A short introduction to migrant smuggling
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Introduction

“Fifty-four people have been found dead after suffocating in a lorry smuggling them. More than 100 people were packed into a container measuring 6 m by 2 m. Many of the survivors were seriously ill from dehydration and lack of oxygen. The driver opened the doors of the vehicle after the migrants banged on the walls—but he fled on foot when he saw what had happened. The [survivors] said they tried to bang on the walls of the container to tell the driver they were dying, but he told them to shut up as police would hear them when they crossed through checkpoints. A 30-year-old survivor told how he believed everyone would perish in the lorry: ‘I thought everyone was going to die. I thought I was going to die. If the truck had driven for 30 minutes more, I would have died for sure.’” Source: BBC

Migration is one of the great driving forces of human progress and development. The movement of people around the globe has contributed many stories to the shared history of humanity. People have moved all over the world for a variety of reasons: for example, to increase their economic opportunities, to provide their children with an education, to found a family, to embark on an adventure or to seek protection. In turn, migration has led to the proliferation of languages, cultures, cuisines and ideas throughout the world. Global migration today is one of the great by-products of globalization, and yet the exploitation of it by profit-seeking criminals represents a darker side of the phenomenon.

Criminal activities of smugglers undermine the capacity of states to safeguard their own sovereignty, thereby reducing opportunities available to migrants to move to other countries legally and safely. Regardless of the cost to the people concerned, more and more the cost of migrant smuggling has become human life. Migrant smuggling is a deadly business.

Not all persons, who migrate, have the legal opportunities to do so. Profit-seeking criminals take advantage of this and smuggle migrants. The global motivation for migration far exceeds the limited possibilities to cross borders. In response to improved border control measures, more irregular migrants resort to services provided by profit-seeking smugglers. This in turn fosters ‘networkization’ and ‘professionalism’ of migrant smugglers while also increasing the prices they charge for their services, particularly those sophisticated operations such as smuggling by the use of fraudulently obtained visas which can be employed to bypass border controls. At the same time, within the low-cost segment of the migrant smuggling market, smugglers offer services that are low cost but highly dangerous to the health and lives of those they smuggle. This has resulted in a rise in the death toll in recent years.

Virtually every country in the world is affected by the smuggling of migrants, either as a country of origin, transit or destination or even as all three.

Smuggled migrants may be refugees. Smuggled migrants may become victims of crime during or as a result of the smuggling process. Their consent to be smuggled does not mean that they have necessarily consented to the treatment they received throughout the process. Smuggled migrants are vulnerable to exploitation and their lives are often put at risk: thousands of smuggled migrants have suffocated in containers, perished in deserts or drowned at sea. Smugglers of migrants often conduct their activities with little or no regard for the lives of the people whose hardship has created a demand for smuggling services. Survivors have told harrowing tales of their ordeal: people crammed into windowless storage spaces, forced to sit still in urine, seawater, faeces or...
vomit, deprived of food and water, while others around them die and their bodies are discarded at sea or on the roadside. The smuggling of migrants and the activities related to it generate enormous profits for the criminals involved and fuel corruption and organized crime.

**Case study: Morgan**

“My name is Morgan, I’m 30 years old. I was born in a West African country. I tried to get to Western Europe once before but didn’t make it. I’m on my way back to try a second time. The boat I was on was intercepted by the country’s police as we reached land. I was put in detention and then deported back to my country of origin. That journey was quite possibly the most frightening experience of my life and had we not been picked up by the authorities, we would all have died. Despite this, I am on my way back, to try again, a second time.

“Life in my home is hard. There is such poverty. There are no jobs, there’s no food and there is corruption. I can’t say too much about the situation as I fear for the lives of my family, the ones I’ve left behind. My father died when I was young, life has been difficult for my family ever since. I don’t remember a time when we didn’t struggle to eat. I have to try and make a better life for myself and it will enable me to send money back for my family.

“I left my home on 11 January 1998 and began my journey. I travelled overland through several countries to North Africa. I worked wherever I could, selling goods and working as a barber. I was caught by police on various occasions.

“Upon arriving in North Africa, a friend of mine told me we should go to the western side of a country in North Africa where we could meet someone who would help us get to the islands of a Western European country. I gave a man €300. He took me out into the open desert where there were more than 70 others waiting to go.

“We entered the boat on 7 August 2002. There were three boats, each boat carried around 25 people. As the boat moved off, we began singing gospel music to keep our spirits up. It helped us not to think about the danger. After many hours, lots of us, including myself, were vomiting. One girl who had been seriously vomiting died. I can’t say what happened to her body. I try never to think about it. I’m also afraid for my safety.

“After many hours of this, a big wave came and covered the boat. Everyone was shouting, water was pouring into the boat. I thought we were dead. We were all crying. We had no idea which direction we were going in or which direction we had come from. Everyone was panicking but then the engine suddenly started again. We all worked hard to bail out the water and we continued the journey. We were at sea for another 3 or 4 hours. I remember thinking it felt like the ocean kept opening up, swallowing our boat and spitting it back out again.

“We were rescued by the police as we neared the coastline. Moments after they picked us all up, our boat broke in two. If we had not been rescued, we would certainly have died at sea. The other two boats disappeared. To this day I don’t know what happened to them. I was in detention on the island for many days but we heard nothing.

“Back in my home country, the situation was even worse. I started trying to save money again. I met a friend who had some money and we agreed to try and make the journey again. We travelled through many countries before arriving in a West African country that borders North Africa. There we paid a truck driver to take us to a North African country but he dropped us in the middle of the. We were left there for two days with no water. Some people died, including my friend and travel companion, John. Luckily for us, the authorities rescued us again. It was the country’s police this time, they found us in the desert and sent us back to the other country. That saved my life.

“I gathered together as much money as I could and started out again. I’m back on the road now, working where possible and trying to save enough money to take the boat again. I am, of course, very afraid of making this boat journey again but there is no other way. I and other Africans like myself feel we have no choice. I have to try and make a better life. I pray God will see me through.”
1. What is migrant smuggling?

Article 3 of the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (the Smuggling of Migrants Protocol) defines smuggling of migrants as:

“..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”.

Article 6 of the Protocol requires the criminalization of this conduct. In addition, article 6 requires States to criminalize the following conduct:

“Enabling a person to remain in a country where the person is not a legal resident or citizen without complying with requirements for legally remaining by illegal means” in order to obtain a financial or other material benefit.

To sum up, article 6 requires states to establish as an offence or as offences the following conduct:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>the procurement of the illegal entry</th>
<th>of a person into a state party of which the person is not a national</th>
<th>in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>enabling a person to remain in a country</td>
<td>where the person is not a legal resident or citizen without complying with requirements for legally remaining</td>
<td>in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit</td>
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In short, the combination of the following elements constitutes ‘migrant smuggling and related conduct’:¹

- Either the procurement of an illegal entry or illegal residence of a person;
- Into or in a country of which that person is not a national or permanent resident;
- For the purpose of financial or other material benefit.

Furthermore, article 6 of the Smuggling of Migrants Protocol requires States to criminalize producing, procuring, providing or possessing fraudulent travel or identity documents when that is done for the purpose of enabling the smuggling of migrants.²

¹ When we use the term ‘migrant smuggling’ we refer to all the elements that constitute ‘migrant smuggling and related crimes’.

² During the negotiations of the Protocol states discussed the inclusion of the procurement of illegal residence into article 3 before eventually agreeing on covering this aspect under article 6.
What is migrant smuggling?

By virtue of Article 5, migrants shall not become liable to criminal prosecution under the Smuggling of Migrants Protocol. It is therefore to be understood that the Protocol aims to target the migrant smugglers, NOT the people being smuggled.

It is important to underline that criminalisation only covers those who profit from migrant smuggling and related conduct through financial or other material gain. The Protocol does not intend to criminalize persons such as family members or non-governmental or religious groups that facilitate the illegal entry of migrants for humanitarian or non-profit reasons.

The Smuggling of Migrants Protocol does not intend to criminalize migration as such. In this regard, article 5 states that the migrants themselves must not be held responsible for the crime of smuggling by virtue of having been smuggled:

“Migrants shall not become liable to criminal prosecution under this Protocol for the fact of having been the object of conduct set forth in article 6 of this Protocol.”

This article was included to make it explicit that no-one should be penalised with reference to this Protocol for having been smuggled.

It should also be noted that refugees often have to rely on smugglers to flee persecution, serious human rights violations or conflict. They should not be criminalized for making use of smugglers and claims for asylum should not be undermined for their having made use of smugglers or for their illegal entry (Article 31 of the 1951 Refugees Convention and Article 19 of the Migrant Smuggling Protocol).

Case study: Fishing boats land carrying hundreds of irregular migrants

The third of four boats carrying irregular migrants from an East Asian country arrived off the coast of an island of the North American destination country. The boat was apprehended after it made a very dangerous maneuver through the reef-strewn waters in the dark.

On board were 190 persons travelling without valid travel documents. Each passenger owed from $30,000 - $40,000 to the smugglers for transportation costs. One of the accused was the captain of the vessel and the other two were organizers and enforcers on board. The vessel was unsafe, unseaworthy and unsanitary. Passengers were provided with inadequate food and water throughout their journey.

Of the 190 persons on board, three were found to be refugees according to the 1951 Refugees Convention.

A rough cost of the apprehension of this vessel and the processing of the irregular migrants, exclusive of the cost trial, was in the range of $10 million.
The following news stories illustrate cases that are not migrant smuggling situations in terms of the Smuggling of Migrants Protocol:

**Case study: Man sentenced on charge of smuggling people**

In Anyland, it is illegal for any citizen to leave the country without permission. A man from Anyland was sentenced to six years in prison for allegedly working for a gang that ‘smuggled’ persons out of their country.

**Case study: Sicilian trawler and Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees help in the rescue of 27 migrants from Eastern Africa**

Sicilian fishing boat captain, Gaspare Marrone, was fishing with his crew south of Italy’s Lampedusa Island when they spotted a boat in distress. The Sicilians started bringing the 30 migrants on board, but in the process the boat capsized and 3 people were unaccounted for. Nicola Asaro, another Sicilian captain fishing in the area, called UNHCR’s Senior Regional Public Information Officer, Laura Boldrini, Senior Regional Public Information Officer of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), by satellite phone and told her that Marrone and his crew were trying to mount a rescue operation but were having difficulties. Boldrini passed the information (including the coordinates of Marrone’s fishing boat) to the Italian coastguard and navy, who sent help. Marrone detached his boat from the tuna pen it was towing and rescued 20 men and 7 women. The migrants were taken to Porto Empedocle in Sicily after they moved onto a navy vessel.

Both Asaro and Marrone were presented with the Per Mare Award for their efforts. The Per Mare Award was established to resolve the problem whereby boat people in distress in the Mediterranean are often ignored by commercial vessels whose crews fear investigations into their role in facilitating irregular migration.

**2. Key differences between smuggling of migrants and trafficking in persons**

In a significant number of cases it may be difficult to distinguish a case of trafficking in persons from one of smuggling of migrants and related conduct. The distinctions between smuggling and trafficking are often very subtle and sometimes they overlap. Identifying whether a case is one of trafficking in persons or smuggling of migrants can be very difficult for a number of reasons:

- Some trafficked persons might start their journey by agreeing to be smuggled into a country, but find themselves deceived, coerced or forced into an exploitative situation later in the process (for instance, being forced to work for extraordinary low wages to pay for the transportation).

- Traffickers may present an ‘opportunity’ that sounds more like smuggling to potential victims. They could be asked to pay a fee in common with other people who are smuggled. However, the intention of the trafficker from the outset is the exploitation of the victim.
The ‘fee’ was part of the fraud and deception and a way to make a bit more money.

- Smuggling may not be the planned intention at the outset but a ‘too good to miss’ opportunity to traffic people presents itself to the smugglers/traffickers at some point in the process.
- Criminals may both smuggle and traffic people, employing the same routes and methods of transporting them.

In short, what begins as a situation of smuggling may develop into a situation of trafficking.

However, it is important to distinguish between trafficking in persons and smuggling of migrants and related conduct for three reasons:

- The constituent elements of the respective offences are different;
- The response required and assistance required will vary, depending on the offence; and
- Being recognized as a smuggled migrant or a victim of trafficking has serious implications for the person concerned.

**What is trafficking in persons?**

**Constituent elements**

Article 3, subparagraph (a) of the Trafficking in Persons Protocol defines trafficking in persons as follows:

“...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.

In basic terms, for a person to be guilty of trafficking in persons, the following must be present (and substantiated):

- Act: recruiting, transporting, transferring, harbouring or receiving a person;
- Means: use of force; or threat of force; or coercion; or abduction; or fraud; or deception; or abuse of power; or of a position of vulnerability; or giving or receiving of benefits
- Purpose: exploitation
Using a combination of these three constituent elements, the Trafficking in Persons Protocol defines the crime of trafficking in persons as outlined in the matrix below.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Trafficking in Persons – Matrix of the elements of the offence</th>
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<tr>
<td>Recruitment</td>
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<td>Transportation</td>
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<td>Transfer</td>
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<td>harbouring</td>
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<td>receipt of persons</td>
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**The issue of consent**

Article 3 subparagraphs (b), (c) and (d) of the Trafficking in Persons Protocol states that the consent of a victim of trafficking in persons to the intended exploitation is irrelevant once it is demonstrated that deception, coercion, force or other prohibited means have been used. Consent, therefore, cannot be used as a defence to absolve a person from criminal responsibility. In trafficking cases involving children, the Trafficking in Persons Protocol states that it is sufficient to prove the action and the purpose.

Both instances reflect the simple fact that no person can consent to being exploited, because in the case of adults, consent has been negated through the use of improper means and, in the case of children, their vulnerable position makes it impossible for them to provide consent in the first place.
Articles 3, subparagraphs (b), (c) and (d) of the Trafficking in Persons Protocol

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

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

(d) “Child” shall mean any person under eighteen years of age

A case of trafficking in persons is illustrated below:

Case study: Trafficking in Persons

In 2006, the department for organized crime of an EU member State in Central Europe conducted an investigation into trafficking in his citizens with the aim of exploiting them at tomato plantations located in the vicinity of a town in Southern European.

On the basis of the evidence gathered, it was concluded that the perpetrators placed advertisements in national newspapers offering work picking tomatoes in the Southern European country. Persons providing information on working conditions and departure dates over the phone introduced themselves using false personal data. Phone numbers featured in job offers were changed frequently. The charge for the journey to the destination country was €95 to €190; workers were additionally charged about €150 upon arrival. Transport was provided by private companies of the Central European country as well as by individual carriers.

Recruited workers were transported directly to plantations. Workers were enslaved in the holdings, and subject to physical and psychological violence. In order to prevent them from contacting anyone from outside, they were supervised by guards during the working day and at night they were locked in the premises where they slept; frequently, their mobile phones and documents were taken away.

One of the methods of forcing the recruited persons to work was charging them with excessive costs of accommodation, electricity and other costs (e.g. for the possibility to go shopping) during the first few weeks of their stay abroad. The charged costs were so high and earnings so low that the persons did not manage to cover the alleged debt, even after a few months. The work was organized in a way that it was impossible to meet the conditions of picking a certain amount of tomatoes within a certain time. If the victim failed to meet those conditions, the exploiter charged him or her a fine and thus the indebtedness of the victim kept increasing. The victims were accommodated in premises completely unfit for humans, mainly in ruined buildings with no water, electricity or furnishings; in many cases victims were forced to live in tents. The ‘guards’ carried guns and were extremely brutal.

At present, the status of ‘trafficking victim’ has been granted to 285 persons. Decisions on filing charges have been issued in respect of 28 persons.
There are three basic differences between smuggling of migrants and trafficking in persons as summarised below:

1) Exploitation

One important indicator of whether a case is one of smuggling of migrants and related conduct or of trafficking in persons is how the offenders generate their income. The primary source of profit and thus also the primary purpose of trafficking in persons is exploitation. In contrast, the smuggler has no intention to exploit the smuggled migrant after having enabled him or her to irregularly enter or stay in a country. Migrant smugglers are usually paid in advance or upon arrival of the smuggled migrant by the smuggled migrant or intermediaries. In other words, the relationship between smuggler and smuggled migrant usually ends after the procurement of illegal entry or residence. In contrast, in trafficking in persons, profits are mainly generated through exploitation. The exploitation phase might last for several years.

2) ‘Illegal entry’ or residence

The smuggling of migrants always has a transnational dimension involving at least two countries. The objective of smuggling of migrants is always to facilitate the illegal entry or stay of a person from Country A into Country B. Trafficking in persons may also involve the illegal entry or stay of a person but it does not always. The transportation and stay of a victim of trafficking in persons can also occur in a legal way. Moreover, trafficking in persons often occurs within the home country of the victim without involving any border crossings.

3) Victim

The smuggling of migrants does not necessarily involve the victimization of the smuggled migrant. The smuggling of migrants generally involves the consent of those being smuggled. However, often other crimes are committed against smuggled migrants during the smuggling process such as violence or crimes endangering the smuggled migrants’ lives. There is also the possibility that the smuggled migrants might retract their consent during a smuggling operation (eg if they deem the conditions of transportation too dangerous) but be subsequently forced to continue the smuggling process (eg by being physically forced to enter a leaking boat or a crowded truck).

In contrast to the smuggling of migrants, trafficking in persons is always a crime against a person. Victims of trafficking have either never consented – for instance if they have been abducted or sold - or, if they have given an initial consent, their initial consent has become through the means the traffickers have used to gain control over the victim, such as deception or violence.

The following case study illustrates a case of trafficking in persons that from the victim’s perspective started as migration.

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3 It also must be noted that sometimes smuggled migrants have not paid the entire smuggling fee at the outset of the process; this pending payment renders them vulnerable to exploitation by the smugglers.
Case study: Nok

Nok is a 20-year-old woman from South-East Asia. She is widowed and supports her two small children by selling vegetables. One day, her friend Patnaree approaches her. Patnaree says she can find Nok a job as a domestic worker in another South-East Asian country where she can make 10 times her current monthly earnings. Patnaree also promises to make all her travel arrangements and to pay for her trip if Nok agrees to repay her once she starts her new job in the destination country.

Deciding that the extra income will benefit her family, Nok leaves her children in the care of her mother and begins her journey by bus in the company of Patnaree. Nok has no passport, but Patnaree assures her that she will not need one since she has friends at the border. Some miles before the border, they leave the bus and wait at a roadside cafe until they are joined by a truck driver called Than. Nok is surprised to see Patnaree pay to Than a significant sum of money before they both get into the truck with him and continue their journey to the border. They cross the border without any problems, as Patnaree promised. It is the only time Nok knowingly crosses a border on her trip to the destination country. The truck driver Than is friendly, but asks that Nok travels in the truck’s closed rear compartment so as to avoid problems at the next border. It is dark, hot, and very uncomfortable in the back of the truck, but Nok agrees since she has no passport and can only rely on his advice and goodwill and Patnaree’s friendship. It is a long trip, and Nok’s journey in the rear compartment of the truck comes to an end in an empty field beside a wide river where Patnaree and the driver Than meet four men who are citizen of the destination country.

The four men then take Nok across the river. Nok is told that she is now in the destination country. She is ordered to get in the back of a truck that is waiting at the side of the river. In the back of the truck are seven other women. Nok is afraid, no longer believing that she is to be given the job she was promised. When she refuses to get into the vehicle one of the men threatens her with a gun. The four men travel together in the cab of the vehicle.

Nok and the other women are taken to a private house in a major city. Over a period of several weeks, the four men repeatedly physically and sexually abuse the women. They do not allow them to leave the premises. One man tells Nok that if she escapes, the police will put her in prison for being in the country without a passport and that she will never see her children again. He also threatens to locate and traffic her children if she even tries to escape. Other men visit the house, and Nok is forced to have sex with them, for which her four captors receive payment. She is not allowed to retain any of the money and is not allowed to leave the building.
Human trafficking - migrant smuggling

(As criminalized by international law)
3. Trends and patterns in migrant smuggling

The smuggling of migrants and the activities related to it, generate enormous profits for the criminals involved. It also fuels corruption and organized crime in countries of origin, transit and destination. The smuggling of migrants is a deadly business – which has cost several thousand people their lives – and must be combated as a matter of urgency.

The information currently available is too scattered and incomplete to paint an accurate picture of the number of people who are smuggled each year and the routes and methods used by those who smuggle them. However, the evidence available reveals the following trends and patterns:

- Criminals are increasingly providing smuggling services to irregular migrants to evade national border controls, migration regulations and visa requirements. Most irregular migrants resort to the assistance of profit-seeking smugglers. As border controls are improved, migrants are deterred from attempting to cross them irregularly on their own and are diverted into the hands of smugglers.

- The smuggling of migrants is a highly profitable business in which criminals are at low risk of detection and punishment. As a result, the crime is becoming increasingly attractive to criminals. Smugglers of migrants are becoming more and more organized, establishing professional networks that transcend borders and regions.

- Smugglers of migrants constantly change routes and methods in response to changed circumstances, often at the expense of the safety of the smuggled migrants.

- Thousands of people have lost their lives as a result of the indifferent or even deliberate actions of smugglers of migrants.

These factors highlight the need for responses to combat the crime of smuggling of migrants to be adaptable and coordinated across and between regions.

“...she was wearing jeans and a blouse. Foam around her mouth was evidence of a seizure. Though she had only walked about a day and a half, her physical condition and the insufficient water and food she had consumed made her susceptible to a desert death. In her last call home a couple of days before she died, she said ‘Daddy, I’ve reached the border’”

Source: New York Times
4. **Actors and their roles in the smuggling process**

There may be a range of different actors performing a range of different roles in the smuggling process, e.g. small-scale smugglers would not generally employ other actors in the process but would arrange all aspects of the operation themselves. Within larger smuggling networks, there will be a division of work among the actors involved. Often those individuals who organize or coordinate a smuggling operation are the most difficult to gain evidence against, but unless they are brought to justice, the smuggling of migrants will continue.

There are several actors who may be involved in the smuggling of migrants. They are known by different names in different regions. Some functions that they could perform are outlined below.

**Coordinator or Organiser**

The coordinator or organizer is the person with overall responsibility for the smuggling operation, acting like a manager of an enterprise. He or she might direct, employ or subcontract other individuals participating in a particular operation. The organizer oversees the whole process within his or her area of responsibility and can arrange for a change of personnel, routes, modes of transport and accommodation. The organizer has many contacts.

A full smuggling operation might be organized by one organizer or organized by a chain of organizers who make cooperative arrangements with each other.

Traditionally, it has been extremely difficult to gather sufficient evidence against the organizers. The organizers often have “employees” who actively engage in the criminal activities, and those people will only report to the organizers when required.

**Recruiters**

Recruiters advertise their services and establish contacts between smugglers and migrants wishing to make use of smuggling services. Often, recruiters may not be affiliated with one particular smuggler. They often live permanently in the country of origin or transit and have a good knowledge of the language of the migrants, and may even know them personally. Recruiters prey on vulnerable persons and exploit their vulnerability. They will often tempt people into migrating, often misinforming them about both the process and the reality of the destination country. Recruiters may also collect the initial fees for transportation and use the services of persons who do not directly recruit persons to be smuggled, but will provide the recruiters with information about where such persons could be found.

> “When we left the airport, there was a man in the car waiting for us. I sat on the back seat and the man from the plane sat in front. They took me to a house in the countryside. I was taken to an empty room. Then he locked the door and left. I stayed there for about 13 days. My definition of a ‘smuggler’ is that they are not a good person; they are part of a gang who made money by doing illegal things...”

*Source: Statement of a smuggled migrant*
Transporters or guides

Transporters or guides manage the operational part of smuggling by guiding and accompanying migrants en route through one or more countries and overseeing border crossings. Migrants may be handed over from one guide to another at different stages of a journey. Often, guides are men from border regions with local knowledge.

Because guides are often easy to recruit, their separation from the network does not necessarily represent a serious interruption of the smuggling process. At the same time, they play a crucial role in the success of an individual migrant’s crossing of the border and are in a position that allows them to exploit or mistreat the people they are guiding. Often, it is the role played by the guide that will impact most on the smugglers’ reputation.

In some contexts, guides may be unaffiliated with larger smuggling networks and may provide services only on a contract basis or may otherwise loiter around international border areas (bridges, bus stations etc.) touting for work.

Spotters, Drivers, Messengers, Enforcers

Spotters, drivers and messengers are individuals who perform other jobs in the smuggling process. Spotters, for instance, may have the responsibility for providing specific information about checks by the police, border guards and the army. Spotters, who often travel some distance ahead of the vehicle carrying the smuggled migrants, warn by mobile phone of possible checks.

Enforcers are responsible for protecting the smuggling business. This may involve using threats or actual violence against the migrants who are being smuggled in order to keep them under control during an operation (which could involve numerous migrants aboard a vessel) or to make them pay smuggling fees that are still owed.

Service providers & suppliers

Ad hoc “service providers” and suppliers are individuals who often maintain a relationship with the smugglers and are paid a share of the profits for their role in the smuggling process. As they often deal with more than one smuggling network or group, they will provide their services to whoever is willing to pay for them. They may be used frequently or sporadically, depending on the services offered and what is actually required. For instance, boat owners or boat makers may allow their boats to be used for the purpose of smuggling migrants.

When corrupt, public officials such as border police, soldiers, immigration officials, employees in embassies and consulates, port police and other actors are paid a bribe to turn a blind eye or otherwise facilitate the smuggling process.

Throughout the smuggling process, there are also people who harbour smuggled migrants and smugglers of migrants. These include hotel, house or apartment owners (or residents) who are responsible for providing accommodation to migrants en route. Hotel owners are particularly useful when groups of migrants need to be gathered together before being moved onward.
Service providers also include other individuals who are willing, for a price, to play a role in facilitating the process, such as:

- Forgers of passports, visas and other travel and immigration documentation
- Document counterfeiters
- Train conductors
- Taxi drivers
- Airline staff
- Boat owners or owners of other vehicles
- People responsible for upkeep of vehicles (for instance, rubber dinghies) and fuel supply
- Financiers and cashiers who are responsible for handing over the migrants’ money to the smuggler(s) on successful completion of the smuggling operation; cashiers may also be involved in a legitimate business (e.g. shop owners)

It should also be noted that there may be some individuals who facilitate the smuggling process without being aware that they are doing so because they receive no payment for their participation (for instance, the taxi driver who unknowingly transports smuggled migrants for a normal fee). Other individuals may be aware of the indirect benefit they receive for playing a passive role in the process, while turning a blind eye (for instance, the taxi driver who receives a normal fee but is aware that he is transporting a smuggled migrant to a safe house, and thinks that it is not his business to interfere).
5. Types of Migrant Smuggling

The smuggling of migrants can take many forms.

Organizing the smuggling of migrants might range from pre-planned, highly sophisticated smuggling operations involving different methods (such as first travelling openly with falsified documents, then being guided over a green border on foot and finally driven hidden in a lorry over a border) to simple smuggling services (such as guiding a migrant over the green border) that were negotiated on an ad hoc basis between the migrant “on the move” and the smuggler (e.g. in a border town).

Similarly, the number of actors involved (that is, criminals involved in a smuggling operation) can vary considerably. Also their relationship to each other can take various forms.

Too often, it is assumed that the smuggling of migrants is a business dominated by hierarchically organized criminal groups who utilize existing smuggling routes (for example, those used for drug trafficking) and adapt various modi operandi to deal with a different commodity — migrants. This might be true in certain countries and regions, but there are also large numbers of smaller, flexible criminal groups or individual criminals that interact when necessary. Although these groups may form networks, these networks should not be confused with a unified organization characterized by a “mafia”-style hierarchy.

Smuggling of migrants can be organized in many different ways and having a basic understanding of the main categories of the smuggling of migrants and related conduct will help in gathering intelligence or investigating or prosecuting such offences.

While there are many possible ways to categorize the smuggling of migrants, the following typology has been chosen since it places particular emphasis on the organizational aspects of the smuggling of migrants and related conduct. Like all models, this typology constitutes a generalized depiction of reality. Thus, while this typology can serve as a starting point to help in understanding the smuggling of migrants and related conduct, no attempt should be made to squeeze reality into such a model. As mentioned earlier, the smuggling of migrants can take many forms.

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*Migrant Smuggling Protocol*

*Article 19(1)*

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

The key characteristics of ad hoc smuggling services are:

- Migrants organize their journey themselves with the occasional use of local smugglers; the smuggling process is not pre-organized. That is:
  - A migrant travels on his or her own, mostly legally and by public transport.
  - However, not being in possession of the necessary documents to enter the country of destination (or transit) legally, the migrant resorts from time to time (at least once — if not there is no smuggling of migrants) to the assistance of smugglers of migrants to facilitate his or her illegal entry during the journey.

- The migrant usually does not have sufficient financial or logistical options for being smuggled in other ways. It is rare that families rely on this way of being smuggled.

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**Case study: Gheorghe**

Gheorghe is 35 years old and lives in the capital of an Eastern European country. He has been without a job for several years. He has already gone to Western Europe looking for a job three times. Twice he was apprehended when crossing a border and sent back. Another time he managed to enter the envisaged destination country in Western Europe irregularly and worked there for one and a half years. Then he returned to his country.

In 2000, since his savings from his time in the Western European country were running out, he decided to leave his country again. He obtained a visa for the neighbouring country and travelled to its capital by bus. From there, he travelled by bus to the border with a Central European country, which he crossed on foot without any assistance.

Gheorghe could not find any work in that country and decided to go to another country in Western Europe. Fearing that it was too dangerous to attempt to enter the neighbouring country illegally on his own, Gheorghe decided to enlist the services of a smuggler. After a few days of searching, he met a fellow citizen who assured him that he knew the border area very well. He paid a fee of approximately $150 to the smuggler. The smuggler drove him close to the border and guided him over the border on foot. Immediately after crossing the border, he was apprehended by a border police patrol while the smuggler managed to escape.

During the debriefing, Gheorghe indicated that he did not have a fixed plan; he might have wanted to stay in that country or continue to another Western European country.

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4 The typology below is modified and simplified, based on research by Matthias Neske. He interviewed experts and examined copies of 51 complete court proceedings from all over Germany. The court proceedings provide information on several hundreds of smugglers of human beings and approximately 20,000 smuggled persons. Based on his research, Neske developed three model types of migrant smuggling and related conduct.

For more details, see Matthias Neske, “Human smuggling to and through Germany” in *International Migration*, vol. 44, No. 4 (October 2006).
Type 2: Migrant smuggling through misuse or abuse of documents

A key example of the smuggling of migrants facilitated by the use of fraudulent documents is the misuse of visas to facilitate illegal entry or stay:

- Visas are obtained on fraudulent grounds; that is, the reasons put forward to obtain the visa are not true.
- After having received their visas, the migrants conduct the whole journey between their countries of origin and destination, often without any presence of human smugglers.
- For people who have been issued with an individual visa (for example, a business visa), the border controls can be passed easily. In the case of group visas (tourists) where the so-called tourist group neither knows each other nor travels together, problems could occur when checks are made (in the cases examined by Neske, it was only in this way that cases of obtaining visas by artifice were discovered at all).
- The smuggled migrants usually do not have any personal relationship with the smugglers.
- In extreme cases, only two “smugglers” are able to organize the whole smuggling process.
- Migrants or those who commission the smuggling have sufficient financial resources; fees are usually paid in advance.

**Case study: Two men cooperate in facilitating the issuing of fraudulent visas**

A businessman from a Western European EU country, Mr. M, organized tourist travel to his country. Another businessman from a country in Southern Africa, Mr. D, lived in the capital of an Eastern European country. Both Mr. M and Mr. D had known each other for several years. At the end of the 1990s, they decided to cooperate in facilitating the issuing of visas on fraudulent grounds to citizens of that Eastern European country.

Through newspaper advertisements, Mr. D identified clients wanting to migrate to a Western European EU country. He provided their names and birth dates to Mr. M, who then prepared invitations and agendas for alleged “business trips” to his country. He also completed the formalities that were part of the visa application in his country. Mr. M also made a three-day reservation in a cheap hotel in a city in his country for each of the travellers. Once the arrangements were made, Mr. M sent all the documents including the hotel reservation, the invitation and the agenda for the business trip to Mr. D who submitted them to the embassy of Mr. M’s country. Mr. D then provided the travellers with their respective visas, and they then travelled on their own across Mr. M’s country to their respective countries of destination in the European Union.

It is estimated that Mr. M and Mr. D facilitated the illegal residence of 6,000 citizens of that Eastern European country. The estimated fees for arranging a visa were up to $2,000 per person. Mr. M was sentenced to seven years and six months of imprisonment.

There are also other forms of facilitating illegal residence such as sham marriages which is another commonly used technique.

**Case study: Sham marriage scam, from South Asia to Western Europe, 2006**

A man who had arranged over 80 sham marriages was jailed for five years following an investigation in a Western European country.

Mr. S, who had been the main organizer of the scam, was recommended for deportation after serving his sentence.
The scam involved bogus marriages between men mainly from South Asia who wanted to stay in the Western European country and brides who appeared to be citizens of that country.

Mr. S supplied the brides and submitted false supporting documents to the relevant authorities requesting that the grooms be allowed to remain in the country.

The scam came to light in July 2004 when an investigative journalist received information that someone was using the name of a reputable firm of solicitors to carry out an immigration scam. The reporter then posed as an immigrant looking to stay in the country and met up with Mr. S. During the meeting, Mr. S offered to arrange a marriage, saying he would organize the necessary documentation in a service he called “everything under one roof” for €8,500.

Mr. S was arrested in September 2004 with his then girlfriend Ms. P, who was also involved in the scam.

During searches of Mr. S’s addresses, police found blank Islamic marriage certificates and documents, including passports in the names of his three alias.

A number of the “brides” and “grooms” were arrested and prosecuted for their involvement in the scam:

Ms. P pleaded guilty to three charges of knowingly making a false declaration for the purposes of obtaining a certificate of marriage. She was sentenced to 140 hours community service and fined €750.

Mr. J pleaded guilty to perjury and received a nine-month prison sentence.

Ms. D pleaded guilty to five counts of perjury and was sentenced to two years’ imprisonment.

Ms. G pleaded guilty to her involvement in a fake marriage including one charge of perjury. She received and served a four-month prison sentence.

Mr. K pleaded guilty to his involvement in the marriage to Ms. G. He provided police with the fake supporting documents, including a fake death certificate supplied by Mr. S for his real wife, who was still alive and living with him. He was sentenced to nine months’ imprisonment.

Type 3: pre-organized stage-to-stage smuggling

The key characteristics of pre-organized stage-to-stage smuggling are:

- The smuggling process is pre-organized, meaning that the migrants themselves do not have to conduct negotiations with local smugglers during their journey. “Stage coordinators”, a chain of independent individuals who however interact closely, carry out the negotiations with the “local service providers” and pay them. “Local service providers” are most often nationals or residents of the transit country and change from stage to stage.

- The stage coordinators and smuggled migrants usually have the same ethnic background.

- Each stage coordinator outsources the actual smuggling activities to either a “local coordinator” (who in turn outsources the actual smuggling to the “local service providers”) or directly to the “local service providers”.

- Migrants conduct most parts of the journey accompanied by smugglers.

- Rarely does one individual mastermind the whole process from origin to destination.

- The relationship between coordinators and service providers is characterized by the following aspects:
The local service providers’ “wrong” ethnic background and the lack of contacts may make it difficult for them to become coordinators themselves.

The service providers and coordinators are not part of one organization; they are rather part of a process which works on the principles of the market and is driven by profit. After the coordinators and the service providers have cooperated successfully over a long period of time, they could be considered to be part of a network through a process similar to the establishment of a circle of regular customers.

In the cases examined by Neske, threats, if they are made at all, almost always refer to not being asked to take part in the next smuggling operation.

In cases of pre-organized smuggling from non-crisis regions, single male and female migrants prevail. Neske identified two sub-types:

- Migrants being smuggled in order to allow them to join family or community members already established in the destination country. Those being smuggled are usually expected in the target country. The smuggling operation is mostly commissioned from the target country.

- Migrants who are sent by their community without having existing contacts in the destination country (e.g. migrants from certain Chinese provinces). Usually a family or village community suffering from poor living conditions commissions the smuggling operation. The smuggling fees are often advanced by the smugglers, making the smuggled migrants particularly vulnerable to trafficking in persons and exploitation in the destination countries.

Where smuggling fees were advanced by smugglers, this could be an indicator of trafficking in persons

In cases of pre-organized smuggling processes from crisis regions (see the case study on smuggling of asylum seekers below), the smuggled migrants usually rely on existing international contacts and on sufficient financial resources. Such cases include most of the cases examined by Neske in which either a whole family or parts of a family were on the move. Countries of origin are usually those which are experiencing crises by virtue of conflict. Destination countries are usually those where the migrants have a good chance of being granted asylum. In this respect it is important to note that many of those smuggled by this method are refugees; the right to apply for asylum is upheld regardless of the means by which the person gained entry into a country.
Case study: Rajat

Rajat is from a South Asian country and has lived in the capital of a Central European country for many years. He speaks the language of his country of residence fluently. He deals with the import and export of textiles. He is also a typical “stage coordinator”. That is, he is responsible for receiving migrants smuggled from his home country, arranging housing and preparing for their onward travel to their next destinations (usually in a Western European country).

In his function, he interacts with other “stage coordinators”, who are all from his home country, and with “local service providers”. Local service providers are most often nationals or residents of the countries en route and do the actual smuggling work such as driving or guiding the migrants over the border. Whenever one stage is successfully passed, the migrants call the responsible stage coordinator to inform them of this. The “stage coordinator” then pays the “local service providers”.

Rajat is also in contact with the “stage coordinator” in his South Asian home country who coordinates the departure of the migrants. That coordinator, together with the other “stage coordinators” involved, determines the route and the fee to the targeted destination country. In the cases in which Rajat is involved, the fees were estimated to be between $2,000 and $5,000.

In a typical case in which Rajat was involved, the smuggled migrants flew from the South Asian country to the capital of an Eastern European country using falsified passports. A “stage coordinator” took the passports on their arrival and sent them back to a South Asian country. He also arranged for the migrants’ to travel to the capital of another Eastern European country while hidden in a truck. In that city, another “stage coordinator” arranged for them to travel to the capital of a Central European country. There, another “stage coordinator” arranged for the migrants to travel to Rajat’s city of residence, while hidden in a van. Then Rajat organized the next stage of travel to a neighbouring Western European country by outsourcing the actual smuggling activity to a citizen of Rajat’s country of residence, Jozef. Jozef drove the migrants close to the border, where they were handed over to an associate of Jozef’s, who guided them over the border on foot. Once they crossed the border, the migrants were picked up and brought in a small van to a big city where the next stage coordinator, Harun (a friend and relative of Rajat), lived. From there, the migrants called Rajat, informing him of their arrival. Harun then contacted Jose, the “stage coordinator” of the Western European country of destination. Harun again outsourced the actual smuggling to local smugglers, who drove them in cars to the destination country, sometimes hiding them behind the rear seats when crossing the borders of other Western European countries. Jose received the smuggled migrants. Most of the migrants had relatives in the destination country who collected them from Jose. It was proved that most of those relatives had commissioned the smuggling.
6. Key financial transactions within migrant smuggling

Smuggling fees and payment modalities

If migrants hope to be smuggled, they will generally have to pay a fee. Fees are charged by smugglers of migrants for the following services or reasons:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Profit</th>
<th>The criminal is involved in the crime to make money.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Travel documents</td>
<td>The provision of forged documents costs money. The higher the quality of the document, the higher the price.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport (internationally)</td>
<td>Airfares, payments to captains or operators of boats and the like.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport (locally)</td>
<td>Lorry or car drivers (who can also be used to cross national boundaries), transport within countries and from border to border.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>Places to house migrants at the different stages of them being smuggled.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corruption</td>
<td>To pay officials to allow smuggled migrants to cross borders/use false documents. Also in the form of amounts paid by smuggled migrants over the price agreed upon.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are three main modalities for payment of the smuggling fees:

- Payment up front, before departure, by migrants or their family.
  - Often this will be on a 50/50 basis with the balance due on arrival in the destination country.
  - Often advance payments are made to a third party or middleman rather than directly to the smuggler. The third party may issue a receipt to the migrant, his or her family and the smuggler. The money would then be released to the smuggler only once the migrant’s family had confirmed to the third party that he or she had arrived safely.
  - Some smugglers will reimburse fees paid where the smuggling operation has been unsuccessful and may even offer to keep trying at no extra cost until the illegal entry is achieved.

- Money paid en route to the different people involved so that the migrant can advance from stage to stage.

- “Credit”: the smuggling fee is advanced to the smuggled migrant by some person. The smuggled migrant will have to pay back the fee after having arrived in the country of
destination. Investigators need to be alerted to this and the potential for the smuggling of migrants to become a form of trafficking in persons or debt bondage.

The payment modalities established between smugglers and the people they smuggle take many forms, and which form is utilized depends on the origin of both and the nature of the smuggling.

Payments in cash:

- Where this is the case, payments must generally be made in convertible currencies.

Trust systems:

- Require a high degree of organization
- Often require a closer relationship between smugglers and smuggled migrants than is the case with cash transactions
- Often require a closer relationship between the smugglers involved

Regular bank transfers:

- These may be used where there is the appropriate infrastructure to support such transactions, such as larger cities and in areas where there is less tradition of private money transaction.

**Informal financial systems**

*It is important to note that financial investigations can also be done in cash-based economies, even where the amounts of money transferred are extremely small. Where there is an informal banking system, with cash or goods exchanged at markets for instance, the investigative response must be creative, calling upon basic methods such as surveillance or even security tapes.*

**Hawala**

*Hawala is an informal value transfer system. In this system, when the payer wishes to transfer money to a payee in another country, he will give the money to a hawala broker in his own city, who will then inform a hawala broker in the payee’s city that the appropriate amount (usually minus a commission) should be paid to the payee. The “debt” owed by the hawala broker in the payer’s country to the hawala broker in the payee’s country will be settled later. Hawala operates on an honour system, meaning that records are rarely kept and exchanges are not legally or juridically enforceable. Hawala can also bypass tax, official exchange rates and immigration or other legal controls, making it an attractive system to smugglers of migrants and other criminals.*

*In some countries, hawala is illegal as it is considered a form of money-laundering. In other systems, it is a common practice which falls outside the interest of the law.*
Fees paid for smuggling services vary widely depending on factors such as:

- The means of transport used
- The level of “guarantees” included
- Additional services, such as provision of forged documents
- Whether the whole journey is to be organized by one provider and undertaken without any breaks or is to be carried out in stages
- The risks of detection associated with the route (that is, those posed by the presence of police or coastguard or border police)
- The time of year and weather conditions
- (Sometimes), the nationality of migrants

The following example illustrates how fees may vary according to the route.

**Case study: Fees varying according to the destination country**

A man from a Middle Eastern country recounted the following:

When I entered the shop in the town there were a few boys and a woman sitting there. They offered me a cup of tea and then we talked a bit. Where do you want to go?” they asked.

“Europe”, I replied

“Of course. Everybody wants to go to Europe,” they said. “But which country in Europe?”

“I do not know anywhere where I can stay.”

“OK, at this moment we can offer you a North American country and two destination countries in Western Europe. But you have to know it costs a lot of money. With us you pay a lot but you will get what you want. If the first time fails, we will try again, but this time at our own expense.”

“How much does it cost and how long do I have to wait?” I asked. They replied, “The North American country is US$ 10,000 and we can arrange it within two or three weeks.

Western European country 1 is US$ 8,000 and this will also take two or three weeks.

Western European country 2 is US$ 7,000 but we can arrange that within five days.”

“OK, I will go to Western European country 2,” I said.

The following assumptions can be made about fees paid by migrants to smugglers:

- The greater the distance between country of origin and country of destination, the higher the fee.
- Reduced risk involves higher cost.
- Land routes often require several stopovers, each of which poses a risk of detection. Clandestine travel (by foot, car, lorry or train) is likely to be more dangerous, and often life-threatening.
Air journeys directly from the country of origin to the country of destination are safer, more convenient and of shorter duration, and therefore more expensive than longer, more dangerous journeys via land and sea.

The more sophisticated the smuggling operation, the higher the fee.

**Raising the fee to be smuggled**

Loans incurred for smuggling can make a person highly susceptible to human trafficking or debt bondage

Migrants commonly need to sell their property (land or chattels) to raise the necessary amount of money or must rely on credit in one form or another, which is often the case. Often, money is borrowed from friends or relatives or even loan sharks. Families will often sell their home and other possessions to support a person who is migrating. Occasionally, money is also borrowed through normal bank loans.

In cases where migrants borrow heavily to pay for their smuggling, they experience great pressure to somehow make enough money to settle their debts. Particularly when the smuggler covers the cost of the smuggling, the migrant in debt to him or her becomes extremely vulnerable to exploitation.

**Profits**

It is difficult to estimate the profits that smugglers derive from their criminal activities because:

- Illicit proceeds are usually laundered and therefore become indistinguishable from legitimate profits.
- Success of attempts to assess and calculate the price and profit of smuggling businesses varies widely, depending on factors such as the type and range of activities covered by the payment, the distance travelled, the nature of the risks and the countries involved.
- Payments are not always disbursed in a single transaction, making overall fees and profits difficult to calculate.

**Case study: Smuggling of migrants via sea**

Small, flexible smuggling businesses had been established in a South-Eastern European country. By the end of the 1990s, at least 150-300 people could be transported every night from that country to a country in Southern Europe. It was estimated that about 50 rubber dinghies had been in use in 1999. They were about 10 metres long and had been completely emptied out. Some of them were equipped with two engines.

Each craft carried 15-40 people crouched down and covered with canvas. They all left together at night, travelling in formation so as to be able to offer mutual assistance if necessary. They would then fan out as they approached the territorial waters of the destination country, using lighthouses as their points of reference.

At first, the fee for the journey was variable: from $400 to $450 for those dealing directly with the boat owner, and from $600 to $650 for those who used the services of a middle man. It has been estimated that the annual turnover in 2000 was between $30 million and $60 million.
7. UNODC’s response to migrant smuggling

As the guardian of the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (Trafficking in Persons Protocol) and the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air (Migrant Smuggling Protocol) both supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (UNTOC), the primary goal of UNODC with respect to combating the smuggling of migrants is to promote global adherence to the Smuggling of Migrants Protocol and to assist States in their efforts to effectively implement it. As Article 2 outlines, “the purpose of this Protocol is to prevent and combat the smuggling of migrants as well as to promote cooperation among State Parties to that end, while protecting the rights of smuggled migrants.”

In providing technical assistance towards achieving these goals globally, UNODC’s response is focused on two working areas:

- Assisting States to bring their legislation in line with the Protocol, and
- Assisting States to develop an effective criminal justice response to the smuggling of migrants and related conduct

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) is aware of the fact that law enforcement measures alone cannot prevent smuggling of migrants. Where not combined with a holistic approach, increased border controls may simply result in the diversion of smuggling routes elsewhere, and increased demand for more risky services. Where migrants are simply returned to their countries of nationality or residence without consideration for the underlying root causes of their migration, they may simply attempt to migrate again – perhaps under more dangerous conditions than those endured before. There are important push and pull factors which influence a person to become a smuggled migrant. All of them must be addressed in a comprehensive way, based upon a multi-dimensional partnership involving States, civil society actors, academia, the media, state institutions and international organizations.

For more information about UNODC’s work against migrant smuggling contact UNODC’s Anti-Human Trafficking and Migrant Smuggling Unit at ahtmsu@unodc.org