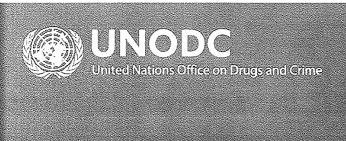
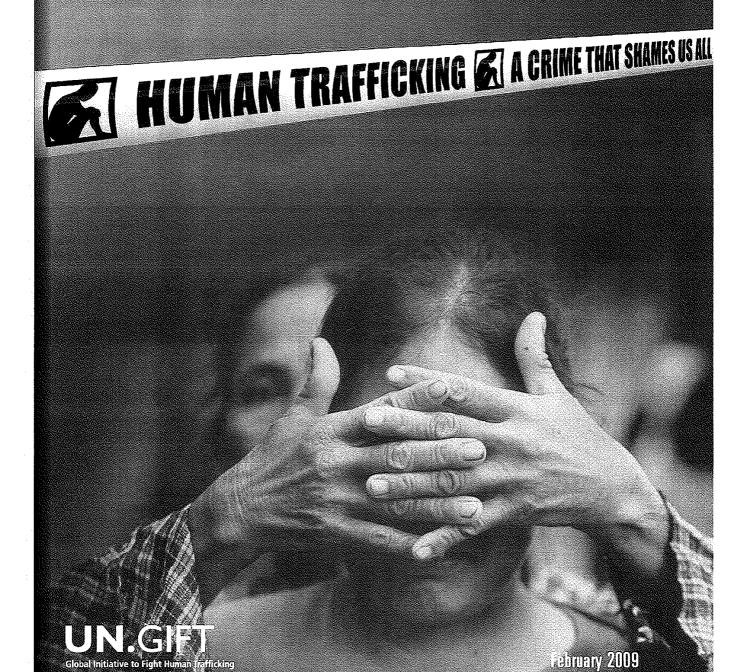
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# Global Report on TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS



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The designations employed and the presentation of the material in this publication do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of the Secretariat of the United Nations concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers and boundaries.

Countries and areas are referred to by the names that were in official use at the time the relevant data were collected.

The following abbreviations have been used in this report:

CIS	Commonwealth of Independent States
CTS	United Nations Surveys of Crime Trends and Operations of Criminal Justice Systems
ECCAS	Economic Community of Central African States
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States

	mindan otates
FBI	Federal Bureau of
	Investigation

HEUNI	European Institute for Crime
	Prevention and Control

ILO	International Labour Organization
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Interpol	International	Criminal	Police
	Organization		

IOM	International Organization for
	Migration

MENA	Middle East and Nord Africa		
NGO	Non-governmental Organization		
OSCE	Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe		
TiP	Trafficking in Persons (Human Trafficking and Trafficking in Human Beings are also used)		
UN.GIFT	United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking		
UAE	United Arab Emirates		
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund		
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime		

In the report the terms children, boys and girls refer to people under 18 years old, and the terms adults, men and women refer to persons who are 18 years old or above.

## GLOBAL REPORT ON TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS

Preface			6
Executive Summary			8
Introduction and methodological note			13
Global Overview			
1. Status of the legislation on	trafficking in	persons	22
2. The criminal justice respon		5	37
<ol><li>Trafficking in persons patt</li></ol>	erns	•	45
<ol><li>Trafficking in persons flow</li></ol>			57
<ol><li>The way forward in intern of trafficking trends, patter</li></ol>	ational monito	oring	69
	ins and nows		
Country profiles  Methodological note			70
<u>-</u>			78
Middle East and North Africa		• •	79
Algeria Bahrain	79 80	Morocco	86
Egypt	81	Oman Qatar	87 88
Iraq	83	Sudan	89
Israel	84	United Arab Emirates	90
West and Central Africa			92
Benin	92	Liberia	101
Burkina Faso Chad	94 95	Mali Mauritania	102
Cote d'Ivoire	96	Mauritania Niger	103 104
Gabon	97	Nigeria	105
The Gambia	98	Senegal	107
Ghana Guinea	99 100	Sierra Leone Togo	108 109
East Africa		Annihada da	110
Burundi	110	Mauritius	
Djibouti	110 111	Rwanda	115 116
Eritrea	112	Uganda	117
Ethiopia	113	The United Republic of Tanzania	119
Kenya	114		
Southern Africa			120
Angola	120	Namibia	126
Botswana Dem. Republic of the Congo	121 122	South Africa	127
Lesotho	123	Swaziland	129
Malawi	124	Zambia Zimbabwe	130
Mozambique	125	Zimbabwe	131
North America		www.magaanuuraanuuraanuuraanuuraanuuraanuuraanuuraanuuraanuuraanuuraanuuraanuuraanuuraanuuraanuuraanuuraanuura	132
Canada	132	United States of America	136
Mexico	134	Nonhamore Suita	
Central America and the Caribbean			138
Costa Rica	138	Haîti	146
Dominican Republic	139	Honduras	147
East Caribbean El Salvador	141 142	Nicaragua	148
Guatemala	142	Panama	151

## Table of Content

South America			152
Argentina	152	Ecuador	161
Bolivia	154	Paraguay	162
Brazil	155	Peru	163
Chile	158	Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	165
Colombia	159		
East Asia and the Pacific	ent a normal comment active ac		166
	111	New Zealand	
Australia Brunei Darussalam	166 168	New Zealand Pacific Islands	179 180
Cambodia	169	The Philippines	181
Indonesia	170	Republic of Korea	182
Japan	172	Singapore	183
Lao People's Democratic Republic	174	Thailand	184
Malaysia	175	Timor-Leste	187
Mongolia Myanmar	176 178	Viet Nam	188
wiyanniai	1/0	SANTENA MENOR PROPERTY AND	························
South and South-West Asia			191
Afghanistan	191	Maldives	200
Bangladesh	192	Nepal	201
Bhutan	194	Pakistan	203
India	195	Sri Lanka	204
Eastern Europe and Central Asia	**************************************	a Vicinitativa da Africa, un discontra con como mante a mantenaria quantu per esta de la como de la como de la	205
•	205	3.5.11	
Armenia Azerbaijan	205 208	Moldova Russian Federation	221 224
Belarus	208	Tajikistan	224
Georgia	214	Turkmenistan	228
Kazakhstan	216	Ukraine	229
Kyrgyzstan	219	Uzbekistan	230
10 A.1 C.	and a stiff proceed to common a second delicition from the		
Western and Central Europe		Y 1	232
Albania	232	Luxembourg	263
Austria Belgium	235 237	Malta Montenegro	264 265
Bosnia and Herzegovina	239	The Netherlands	266
Bulgaria	240	Norway	268
Croatia	242	Poland	269
Cyprus	244	Portugal	271
Czech Republic	245	Romania	272
Denmark Estonia	247 248	Serbia Kosovo (Serbia)	275 276
Estonia Finland	248 249	Slovakia	278 278
France	250	Slovenia	280
Germany	252	Spain	282
Greece	254	Sweden	284
Hungary	255	Switzerland	285
Iceland	256 257	The Former Yugoslav	
Ireland Italy	257 258	Republic of Macedonia	287
Latvia	261	Turkey	289
Lithuania	262	The United Kingdom	291

## A knowledge crisis about a crime that shames us all

The term *trafficking in persons* can be misleading: it places emphasis on the <u>transaction</u> aspects of a crime that is more accurately described as <u>enslavement</u>. Exploitation of people, day after day. For years on end.

After much neglect and indifference, the world is waking up to the reality of a modern form of slavery. The public and the media are becoming aware that humans prey upon humans for money. Parliaments are passing appropriately severe laws. The judiciary is facing its anti-slavery responsibility, with more prosecutions and convictions. Civil society and (to a lesser extent) the private sector are mobilizing good-will and resources to assist victims.

Hearing this wake-up call, politicians as well as ordinary people ask me two sets of questions. First, they want to know how big the crime of human trafficking really is: how many victims are there? Who are the traffickers, what are their routes and their gains? What are the trends, namely is the problem getting ever more severe? Why and where?

Second, people want to know what to do, individually and collectively. Why aren't governments and the United Nations, why aren't we all, doing more? Some people are even willing to mobilize personal resources to fight this crime: but for whom and how?

The first set of questions needs to be answered as a matter of priority. Only by understanding the depth, breadth and scope of the problem can we address the second issue, namely, how to counter it. So far we have not attained much knowledge and therefore initiatives have been inadequate and disjointed. Policy can be effective if it is evidence-based, and so far the evidence has been scanty.

UNODC first attempted to identify human trafficking patterns in April 2006. This second report goes a step further, cataloguing and analysing the world's response, based on criminal justice and victim assistance data from 155 countries. A few observations stand out, in lieu of conclusions.

<u>First</u>, over the past few years, the number of countries that have taken steps to implement the foremost international agreement in this areathe UN Protocol against Trafficking in Persons - has doubled. However, there are still many countries, particularly in Africa, that lack the necessary legal instruments.

Second, the number of convictions is increasing, but not proportionately to the growing awareness (and probably, size) of the problem. Most convictions still take place in only a few countries. While these countries may have human trafficking problems more serious than others, they are doing something about them. On the other hand, as of 2007/08, two out of every five countries covered by this report had not recorded a single conviction. Either they are blind to the problem, or they are ill-equipped to deal with it. I urge governments and other stakeholders to call on UNODC expertise, including the recently published Toolkit to Combat Trafficking in Persons, to show their commitment.

Third, sexual exploitation is by far the most commonly identified form of human trafficking (79%), followed by forced labour (18%). This may be the result of statistical bias. By and large the exploitation of women tends to be visible, in city centres, or along highways. Because it is more frequently reported, sexual exploitation has become the most documented type of trafficking, in aggregate statistics. In comparison, other forms of exploitation are under-reported: forced or bonded labour; domestic servitude and forced marriage; organ removal; and the exploitation of children in begging, the sex trade, and warfare.

Fourth, a disproportionate number of women are involved in human trafficking, not only as victims (which we knew), but also as traffickers (first documented here). Female offenders have a more prominent role in present-day slavery than in most other forms of crime. This fact needs to be addressed, especially the cases where former victims have become perpetrators.

<u>Fifth</u>, most trafficking is national or regional, carried out by people whose nationality is the same as that of their victims. There are also notable cases of long-distance trafficking. Europe is the destination for victims from the widest range of origins, while victims from Asia are trafficked to the widest range of destinations. The Americas are prominent both as the origin and destination of victims in the human trade.

This report increases our <u>partial understanding</u> of the forces at play in modern slave markets. Yet internationally standardized data are still not available, a limitation that hampers the sharing of information between and among states, and with the UNODC. Aggregated statistics cannot be put together, neither at geographic nor thematic levels.

As a consequence, we still lack a global understanding of the subject, and of how its components interact to make the whole. Think of illicit drugs, the most heavily documented subject at UNODC. Drug control policies take into account data concerning the entire value-added chain (production, consumption, trade, etc.) of all drugs (opium, cocaine, amphetamines, etc.), in all markets (Afghanistan, Colombia, US, EU, Iran, etc.) Drug information is organized in multidimensional data bases, so that policies can target the whole, and any of its parts (from therapy of addicts, to seizures of drugs, to conversion of cultures).

Nothing of this sort is possible today in the domain of human trafficking. We do not have as yet the logical categories needed to establish multidimensional data bases. We should be, but we are not, able to segment today's slave markets into their components (demand, supply, trafficking, and related prices). We must, but cannot, catalogue (for lack of data) the different types of slavery: exploitation through child-begging in Europe is different from what goes on in a brothel, or on a street corner in Australia. Preventive measures must also be adapted to take into account that an Asian father sells his underage daughter under circumstances different from what forces an African teenager into a rag-tag army of killers, or what pushes an illegal immigrant into a sweat shop in the Americas. Measures to rescue victims and punish criminals must vary accordingly.

I plead with social scientists in academia, and especially in governments, to work more intensively with UNODC to generate the logical categories and the statistical information needed for evidence-based, anti-slavery policy. The crisis we face of fragmented knowledge and disjointed responses intensifies a crime that shames us all.

Antonio Maria Costa Executive Director

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime

## **Executive Summary**

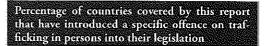
In 2007, UNODC conducted, in the framework of the United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking (UN.GIFT), a study on the state of the world's response to the crime of human trafficking. This report offers an unprecedented view of the available information on the state of the world's response to human trafficking, including near-comprehensive data on national legislative and enforcement activity. Over the course of a few months in 2007 and 2008, UNODC gathered information concerning 155 countries and territories. With a few notable exceptions, nearly all of the larger states participated. This report summarizes this information, starting with a discussion of the global and regional figures and closing with country profiles for participating nations.

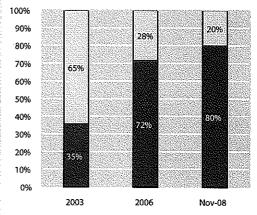
Of course, data on the response of states to human trafficking are only indirect indicators of the nature of the underlying problem. Countries with well-resourced criminal justice agencies may show a great deal of activity even when human trafficking is relatively rare, while countries with larger problems but less capacity may be unable to muster a proportionate response. But the material gathered here does illustrate that, in a remarkably short time, tremendous progress has been made in combating a crime that was only recently widely acknowledged. It also demonstrates that sharing human trafficking data on a global basis is possible and can yield valuable insights, despite the inherent limitations of the criminal justice figures.

### The response to trafficking in persons

The Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons only came into effect in December 2003, but it has inspired widespread legislative response. As of November 2008, 63% of the 155 countries and territories this report had passed laws against trafficking in persons addressing the major forms of trafficking<sup>1</sup>.

Another 16% had passed anti-trafficking laws that cover only certain elements of the Protocol definition. In 2003, only one third of the countries covered by this report had legislation against human trafficking; at the end of 2008, four-fifths did. The number of countries having anti-trafficking legislation more than doubled between 2003 and 2008 in response to the passage of the Protocol. In addition, 54% of responding countries have established a special anti-human trafficking police unit, and more than half have developed a national action plan to deal with this issue.





☑ No specific offence

Specific offence of trafficking in persons

Source: UNODC/UN.GIFT

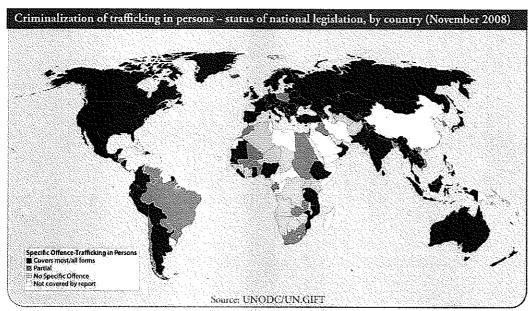
Given that this legislative framework is very new, it is remarkable that 91 countries (57% of the reporting countries) reported at least one human trafficking prosecution, and 73 countries reported at least one conviction. A core of 47 countries reported making at least 10 convictions per year, with 15 making at least five times this number.

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These laws criminalize, at the very least, sexual exploitation and forced labour and have no restriction regarding the age or gender of the victim.

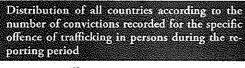
For example, laws that are limited to sexual exploitation or only apply to female or child victims.

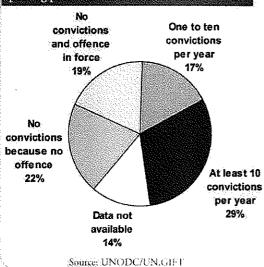


Cover most/all forms: Countries where the specific offence of trafficking in persons is in force, criminalizing at a minimum sexual exploitation and forced labour, with no restrictions concerning the profile of the victim.

Partial: Countries where the specific offence of trafficking in persons is in force, but legislation does not criminalize all or most forms listed in Article 3 of the UN Trafficking Protocol or does not define trafficking in persons.

No specific offence: Countries where forms of trafficking in persons are criminalized through other offences due to the absence of a specific trafficking in persons offence.





There is, of course, considerable regional variation in compliance to standards. Many African countries still do not have legislation on human trafficking, or they have laws that criminalize only some aspects of human trafficking (such as child trafficking). And not all high income countries have comprehensive legislation, either. In addition, most of the human trafficking convictions come from just a few countries, some of which are wealthy and some of which are not. This suggests that progress against human trafficking is not necessarily determined by income levels but is essentially a product of individual national initiative.

This research project was aimed at gathering information on legislative, institutional and criminal justice responses, not at assessing the scale or the nature of the human trafficking problem. It remains unclear what share of human trafficking cases come to the attention of the authorities and whether the cases detected are representative of the underlying activity. Each incident presents a case study of the way human trafficking is conducted in a given country, but there may be reasons why other types of cases

#### **GLOBAL REPORT ON TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS**

remain undetected. On the other hand, a large number of case studies can provide some interesting insights when compared across a range of countries and across time. The following sections discuss some of these insights.

## Gender, citizenship and forms of victimization

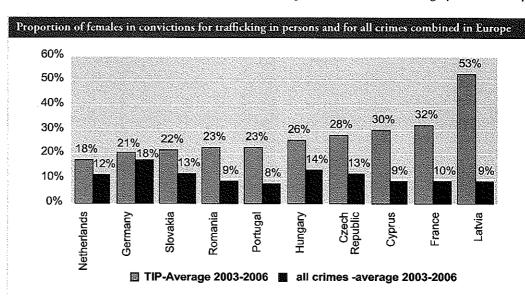
Crime, organized crime in particular, is typically a male activity. Men make up over 90% of the prison populations of most countries and are particularly over-represented as perpetrators of violent crime. It might be assumed that human trafficking, where violence and threats are keys to the business, would likewise be overwhelmingly male dominated. But, surprisingly, the data on the gender of those convicted for trafficking in persons do not support this premise.

The data gathered on the gender of offenders in 46 countries suggest that women play a key role as perpetrators of human trafficking. In Europe, for example, women make up a larger share of those convicted for human trafficking offences than for most other forms of crime.

The criminal justice figures also shed light on the nature of the transnational networks involved. To date, it has remained unclear whether human trafficking enterprises were driven primarily by networks situated in the source countries or in the destination countries. Based on the data collected for this report, most of the offenders were citizens of the country where they were arrested. This suggests that local criminal networks acquire the victims and sell them to criminal networks based in destination countries. This stands to reason since many source countries are relatively poor with small foreign populations. Offenders often endeavour to win the trust of the victims and use their local connections to threaten retaliation against family members if victims resist. Local people are better situated to acquire and control victims.

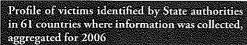
However, in cases where the arrest took place in a high-income destination country, the offenders were more likely to be foreign than when the arrest took place in a source country. In many instances, diaspora populations from source regions may be used as a conduit for moving victims into the countries where they will be exploited. This phenomenon also is seen in other forms of transnational trafficking.

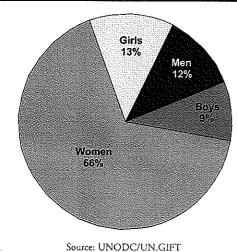
The data also can give some tentative insights into the profile of the victims. Victims of human trafficking were identified through the criminal justice process and through victims' assistance organizations. Over 21,400 victims were identified in 2006 among the 111 countries reporting victim data for that year. As with the offenders, the profile of the victims is highly influenced by



Source: UNODC/UN.GIFT

local laws and priorities, which often focus on child victims and victims of sexual exploitation (usually women). With this caveat in mind, in the 61 countries where the gender and age of the victim were specified, two thirds of the identified victims were women and 13% were girls.





In the 52 countries where the form of exploitation was specified, 79% of the victims were subjected to sexual exploitation. While it remains likely that labour exploitation and male victims are relatively under-detected, the over-representation of sexually exploited women is true across regions, even in countries where other forms of trafficking are routinely detected.

## Human trafficking flows

Criminal justice data alone cannot give a sense of the scale of human trafficking flows, but it can give some idea about source and destination countries. Victims and perpetrators may be detected in source, transit or destination countries. The criminal justice data therefore provide several independent sources of information on where victims are being acquired and where they are being transported.

In most of the reported cases, victims were moved across international borders. Domestic trafficking, or the exploitation of citizens in their home country, was reported by 32 countries but is likely under-detected due to restrictive definitions of trafficking or the greater visibility of foreign victims. Even in countries reporting domestic trafficking, foreign victims were almost always more numerous.

Cross-border flows are not necessarily long distance flows. Much of the cross-border trafficking activity was between countries of the same general region, particularly between neighbouring countries. But there was also evidence of intercontinental trafficking. Most remarkably, victims from East Asia were detected in more than 20 countries in regions throughout the world, including Europe, the Americas, the Middle East, Central Asia and Africa. This suggests that the trafficking of East Asians is a bit of a phenomenon in itself and worthy of detailed study. Other long distance flows include the trafficking of African victims to locations in Europe and North America; the trafficking of Latin American victims to North America and Europe; the trafficking of Central European, Eastern European and Central Asian victims to Europe and the Middle East; and the trafficking of South Asian victims to the Middle East.

### The need for continued monitoring

Aside from these insights, the primary value of this report has been to assess the information available, to highlight what is not known and to suggest how information-gathering systems could be improved. Looking at the data received, there is a clear need for an international standardization of definitions along the lines suggested by the Protocol. Too often, even similarly situated countries with compatible legal systems are counting different things. There is also a need to encourage Member States to collect more and better information on the state of human trafficking in their countries. Some countries could cite the number of victims or offenders, for example, but had no data on the gender, age or citizenship of these people. Domestic crimes that are tantamount to trafficking are not being tallied in national totals. By setting the accounting agenda, it is possible that lagging states could be encouraged to meet

#### **GLOBAL REPORT ON TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS**

their obligations to pass appropriate laws and in thinking about the human trafficking problem strategically.

One of the key unanswered questions remains: Just how big is the human trafficking problem globally? Without a sense of the magnitude of the problem, it is impossible to prioritize human trafficking as an issue relative to other local or transnational threats, and it is difficult to assess whether any particular intervention is having effect. While coming to an estimation based on the present data would be premature, it is incumbent on the international community to gather the information necessary to fill this gap. Far more knowledge is needed before the true size of the market for human beings can be estimated, but this information could be gathered through a sustained programme of data sharing.

This report has demonstrated that international monitoring of human trafficking trends and patterns is possible and that a surprising wealth of information is available. But it remains a pilot for a project, one with much greater potential to track the global phenomenon of human trafficking and our collective efforts to address it. An international mechanism to monitor trends and patterns of trafficking in persons needs to be established with the object of continuing data

collection of the sort gathered in the present survey (data on legal and institutional frameworks; criminal justice statistics; and victim service information). Such a mechanism also could work toward gathering more information on the market context for these crimes, including data on price and demand. Coordinated efforts require collective information systems, and the global struggle against trafficking in persons needs knowledge to inform strategic interventions.

