women and, more currently children, and less-correlated with slavish exploitation in the labour market (Goodey 2008,p. 422). It was the case for Turkey either, so the THB in Turkey is predominantly assessed in the form of sex trafficking in the legal literature. Due to this tendency, this section begins by explaining macro level historical root causes of sex trafficking and then goes on dividing them into three groups: *push factors,pull factors* and *triggers* of the system (see Table 2).

Table 2

Push factors at home	Pull factors of Turkey	Triggers
Economic Reasons: Inadequate employment , poverty, inequality, low level of income	Short distance to the Middle East, Central Asia, CIS countries: established migration route to Western prosperity	Lenient border policy of Turkey & plenty of illegal migration ways: 5000 miles of seacoast, numerous inlets
Political Reasons: corruption, internal conflicts, instability, oppressive regimes	High demand for sex workers	Non-existence of reliable information about the realities of THB
Social Reasons: social unrest, high crime levels, ineffective law enforcement, insecurity	Political stability and relative economic prosperity : (e.g., GDP per capita in Turkey was eight times higher that of Moldova (2006, World Bank Report)	Globalisation: ease of transportation& communication, cutting-edge technology
Educational and Cultural Reasons: Discrimination, under-education	Cultural similarities: Especially for Turkic countries	Foreign remittances and stories of success

To evaluate macro level economic reasons of THB, Harris and Todaro (1970) assessed the migration issue as a response to unequal distribution of income, capital and labour. Furthermore, Shelley (2010) and Aronowitz (2009) mentioned an extensive number of reasons for the THB in a global perspective namely: uneven development, political instability, domestic violence, demographic and economic inequality, expanding economic competitiveness, tourism, ease of communication and transportation, freedom of movement and so forth. Hence, the combination of these factors with the boons of globalisation gave rise to high level immigration to Turkey.

Although the existence of THB, under the title of *White Slave Traffic[3]*, dates back to the early beginning of the 20th century, literature highlights the unforeseen economic and geographic shifts as breakthrough in human trafficking trends such as the collapse of the USSR, Yugoslav Wars, the integration of China into the global economy and so forth (Kale 2006; UNODC 2010;Demir&Finckenauer 2010).The rationale behind mentioning these shifts is that prevailing demolition regarding political turmoil, social unrest, ethnic clashes and poverty brings about a very large group of needy people who are open to be entrapped and exploited by false promises. For this reason, THB turned out to be a more intriguing problem in Turkey unsurprisingly right after the collapse of the Soviet Union as a great number of vulnerable people was searching for better life standards.

Following the sudden dissolution of the Soviet Union, newly emerged autonomous regions like Chechnya, Nagorno-Karabakh sought independence and since the 1990s more than sixty domestic and local conflicts have occurred there (Shelley 2010, p. 38). As former states of the Soviet Union, they are in the vicious circle of poverty and despair. For this reason, Turkey is seen by them as "an engine of relative prosperity" (Lindstrom 2005, p. 39). In other words, as Aronowitz (2009, p12) claims
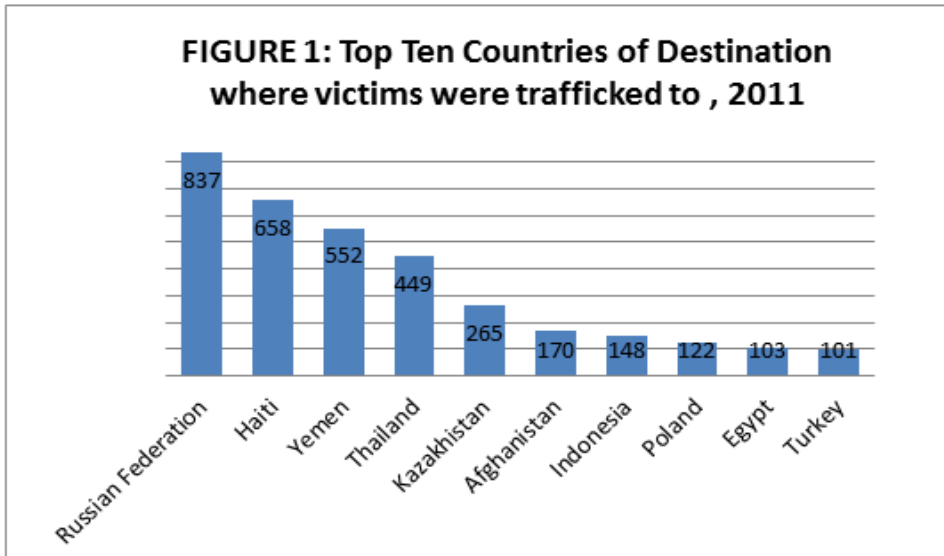
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[3] International Agreement for the Suppression of White Slave Traffic signed in 1904, and entered into force in 1905.

that migratory flows have been fuelled by economic hardship in Asia, Central and Eastern Europe and Russia. Consequently, devastating effects of the process pushed many people into sex industry in Turkey. Also, after comparing economic well-being of Turkey with source countries, Chief of Mission at IOM pointed out that " Turkey has enormous economic potential, and even for an illegal immigrant earning USD 300-400 per month, that is better than the USD 50-100 they would be lucky to earn at home" (Lindstrom 2005, p 41).

İçduygu andToktaş (2002) draw attention to two crucial facets of Turkey case to explore the nature of that paradigm namely: its prolonged emigration connection with Europe and its huge rate of irregular migration from Middle East to Europe. The first aspect is not valid at present since Turkey has shifted from being a country of emigration to the country of immigration (Kirişçi, 2003). Also, the emigration from Turkey to Europe can generally be seen in the form of *brain drain* today rather than the other forms of migration (Güngör&Tansel, 2007). However, second crucial aspect of Turkey case might represent how geographical, cultural and historical reasons have become the root causes.

In fact, throughout the history transit migrants from Asia (e.g., Bangladesh, Pakistan), Africa (e.g., Somalia, Nigeria, Democratic Republic of Congo) and Middle East (e.g., Iran, Syria, Iraq) have taken the use of Turkey's geostrategic advantage as an *en route* to reach the Western world (İçduygu& Toktaş,2002). In addition, the citizens of Eastern European countries like Romanian, Moldovan, Ukrainian, and so on, have come to Turkey as sex workers, labour migrants or domestic workers (İçduygu&Toktaş 2002; Demir&Finchkenauer 2010).Thus, Turkey's proximity to Asia, Africa, and the Middle East has provided a gateway to Western Europe and its relative economic welfare has led to the migration of many foreigners. Correspondingly, IOM (2011) pointed out that Turkey became the tenth highest human trafficking destination country in 2011 (see figure 1).

FIGURE 1: Top Ten Countries of Destination where victims were trafficked to , 2011

Russian Federation: 837
Haiti: 658
Yemen: 552
Thailand: 449
Kazakhstan: 265
Afghanistan: 170
Indonesia: 148
Poland: 122
Egypt: 103
Turkey: 101

*Source: IOM Trafficking Case Data 2011

Cultural closeness was another pull factor specifically for "those coming from Turkic countries in which Turkish language is spoken, such as Turkmenistan; Azerbaijan; the Kyrgyz Republic; Kazakhstan; Uzbekistan, and some parts of Russian Federation (Dagestan), Georgia(Abkhazia), Bulgaria and Moldova (Gagauzia)"(Demir&Finchkenauer 2010 p.76). As an officer points out that Turkey is familiar to many origin countries owing to cultural resonance between them (Demir&Finchkenauer, 2010).

In order to investigate the patterns of THB in Turkey, an interesting research done by Demir&Finchkenauer. They analysed police recorded interviews of 430 human trafficking victims who had been interviewed from 2004 to 2007. Then, they stated that Moldovan, Ukrainian and Russian victims account for 60 percent of total number, more than half of victims only have secondary or less education and 65 percent of the victims are younger than 26 years old (Demir&Finchkenauer, 2010). This study also pointed out that half of victims' intent was to get employed in domestic work and about one third of them voluntarily came for prostitution; however, even if they seek sex work intentionally, they were not able to

work independently without falling into the trafficker's network (Demir&Finchkenauer, 2010). Thereby, this study demonstrates that the networks of human traffickers are really well-developed and Turkey, as a connection point of three continents, has great potential for THB especially for inexperienced, less educated, younger women coming from Slavic countries.

In addition, literature divides root causes of migration into two: push and pull factors and does not mention about triggers. However, despite the blurring distinction between the pull factors and triggers, identification of them might give new ideas for the solution of this problem. Put it differently, as it is easier to eliminate or mitigate the implications of triggers rather than push factors, long-term solution to this problem might be facilitated by the recognition and distinction of triggers. To illustrate, provision of equal development might be very hard to achieve in the first phase; however, if reliable information about the realities of THB is given to potential victims through awareness programmes, then it could be a very effective deterrence for them.

Clearly, triggers may not be real reasons of migration decision alone, yet they can facilitate and initiate to take that decision. Moreover, they can be in many forms such as soft visa requirements, foreign remittances of former migrants, lack of trustworthy information regarding migration facts, the abundance of illegal migration ways, stories of success, acquaintances in potential destination country and so forth.

2.1. Data: 'Tip of the Iceberg'

After covering root causes and patterns of THB in Turkey to give some supporting statistical data about them might help to reify this problem. Nevertheless, statistical data about the number of human trafficking victims unfortunately reflects just a small portion of reality because most of the time victims are not eager to identify themselves as human trafficking victims (Karstedt, 2013). In other words, since they live

in destination country illegally they are afraid of being deported after getting caught (Karstedt, 2013).

Moreover, human trafficking and human smuggling embodies "separate but not completely separable issues" (Kale 2006, p.127). Due to this reason, Turkish public institutions generally prefer publishing the data about the number of operations conducted to fight against human smuggling and human trafficking together without making any distinction between them. To exemplify, Turkish General Directorate of Security Affairs activity report (2012) presents that in 2012, 318 operations have been conducted to combat against human trafficking and human smuggling. They have taken legal action for 960 organisers and 2,463 illegal migrants by these operations. However, this report mentioned 45 human trafficking offenses without specifying the number of victims. Since small numbers of identified victims do not depict the real statistics, data obtained is not enough to delineate the real extent of the problem.
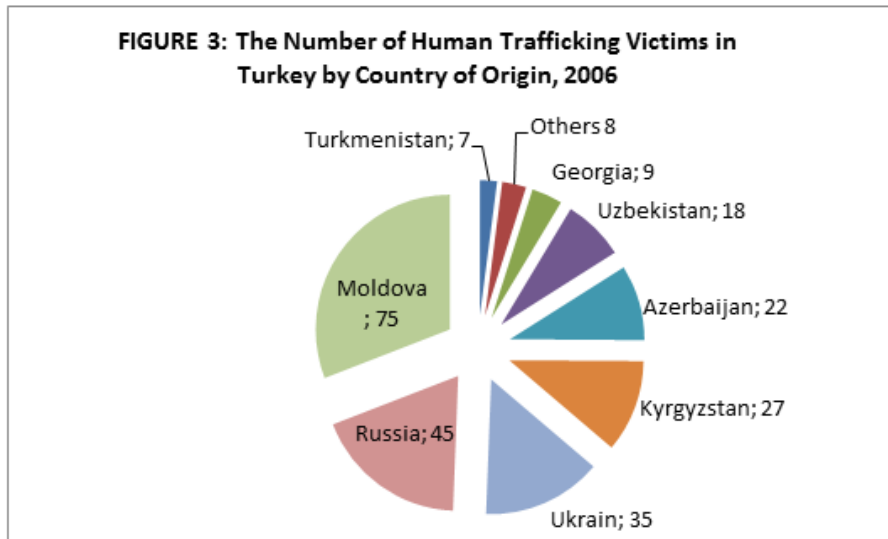
Although the data is fallacious or insufficient, they can be quite useful to understand changing trends. For this reason, this study lays out the number of human trafficking victims identified from2004 to 2011as well (see Figure 2). The line graph reveals that the number of victims identified was by far the highest in 2005, including 256 victims. There was a substantial decline in the number of victims over the period from 2005 to 2010 and the highest difference between the years is occurred between 2006 and 2007. Even if there is a slight increase in the number from 2010 to 2011, around 82 victims are identified in 2011, which is approximately three times less than the number of identified victims in 2005. At this point, an important question has to be posed: Why is the number of victims decreasing in recent years? In fact, pull factors of Turkey have not differed much; however, there are other variables in play such as better law enforcement mechanisms, THB awareness programs to potential victims and increased the livelihood at home (UNODC, 2010).

The UNODC report on Globalisation of Crime (2010) draws attention to the fact that specifically after 2007 nationality of victims in Turkey is shifted from Russian, Ukrainian and Moldavian people to Uzbeks and Turkmens. Similarly, Turkish Report on Anti-Smuggling and Organized Crime (2012) indicates that Turkey is a target country for the citizens of Central Asia, the Black Sea and South Caucasus countries and remarkably, the citizens of Central Asian countries account for 73 percent of the total number of victims. To review the evidence of this trend change, this study selects 2 years, 2006 and 2011, and then looks at the distribution of victims of human trafficking with respect to their nationalities (see figure 3 and figure 4).
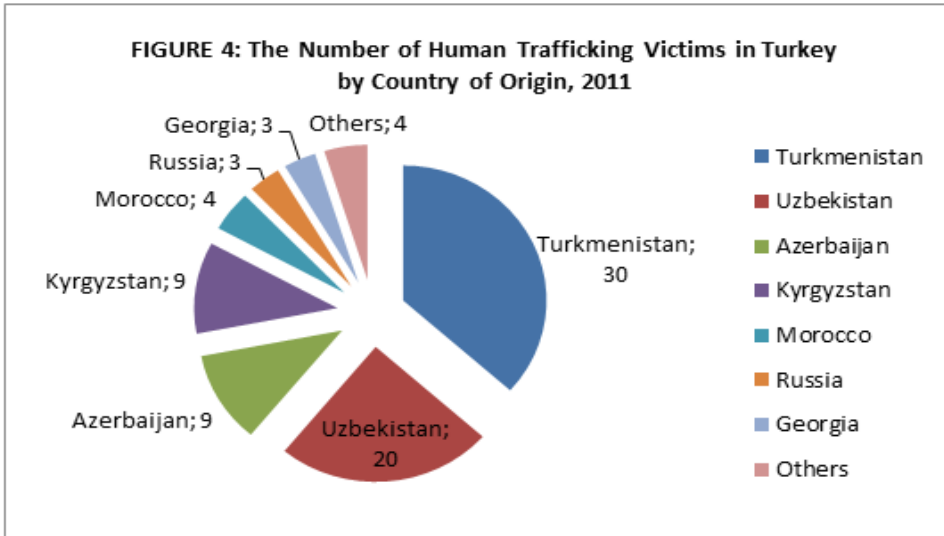
Figures appear to be proving that there is a change in THB pattern in Turkey regarding the country of origin. It might be interpreted as a natural result of increased security cooperation activities between Slavic countries and Turkey. Some country-specific reasons can be explanatory as well. For instance, there was a correlation between the decline in the number of Romanian sex victims in Turkey and the boost in the Romanian GDP following its European Union membership (Demir and Finckenauer 2010). On the other hand, Eurostat does not seem to be convinced by these explanations. Eurostat Report (2013, p 9) states that given data by Turkey do follow an erratic pattern and since the data provided by Turkey is not entirely in compliance with the strict criteria of the European Statistics Code of Practice; they should be interpreted with caution. In fact, Eurostat's critique might be partially reasonable. Therefore, this study also gives the number of illegal immigrants captured all around Turkey between 2007 and 2011(see Figure 5) and claims that a small number of human trafficking victims is unconvincing while thousands of illegal immigrants, although they reflect a small portion of the real amount, have been coming to Turkey throughout the years.
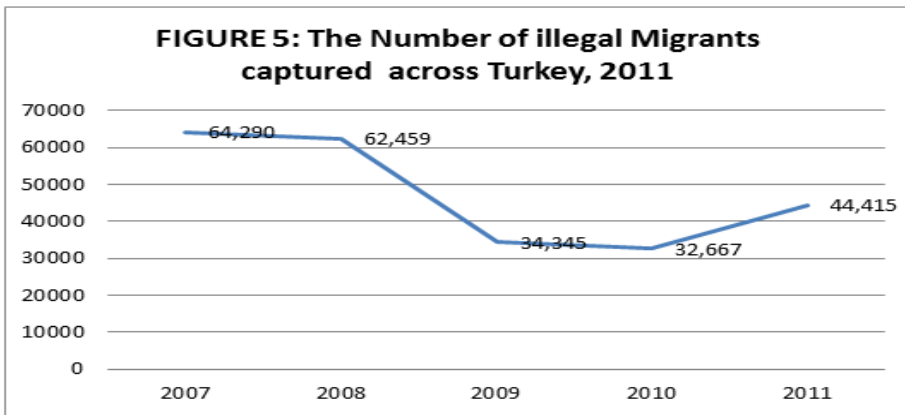
FIGURE 2: The Number of Human Trafficking Victims , 2004-2011
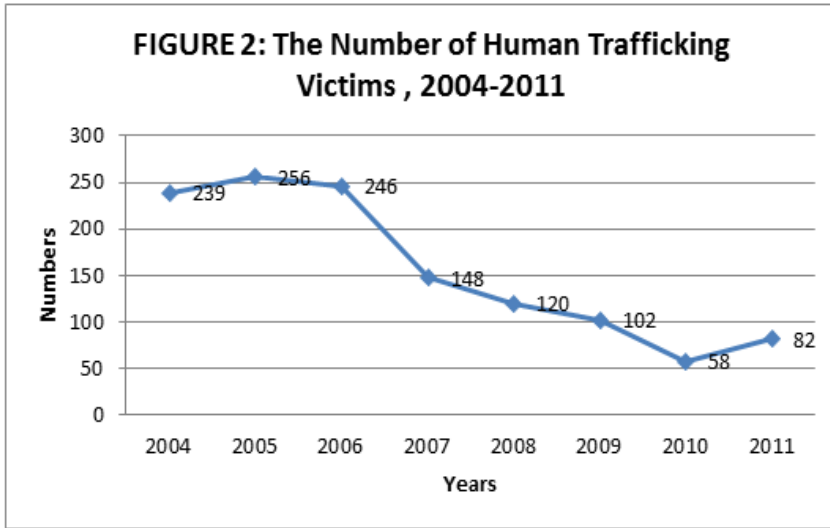
*Source: The Ministry of Foreign Affairs Database, 2007; The Republic of Turkey General Directorate of Security Affairs *'Anti-Smuggling and Organized Crime Report'*, March 2012

FIGURE 3: The Number of Human Trafficking Victims in Turkey by Country of Origin, 2006

*Source: The Ministry of Foreign Affairs Report on Combating Human Trafficking, 2006

FIGURE 4: The Number of Human Trafficking Victims in Turkey by Country of Origin, 2011

Georgia; 3
Russia; 3
Others; 4
Morocco; 4
Kyrgyzstan; 9
Azerbaijan; 9
Turkmenistan; 30
Uzbekistan; 20

- Turkmenistan
- Uzbekistan
- Azerbaijan
- Kyrgyzstan
- Morocco
- Russia
- Georgia
- Others

*Source: Turkish Report of Anti-Smuggling and Organized Crime, March 2012

FIGURE 5: The Number of illegal Migrants captured across Turkey, 2011

64,290 — 62,459 — 34,345 — 32,667 — 44,415

2007 2008 2009 2010 2011

*Source: Turkish National Police Department of Foreigners Border and Asylum, 2011

3. Counter-Trafficking Efforts of Turkey
3.1. Prosecution

New Turkish Penal Code came into force and Article 80 banned both sex-trafficking and forced labour in2005 by stating that "Persons who provide, kidnap or shelter or transfer a person(s) from one place to another

unlawfully and by force…are sentenced to imprisonment from eight to twelve years…" However, Trafficking in Persons Report (2013) criticized Article 80 since it is more about "prohibition of movement" rather than being an explicit manifestation of human trafficking ban.

As figure 6 depicts that the number of convicted traffickers was by far the highest in 2012. In fact, escalated number of offenders charged and convicted under Article 80 could illuminate the well-settled implementation of the current Penal Code. On the other hand, in many cases even if the offenders were previously charged under Article 80, they were convicted under Article 109 (forced imprisonment) or Article 227 (mediation for sex) which imposed softer sentences. Thus, punishments were not regarded as effective deterrents.

FIGURE 6: The Number of Convicted Trafficking Offenders in Turkey
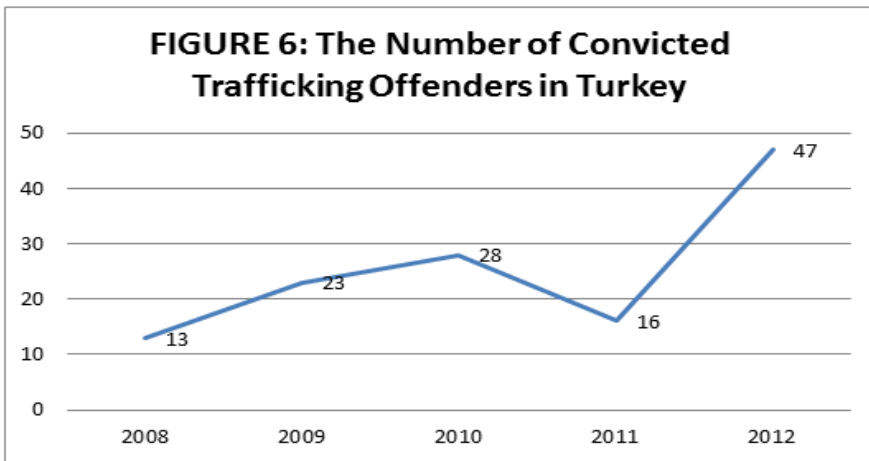
*Data elaborated from the Annual US Department of State Trafficking in Persons Reports

3.2. Protection

Human trafficking victims are in need of protection and assistance in many areas such as adaptation to the new environment, legal counselling, medical support, shelter, translation, the organization for safe returns and so forth (Dündar, 2006). For this reason, governments have to incorporate several new provisions to their working procedures to meet the

needs of victims. Correspondingly, Turkey has issued not only humanitarian visa, might include permission to work, but also a 30-day residence permit by Law No. 6458 on Foreigners and International protection on 4th April 2013 to enable legal stay of victims throughout their rehabilitation period (Official Gazette, 2013).

By the circular of the Ministry of Health, which is in force since 2004, free medical care has been given to human trafficking victims (The Ministry of Foreign Affairs, n.d.). Many attorneys of the Union of Turkish Bar Associations volunteered on providing free legal counselling, and thus judicial advocacy is ensured especially in Istanbul and Ankara shelters (The Ministry of Foreign Affairs, n.d.).Furthermore, Turkey has initiated trainings for its judicial staff and police officers on trafficking identification and many shelters are established as a support centre for victims whose costs are sponsored by NGOs, municipalities and international companies such as Philip Morris (Dündar 2006; Council of Europe 2006).

On the other hand, the US Department of State (2013) stated that there are many hindrances on the way of the effective protection system in Turkey. Firstly, a small number of victims being authorized for legal work because work permit has necessitated finding a sponsor who must prove that there is not any appropriate Turkish citizen for that job. More clearly, only when Secondly, the engagement of victims with criminal prosecution against traffickers was not successful as they were intimidated by defendants. Thirdly, Trafficking in Persons Report (2013) stated that due to lack of regular and permanent funding, two third of the shelters run by NGOs are closed. Finally, this report (2013) draws attention to the fact that despite the training of judicial and executive officials, there are inconsistent applications of these procedures.

3.3. Prevention

Following the establishment of the National Task Force on Combating Trafficking in Human Beings in 2002 by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, both governmental and non-governmental organisations were

incorporated into the framework of this body. Then, the Action Plan was prepared by this unit and the involvement of other sectors and agencies from the NGOs, public, private into the system was also ensured. To exemplify, the Human Resources Development Foundation (HRDF) signed protocols with Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality, the Ministry of Interior General Directorate of Security and General Commandership of Gendarme; an EU Twinning Project on Trafficking in Human Beings was initiated; 770 cases was assisted by IOM from 2000 to 2010 and so forth (Council of Europe 2006; Dündar 2006; IOM 2011).

In addition, Turkey has strived to deal with that problem before the arrival of potential victims to the country, and thus Turkey promoted local help lines in source countries as well as in its own country (157 helpline) in cooperation with IOM; handed out small flyers across airports, seaports and target countries; aired spot programmes on the channels in Turkey, Moldova and Ukraine; and signed bilateral security agreements with origin countries (Council of Europe 2006; Lindstrom 2005). Clearly, Turkey also acts in coordination with many other states to combat against that problem. For instance, it has signed Protocols with Georgia, Ukraine, Kyrgyzstan, Belarus and so on (The Ministry of Foreign Affairs, n.d.). Additionally, to guarantee proper deportation of human trafficking victims, screening process at Sarpi border-crossing point between Georgia and Turkey has been initiated in 2012 (UNECE, n.d.).

According to the US Department of State Report (2013), the Turkish government allocated almost $150.000 as fund to advertise the 157 helpline number on posters in airports, television and the internet. On the other hand, this report stresses that Prostitution for Turkish citizens is legal and under the government control; however, government has not made an effort to decrease the demand for commercial sex.

In conclusion, if Turkey's legal measures, administrative regulations and efforts for local, regional and international cooperation are taken into account, it can be stated that it has at least aimed at combating against THB.

Due to this reason, Turkey has moved from Tier 3 countries to Tier 2 countries with the USA president's declaration in 2003 (Dündar, 2006). However, in spite of the significant efforts and giant strides forward in dealing with THB, Turkey has not adopted the minimum required standards for eradication of THB yet (Lindstrom 2005; US Department of State 2013).

4. Globalisation and THB as an Organised Crime

Even though the scale of convergence between organized crime and THB is uncertain, many scholars have assessed THB as an important component of transnational organized crime and they believed that traffickers are using the same means and routes for human trade as they do for weapons, drugs and so forth (Morrison&Crossland 2001, Lindstrom 2005, Erdal 2008, Oppong 2012). Besides, academic circles have pointed out that THB turns out to be one of the "fastest growing forms of transnational crime worldwide" owing to the dynamics and boons of globalisation (Shelley 2010, p.2). For instance, if root causes of THB are considered, it is clear that globalisation has provided reasonable excuse for that crime "by exacerbating the differences between more or less economically successful or favoured countries" (Nelken 2004, p.377).

To date considerably a large amount of literature has investigated in what ways the traces of globalisation can be found in the nature of organised crime threat. The compromise of criminologists is that as global flows are integrating through transnational networks amongst countries, global forces in play result in harmonization of both crimes and criminal justice across the world (Nelken2004; Aas 2007; Karstedt 2012). Similarly, since THB has emerged as a border-crossing crime, globalisation has scaled up both the extent of the problem and international cooperation to combat against it. Thereby, on the one hand, globalisation has acted as a trigger of the THB, but on the other hand, states have globally shown their commitment to ascertain the protection of the rights of trafficking victims

by emphasising the importance of collaborative efforts both in policy making and operation.

Recently, people are leaving their homelands at an ever-increasing rate by relying on their diasporas and networks and they are able to access information easily regarding real or possible opportunities nearby (IOM 2003; Aronowitz 2009). In this sense, new information technology, the internet and the freedom of mobility play significantly pivotal roles in easing and speeding crime; however, they have as much of a role in preventing THB as well by the means of increased government surveillance and cooperation on international trafficking (Nelken, 2004). Moreover, due to increased interconnectedness and shared feelings of vulnerability, it is widely accepted that the States alone only have a limited protective capacity, so effective response to crime may not be achieved through execution of purely national terms (Nelken 2004; Aas 2007). It does not mean that the States have abstained from "reining in their jurisdictions"; however, they involved in transnational attempts of both law making and law enforcement more than ever (Karstedt 2012, p.347).

Likewise, Turkish authorities adopted a multi-stakeholder approach to promote far reaching counter-trafficking policy worldwide. Since this approach underlines the significance of cooperation amongst International Organisations, NGOs, civil society groups, and governments both on regional and international levels, the adoption of that approach appeared to be a rational decision despite the inadequacies in the implementation.

Consequently, the growth in human trafficking is interpreted as a natural result of "the global failure to manage migration and deal with its root causes" rather than the failure of a country alone (Gallagher 2002, p. 28). However, country-specific recommendations have been increasingly issued as well because the cogency of each country's anti-human trafficking policy constitutes one of the key aspects of global alliances.

Conclusion

As THB is becoming one of the most serious crime types owing to emergence of many facilitators, researchers should separately analyse the idiosyncratic dynamics of it in source, transit and destination countries. After recognizing the unique dynamics of each country regarding THB problem, different strategic roles should be given to them in order to establish properly running system of counter-trafficking. Additionally, distribution of work amongst countries does not only suggest differing courses of actions for the different categories of countries but also emphasises the requisite of collaboration. Similarly, after defining human trafficking as a crime in Penal Code, Turkey has established many governmental and non-governmental organisations which implemented policies under the favour of many other international actors. For instance, proper operation of many shelters has been ascertained by the help of the IOM, municipalities, the HRDF and the UN Trust Fund. Also, Turkey has cooperated with UNHCR and IOM and became a party to international agreements: e.g. Palermo Convention.

Moreover, the attempts of source countries to prevent push factors are of paramount importance. To illustrate, if a source country ensures economic development, which gives the citizens opportunities to earn their life in dignity, then they can be able "to break the legacy of empty promises" (Lindstrom 2005, p.47). At the same time, destination and transit countries should ensure better management of migratory flows, better examination of border crossing points, expansion of targeted public awareness campaigns, larger operational and technical capacities of police officers, international cooperation in terms of intelligence sharing, and more training for judicial authorities and police (Demir&Finckenauer, 2010)

In conclusion, commoditization of people is contrary to worth and dignity of human person and it amounts to not only torture but also many other forms of ill-treatment (OSCE, 2013). For this reason, the international community has widely accepted that failure to prevent the living of people

under modern-day slavery conditions is a shame on the 21st century's world. Additionally, the increased complexity of the issue owing to globalisation has further bred concerns over ever-increasing extent of the THB issue, and therefore a great deal of literature has analysed that problem. In this context, the focus of researches was on the international level to understand the problem in wider settings. However, to cope with this serious problem more effectively, the focus should be country or region-specific. For this reason, the present study set out to research the THB problem in Turkey to illustrate numerous hallmarks of globalisation and complex nexus of human trafficking in a particular country.

Moreover, this study aimed at suggesting a cogent solution to the global problem of THB. At this point, it heightened the importance of giving different strategic roles to each country to ensure an effective division of labour for counter-human trafficking. In this way, source countries are encouraged to concentrate on eliminating push factors while the others are required to take precautions to mitigate the effects of triggers. Taken together, this study might seem to impose disproportionate burden on state. However, the role of states has shifted from *"rowing to steering"* with newly existing and ever increasing international actors, and therefore it might have mechanisms to share its burden (Osborne &Gaelber, 1992). Accordingly, further country or region specific researches should be done by criminologists in this field because findings would be of great help in formulating better anti-trafficking program.

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