Mapping the Inhuman Trade:
Preliminary findings of the human trafficking database

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By Kristiina Kangaspunta

Introduction

Trafficking in human beings has been one of the most heated topics in the international criminological discourse for some years. Many issues have been debated such as the definition of trafficking, its differences from smuggling of migrants, its connection with prostitution and the legal significance of the consent of victims, to mention just a few. Of many of these issues experts hold different opinions. However, the international community, government officials, NGOs, IGOs and researchers have all agreed on one thing: there is a dearth of reliable data on human trafficking.

A global database on trafficking trends was established under the Global Programme against Trafficking in Human Beings (GPAT) of the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) in order to systematically collect and collate open source information on trafficking in persons. A broad range of sources is scrutinized for information on trafficking trends and routes, victim’s and offender’s characteristics and criminal justice responses. In this article the preliminary results based on the database will be presented focusing mainly on the qualitative information entered into the database. A global overview of the countries of origin, transit and destination as well of the victims and offenders will be provided.

What is trafficking in persons?

The first international document on trafficking in women was the International Agreement for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic which was adopted in 1902 and ratified by 12 countries. In 1949 the Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and of the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others was adopted by the Member States of the United Nations and subsequently ratified by 49 countries. However, these documents did not give a clear definition of human trafficking.

In November 2000, the United Nations General Assembly adopted the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime. For the first time, the international community has adopted an agreed definition of human trafficking.

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1 Full text of the Convention and the Protocols can be found on: http://www.unodc.org
trafficking. The Protocol against Trafficking in Persons aims at preventing and combating trafficking and strengthening international co-operation against trafficking. The UN definition of trafficking in persons includes three elements: (a) recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of person (b) the use of improper means, such as force, abduction, fraud, or coercion; and, (c) the objective of exploitation, such as sexual exploitation, forced labour, servitude or slavery. Countries which ratify the Protocol are obliged to enact domestic laws making these activities criminal offences, if such laws are not already in place. The Protocol also requires states to take steps to protect and support victims of trafficking who should be entitled to confidentiality and protection against offenders. This should include general protection as well as specific forms of protection when a person is providing evidence or assistance to the police or appears as a witness for the prosecution. Social benefits, such as housing, medical care and legal or other counselling are optional requirements.

The Convention against Transnational Organized Crime is also supplemented by the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air. The definition of smuggling of migrants includes procurement of illegal entry into a country of which the person is not a national or a permanent resident in order to obtain direct or indirect financial or other material benefit. It is important to note the difference between the definitions of trafficking in persons and smuggling of migrants even though in reality it is sometimes difficult to draw a line between these categories. According to Kelly and Regan (2000; see also Murray 1998; Salt 2000) smuggling of migrants is usually limited to illegally transporting the person to the country of destination after which the relationship between the smugglers and smuggled persons terminates. In trafficking, on the contrary, persons are delivered to organizations or individuals who have paid for their delivery and the trafficked persons must, after the delivery, repay their debt to the organizers through prostitution or forced labour.

Problems of trafficking data: availability and reliability

During recent years, there has been a boom in information on trafficking in persons. New reports, manuals, articles and books seem to be published every week. However, most of the information is reporting on individual cases, or is prepared for advocacy purposes. If figures on trafficking are given, they are usually based on published estimates of the level of trafficking and in most cases, there is no explanation how these figures were calculated (see Laczko 2002).

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2 “Trafficking in persons” shall mean the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of threat or use of force 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. (A/RES/55/25)

3 “Smuggling of migrants” shall 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 Party of which the person is not a national or a permanent resident. (A/RES/55/25)
Reliability of the data remains a problem with most of the data sources. Because of the difficulties in data collection reliable data is difficult to find. Even though some high quality research exist in the field of trafficking (e.g. Kelly and Regan 2000, Dutch National Rapporteur 2002, IOM 2002, UNICIP/UNICRI 2003) most of the data is based on guestimates, which, in many cases, are used for advocacy or fund raising purposes.

The question whether global estimates of the scale of human trafficking serve any serious policy purposes should be posed. For other serious crimes such as homicide, assault or rape, global estimates are usually not given even though these are considerable problems with the data in some regions of the world (see Shaw, Van Dijk and Rhomberg in this volume). The global estimates on the numbers of persons involved in trafficking are always very vague and they can/not serve as a reliable knowledge base for policy planning. Thus, it remains questionable whether this type of information is needed at all. For this reason, in this article, no global estimates on the scale of human trafficking will be given.

Global mapping, based on the identification of the main countries involved in human trafficking, might be useful for planning and evaluation purposes. Mapping “hot spots” can give valuable information on the nature and situation of trafficking, such as origin, transit and destination countries, as well as involvement of organized crime groups in different countries and the main routes used. This knowledge can be used when developing cooperation between practitioners in the field of prevention, victim assistance and criminal justice responses and monitoring the impact of these actions. In addition, carefully collected and analyzed national and regional data might yield profiles useful for developing regional cooperation in the fight against human trafficking.

The UNODC database has been designed to include information dealing with all relevant aspects of trafficking from open sources. The main sources include official reports from governments, information disseminated by inter- and non-governmental organizations, research reports, conference material and media reports. In order to assess the level of reliability, the database includes a field for the confidence level for each source, on a scale of 1 to 5, the default value for confidence being in the middle. For each source, the minus and plus factors influencing the confidence level is reviewed. For example, the factors reducing the confidence levels include that the figure is a based on an extrapolation of a small sample. On the other hand the factors increasing confidence include, for example, figures on real cases dealt with by the police.

Comparability

As mentioned, some existing data collection initiatives gather information either globally or regionally (see annex 1). These initiatives usually collect both quantitative and qualitative information on legislation, victim assistance, trafficking routes and other related information. Because of the nature of the information, in most cases the data is not comparable. One of the main objectives of the GPAT database is to collect data which can be compared between different countries and regions. There are well known
problems that are common to all efforts to gather comparative data on crime, such as
imprecise definitions, improper classifications and differences in units of count used.
Even crimes which might be considered to be covered by more or less similar definitions
such as homicide are difficult to compare between countries (Joutsen, 1998). With “new
forms of crime” such as trafficking, most of the traditional methods of collecting data
cannot be used. Major problems with a comparative analysis include some of the
following drawbacks:

The lack of specific legislation on trafficking in persons resulting in the absence of
official criminal justice statistics on human trafficking cases such as number of police
recorded cases, and number of persons prosecuted and convicted. Where legislation on
trafficking in persons is available, the legal definitions vary considerably from one
country to the other. For example, the legislation might address only some forms of
trafficking such as trafficking in women for sexual exploitation or trafficking in children.
In such cases official statistics include only some types of trafficking crimes.

In some countries, there is no clear distinction between trafficking and smuggling cases
in the official statistics. This is also usually based on the lack of clear legal definitions
of these crimes. In other countries, the crimes are clearly distinguished by the legislator but
not in the enforcement practice: the police might prefer to investigate some of the
trafficking cases as smuggling crimes because often evidence collection is easier. As a
general rule, smuggling investigations lead more often to successful prosecutions, since
the testimony of the trafficking victims, which is usually difficult to obtain because of the
fear of retaliation by traffickers or deportation by authorities, is not needed. For this
reason trafficking cases often end up as smuggling cases in official court statistics.

There are very few countries which provide official statistics on trafficking cases. The
German criminal police (BKA) have published a comprehensive yearly report on
trafficking crimes since 1999. The first report of the Dutch National Rapporteur on
Trafficking in Human Beings (2002) gives detailed information on the national situation,
and includes figures also on victims, investigations and prosecutions. A National
Rapporteur on trafficking in women operates also in Sweden, submitting yearly reports
on the situation in that country since 1998 (Situation report).

It is generally understood that statistics on the number of police recorded crimes,
prosecutions and convictions, do not reflect actual levels of crime but rather give
information on the operations of criminal justice systems. When action by the relevant
authorities is increased, more cases are registered in the crime statistics. For crimes such
as assault, rape or robbery, victimization surveys give more reliable figures on the true
level of crime. In these surveys, sample of people are asked about their victimization
experiences over a certain period of time (see Alvazzi del Frate in this issue).

General victimization survey cannot be used to collect data on the number of trafficking
victims because the crime is not common enough to be represented in a small sample of
the population. However, a focused victimization study on trafficking experiences could
be carried out among, for example, young women from developing countries returning
from abroad. Several analyses have been made of data collected by service-providing NGOs on their clients. However, such data are usually not collected with standardized instruments and their reliability is difficult to assess.

The International Organization for Migration (IOM) has systematically entered information on trafficking victims assisted by them into a database, using a standardized methodology. It includes both qualitative and quantitative information on numbers of victims assisted, their country of origin, age, trafficking route and the method in which they were trafficked. (Laczko, 2002; Omelaniuk, 2002)

GPAT has, together with UNICRI, developed a questionnaire for the systematic collection of data on the experiences of victims. The study will be repeated in different countries, yielding comparative data on victims experiences. Instruments have also been developed to collect data from criminal justice practitioners in different countries. A pilot test in the Philippines revealed that the fact that smuggling and trafficking cases were not clearly separated in the legislation had an impact on, for example, NGOs who provided services to victims. During the data collection phase it became obvious that most of the persons who were assisted were repatriated after illegal immigration into a foreign country through a smuggling operation. However, they were introduced to the researchers as trafficking victims. Also, interviews with the criminal justice practitioners suffered from the same problem. Practitioners questioned about trafficking mainly provided information on cases which involved smuggling but not trafficking. (UNCICP/UNICRI 2003)

**Collecting data for the database on trafficking trends**

The UNODC trafficking trend database has been designed to collect a wide range of open-source information on trafficking in human beings. The information may come in the form of official government statistics, reports of research institutes, or those of intergovernmental and non-governmental organisations, but also be drawn from newspaper articles and news agency bulletins.

As with other, more traditional types of crime, data is more available in industrialized countries than in the developing world. This is also reflected in the data collection for the database. To date, information from 284 sources has been entered, most originating from industrialized countries. Many include data from different parts of the world, especially those published by international organizations. However, the predominant use of data from Western sources is likely to have introduced a bias in the data set and more efforts must be made to collect information from other regions of the world.

The collected data were entered into three different sections of the database:

Section 1. Country reports: Estimates on the volume of trafficking in a given country, including:
Section 2. Profiles: Characteristics of victims of trafficking or the traffickers
- nationality, sex and age distribution; and

Section 3. Trafficking routes: information on countries included in the trafficking routes.

The information obtained under sections 1 and 2 is primarily of a numerical nature even though some of the victim characteristics may also be entered in free-form text fields. This insures, at least to some degree, that the level of detail is not compromised by the emphasis of the database on quantitative data. The information gathered in the trafficking routes section of the database is mostly non-numeric. However, also numerical information can be entered in this section. For the purpose of analysis this data can be combined with the data on the volume of trafficking in a country, obtained under section 1.

The database has been designed so that it would be possible to include as wide a range of source material as possible in the final analysis. The flexibility of the database to incorporate a variety of information complicates extracting data from the database, because the same type of information can potentially be entered in more than one section. For this reason in the reporting phase, the data stored in different sections of the database can be combined. For example, the number of persons trafficked to a country, can be retrieved both from the country report section, and from the trafficking routes section.

As mentioned earlier, the database collects both qualitative and quantitative information about human trafficking from a variety of different sources. These sources usually provide several “cases” about which information can be entered into the database. The “cases” can include information about different numbers of individual victims, offenders or police responses. The following example illustrates the complexity of the data entry process:
In the analysis phase, different type of information can be retrieved for a comparative analysis. The following are some preliminary results based on 284 sources (reports etcetera), and 3671 cases included in the database so far. The preliminary results, which are presented below, focus on qualitative information and estimates of the sizes of trafficking flows are not included. They will be analyzed at a later stage when number of sources and cases are expanded. Also, criminal justice responses such as number of investigations, prosecutions and convictions are not discussed because more systematic data collection in this field is required.

**Countries of origin, transit and destination**

To assess how much a country is affected by the trafficking phenomenon we can count the number of citations as country of origin, transit or destination. In total, 147 countries are mentioned, at least once, as a country of origin. Among the most frequently cited countries of origin are the Russian Federation, Ukraine and Nigeria. If data is examined by region, it can be seen that countries in the Asian region are typically cited as countries of origin, with the former Soviet Republics and African countries being cited second and third (figure 1). Central and Eastern European countries have been cited less often as
countries of origin. There were relatively small number of citations in the Latin American region and only few citations referring to industrialized countries.

Figure 1: Number of times a country has been cited as a country of origin, by region

![Chart showing number of times a country has been cited as a country of origin, by region.](chart1)

Citations referring to transit countries are much fewer than those referring to countries of origin. In total, 96 countries were mentioned as transit countries, the most frequently cited countries were in Central and Eastern Europe, as shown in figure 2. The former Soviet Republics as well as Latin American countries are less frequently cited as transit countries.

Figure 2. Number of times a country has been cited as a country of transit, by region

![Chart showing number of times a country has been cited as a country of transit, by region.](chart2)
In total, 150 countries have been cited as destination countries by different sources. The most frequently mentioned destination countries include the United States, several European Union countries and Japan. Regionally, the main destination countries can be found in the industrialized world, Asia being the second most cited region. Central and Eastern Europe as well as Africa are also cited as destination regions. Citations referring to Latin American countries and former Soviet Republics are relatively few.

Figure 3: Number of times a country has been cited as a country of destination by region

When comparing the data globally, some regional characteristics can be found. Considering the global inequalities in affluence, it is not surprising that Asia, former Soviet Republics and Africa are the main regions where victims of trafficking are recruited. Also, it should not come as a surprise that industrialized countries find themselves at the end of the trafficking route. However, less obvious are the results concerning Central and Eastern Europe indicating that this is the typical transit region. Interesting is also that Asia is as much an origin as a destination region, as shown in figure 4.
Reflecting on the Central and Eastern European countries as transit countries, it must be kept in mind that the number of sources mentioning transit country is relatively low. A country has been indicated as transit country only if it is explicitly stated in the source. A fictive example might be information saying that children were trafficked from Albania to Italy and Hungary and then to Germany. In this case, Albania is entered to the database as a country of origin, Germany as country of destination and Italy and Hungary as countries of transit. Keeping this caution in mind, there are some reasons to believe that the Central and Eastern European region is indeed a typical transit area. The first one is, of course, the geographical position between North and South and East and West. Also, their situation as countries with transition economies, where the control of the authorities might not be as strict as in Western Europe, may attract traffickers to look for safe routes. High levels of corruption among custom and police officers may also facilitate criminal activities. In many Western European countries, current visa regulations allow persons to stay in a country without any other permission for up to three months. This facilitates the final entry from Central and Eastern Europe into Western Europe.

The emerging picture of Asia both as origin and destination region is also worth examining in greater detail. It should be noted that Japan, as one of the top destination country was not included in the Asian region but is included in the category of industrialized countries. If the region is still divided into sub-regions the picture becomes clearer, as presented in figure 5.
Figure 5: Number of times a country has been cited as a country of origin, transit or destination by Asian sub-regions$^4$, % of all citations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-region</th>
<th>Origin</th>
<th>Transit</th>
<th>Destination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Asia</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South-central Asia</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South-eastern Asia</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Asia</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The main countries of origin can be found in South-Eastern Asia$^5$ and in South-Central Asia$^6$. The main destination countries are in Western Asia$^7$ and in South-Eastern Asia$^8$. South-Eastern Asia is also the main transit area in the region so the sub-region seems to be a mixture of all phases of the trafficking process. Eastern Asia is slightly higher as receiving area than it is as a origin or transit region$^9$. Each subregion thus shows a distinct profile in terms of the different stages of trafficking.

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$^4$ The division is based on the UN Statistical Division document on Composition of macro geographical (continental) regions and component geographical regions, [http://www.un.org/Depts/unsd/methods/m49rechin.htm](http://www.un.org/Depts/unsd/methods/m49rechin.htm)

$^5$ Countries cited as origin countries in South-eastern Asia were: Thailand, Philippines, Myanmar, Viet Nam, Cambodia, Lao People’s Dem. Rep, Malaysia, Indonesia, Singapore, and Brunei Darussalam.

$^6$ Countries cited as origin countries in South-central Asia were: Nepal, Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Afghanistan, Bhutan, and Islamic Rep. of Iran.

$^7$ Countries cited as destination countries in Western Asia were: Turkey, UAE, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Qatar, Bahrain, Lebanon, Iraq, Oman, Syrian Arab Rep., and Yemen.

$^8$ Countries cited as destination countries in South-eastern Asia were: Thailand, Cambodia, Malaysia, Singapore, Viet Nam, Myanmar, the Philippines, Brunei Darussalam, Lao People’s Dem. Rep., and Indonesia.

$^9$ Countries cited as destination countries in Eastern Asia were: China, Province of Taiwan, Hong Kong, Macao, Rep. of Korea, and Mongolia.
Victims profile

The data collected on victims includes their nationality, sex and age as well as the form of exploitation through which they are victimized. In total, 95 countries have been identified as home countries of trafficking victims. The most frequently mentioned countries are Ukraine, Russian Federation, Nigeria, Albania, Romania, Moldova, Bulgaria, China, Thailand Czech Republic, Lithuania, Poland, Belarus and Latvia. As can be expected the list of home countries closely reflects those countries already identified as countries of origin.

Where such information could be obtained, women were reported to be victims of trafficking in 83% of the cases entered into the database. Men were reported to be victims in 4% and children in 48% of the cases. The total percentage does not add up to 100 because one case could include combinations of women, men and children as victims. For example, a case could include information about a group comprising women and children trafficked from one country to another. Because the information is based on the number of cases in which women, men or children are mentioned as victims, the case in question would emerge twice, once in connection to women and another time in connection to children.

Information is also collected on the type of exploitation suffered by the victims in the country of destination after their recruitment and transportation. It includes information on two main categories, namely, sexual exploitation and forced labour. The analysis is based on (3671) cases. On those cases for which the information is available, more than 80% were for purposes of sexual exploitation and 19% for forced labour.

When examining at women, men and children and how these groups are exploited at the end of the trafficking process, it can be seen in figure 6 that out of all case in which sexual exploitation was reported, women are by far the largest group of victims included in such cases, followed by children. Cases in which men were reported to be victims of sexual exploitation were rare. In figure 7 the cases reporting forced labour are presented. Children are the largest group included in the cases of forced labour followed by women. Again, men are seldom reported to be victims of forced labour. The latter may however also reflect a bias in our sources.
Figure 6: Sexual exploitation by women, men and children, number of cases

![Bar graph showing sexual exploitation by gender.]

Figure 7: Forced labour by women, men and children, number of cases

![Bar graph showing forced labour by gender.]

*cases*
If women, men and children are examined separately as victims of trafficking the following results emerge:

- Of those cases where women are reported to be victims, in 85% of the incidents women are said to be trafficked for sexual exploitation and in 2% of the incidents for forced labour, with 13% of the cases include both types of exploitation;

- Of those cases where men are reported to be victims, in 16% of the incidents men are said to be trafficked for sexual exploitation and in 24% for forced labour, with 60% of the cases include both types of exploitation;

- Of those cases where children are reported to be victims, in 70% of the incidents children are said to be trafficked for sexual exploitation and in 13% for forced labour, with 18% of the cases include both types of exploitation.

Figure 8: Type of exploitation among women, men and children, percentage of cases including information on exploitation

![Diagram showing percentages of women, men, and children trafficked for sexual exploitation and forced labour.]

* Number of cases referring to women, men or children respectively as victims of sexual exploitation or forced labour

When the focus is on the number of citations as country of destination for the purpose of sexual exploitation, the most cited country is Italy, followed by the United States and Germany. With forced labour the picture is somewhat different and the most cited countries are the United States, United Arab Emirates, Gabon and Côte d'Ivoire.
When exploitation patterns in countries where persons are trafficked to are viewed regionally the picture becomes more defined. As can be seen in Figure 9, sexual exploitation is most typical to industrialized countries followed by Asian countries. Exploitation through forced labour is more common to Asian countries, the industrialized world and African countries, than to countries in other regions (figure 10). However, it should be kept in mind that in general, countries, especially the former Soviet Republics and in states Latin America, are rarely mentioned as countries of destination so their low numbers in relation to sexual exploitation and forced labour at the end of the trafficking process is to be expected.

Figure 9: Percentage of citations of trafficking into the country involving sexual exploitation, by region
Offender’s profile

Considerably less information can be found on offenders than on victims. Data on offenders include information about those who are suspected to be involved in trafficking as criminals and those who have been found guilty. If we look at the nationality of offenders, in total, 76 countries are referred as home countries of offenders. The most frequently referred countries are Russia, Nigeria and Ukraine as shown in Table 1. Because of the low number of references the information should be treated with caution.

Table 1: Number of references to offenders’ nationalities by different sources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of references</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Russian Federation</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukraine</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When the references to countries are examined from a regional perspective, it can be noted that Asia has the highest number of references, followed by Central and Eastern Europe. This is presented in Figure 11 below.

Figure 11: Number of references to offender’s nationalities by regions

![Bar chart showing number of references by region](image)

Conclusions

Even though there are several difficulties in collecting and analyzing data on trafficking in human beings the first results of the UODC human trafficking database are encouraging. The systematic documentation of open source data is able to yield information, which seems important for both policy purposes and theory formation.

Many results confirm the received wisdom on human trafficking. Persons are typically recruited from poorer countries, transported through countries which provide geographically expedient and relatively safe routes and end up to be exploited in more affluent parts of the world. The majority of victims are indeed as expected women and children and sexual exploitation is the most common variety of exploitation, often combined with other forms. Obviously, then, trafficking in persons is a gendered phenomenon, reflecting the special vulnerabilities of women and girls in poor, post-conflict or badly governed countries. It constitutes a sad manifestation of the rampant violence against women and girls across the world against the backdrop of unmitigated gender inequalities in the global village. The phenomenon of human trafficking belongs to the dark side of globalisation processes for women.
Some new specific insights have been gained, such as that Central and Eastern Europe currently acts mainly a transit area for trafficked persons or that Asia, even excluding Japan, is now as much a source as a destination region.

The results of the database can be used to set priorities for international cooperation. Special attention is due to countries which feature highly in our rankings and where domestic capacities are still underdeveloped. A ranking of countries most in need of technical assistance seems feasible.

Trafficking profiles of the various regions and subregions show great differences. Since different policies are required to tackle trafficking in origin, transit and destination countries, technical cooperation needs to be based on a sound understanding of the unique profile of the country, subregion or region at issue. The database can reliably be consulted for that purpose.

As mentioned, this article presents preliminary findings. Some information could not yet been analyzed at this stage because sufficient data was not yet available. In the future, more data will be added allowing more detailed analysis of different aspect of human trafficking.
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Trafficking on Person Report (2002), Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000, Department of State of the United States of America, Department of State Publication 10967, Office of The Under Secretary for Global Affairs and Coordination.

Annex 1:

The Protection Project at the Johns Hopkins University School of Advanced International Studies has established a comprehensive database on human trafficking which includes a collection of international conventions as well as domestic legislation that address issues of trafficking in persons; charts comparing the laws on trafficking for the purposes of commercial sexual exploitation and other forms of slavery; a set of maps on legislative approaches and, national and international trafficking routes, as well as other related information; over 50 testimonies of trafficking survivors; and updates on the status of investigations, prosecutions and convictions as well as other stories, events and activities relevant to trafficking around the world. The Project publishes an Annual Human Rights Report on the Trafficking of Persons, Especially Women and Children, which includes a summary of laws and the scope of the trafficking problem in over 190 countries. The first edition was published in March 2001. (www.protectionproject.org)

Based on the Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000, the Department of State of the United States of America has mandated to submit annually a report on the status of severe forms of trafficking in persons in different countries. The first report was published 2001 and the second one 2002. The report includes brief country narratives from 90 countries containing information on the trafficking situation and the government’s efforts to combat trafficking. (Trafficking in Persons Report, 2002)

International Organization on Migration (IOM) has established a database, which collects qualitative and quantitative information on trafficking victims assisted by IOM. The database includes data on numbers of victims assisted, their country of origin, age, trafficking route and the method in which they were trafficked. (Laczko, 2002)

Innocenti Research Centre of UNICEF has initiated a data collection mainly on trafficking in children in African countries. The focus is on collecting quantitative and qualitative data on the phenomenon on the action against trafficking in all African countries.

The Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR) of the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) and the European Union has set up an online service Legislationline. It compiles international texts and domestic legislation in the OSCE region including 55 countries in the Caucasus, Central Asia, Europe and North America. It deals generally with the rule of law and the protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms addressing also trafficking legislation in many countries. (see http://www.osce.org/odihr/)

Under the framework of the Stability Pact Task Force on Trafficking in Human Beings, the Regional Clearing Point (RCP) was established in order to ensure standardized regional data on victim assistance and protection, to support the further development of a network of shelters, and of national referral mechanisms throughout South Eastern Europe. The data collection has been initiated simultaneously in Albania; Bosnia and Herzegovina; Bulgaria; Croatia; FRY/Serbia, FRY/Montenegro and FRY/Kosovo; FRY of Macedonia; Moldova; and Romania. (see http://www.osce.org/odihr/attf/)