

Developing Better Indicators of Human Trafficking

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AS RECENTLY AS TEN YEARS AGO, the term “human trafficking” was rarely referred to in debates about migration policy. Today, however, it is one of the major concerns of both governments and organizations active in the migration field and has become a priority for those working in many other policy areas such as human rights, health, gender, law enforcement, and social services.

The organization of the largest ever EU conference on “Preventing and Combating Trafficking in Human Beings,” held in Brussels from 18-20 September 2002, is an example of the growing political priority being accorded to combating human trafficking. The conference, organized by International Organization for Migration (IOM) on behalf of the EU, brought together over 1,000 representatives of European institutions, EU Member States, candidate countries, and relevant third world countries, drawn from governments, international organizations, and NGOs. The conference produced “The Brussels Declaration,” which outlines a set of policy recommendations for the EU in the area of human trafficking.

In the United States also, trafficking has been high on the political agenda. In October 2001, the State Department created the Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons, and in June 2002, it published a second report assessing the efforts made by 89 countries to combat trafficking in persons. This report is the most comprehensive anti-trafficking review to be issued by any single government.

Although combating human trafficking has become a growing political priority for many governments around the world, available information about the magnitude

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of the problem remains very limited. One of the biggest gaps in our understanding of trafficking is in the area of statistics and data collection. Despite the growing literature on human trafficking, much of the information on the actual number of persons trafficked is unclear and relatively few studies are based on extensive research.

This article examines why producing reliable data on trafficking has proven so difficult and suggests various measures that could be taken to improve such data. In particular, this article argues that better use could be made of data emerging from the growing number of counter-trafficking programs. For example, many of the agencies that currently provide assistance to victims of trafficking around the world collect a great deal of information about trafficking, but relatively few of these agencies analyze the information they collect in a systematic fashion. An example of a way in which to develop better indicators of trafficking is a project begun by IOM in the Balkans in May 2001 to create a database on trafficking. This database, which is further discussed below, is based on detailed information collected from victims of trafficking assisted by IOM.

NEW INTERNATIONAL DEFINITION OF TRAFFICKING

One reason it has been difficult to measure trafficking is because, until fairly recently, there has been little agreement on how to precisely define human trafficking. Until the early 1990s, trafficking was mainly viewed as a form of human smuggling and a type of illegal migration. Today, a more detailed, internationally agreed-upon definition of trafficking is available, a result of the signing in December 2000 of the UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress, and Punish Trafficking in Persons.

The UN defines trafficking and smuggling as follows:

“Trafficking in persons” shall mean the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring, 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 labor or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs;

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

“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.¹

Despite this more precise definition, a number of commentators have pointed out the continuing difficulty of measuring trafficking, given the range of actions and outcomes covered by the term. As O’Connell, Davidson, and Donelan explain:

Trafficking in persons is used as an umbrella term to cover a range of actions and outcomes. Viewed as a process, trafficking can be said to entail several phases—recruitment, transportation (which could be across several countries), and control in the place of destination. Different groups, agents or individuals may be involved in different phases of the process, and can organize recruitment, transportation and control in different ways. There is thus immense diversity between and within trafficking systems.²

All these factors make it challenging to collect data on trafficking. The Palermo Protocol demonstrated the need for a clearer and universally accepted definition of trafficking, but a great deal remains to be done in order to improve the accuracy of trafficking data.

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Given the fairly recent acceptance of the new international definition of trafficking, it is perhaps not surprising that, so far, few governments have begun to systematically collect data on trafficking. It is still common in many countries to mingle data relating to trafficking, smuggling, and irregular migration. Furthermore, data on the number of persons being trafficked are often only estimates and usually concern only the trafficking of women and children for sexual exploitation, rather than other forms of exploitation.

At the global level, the most widely quoted figure reflects the number of women and children believed to be trafficked world-wide each year across international borders. In 1997, U.S. authorities estimated that between 700,000 to two million women and children were trafficked each year. Such estimates, given without explanation of their underlying assumptions, are widely considered to be conservative, as they do not include trafficking within countries or the trafficking of men.

At the regional level, the European Commission (EC) reported in March 2001 that an “estimated 120,000 women and children are being trafficked into Western Europe each year.” As with American estimates, it is unclear how these figures were arrived at. In a recent report on trafficking in EU Member States, Europol, the EU’s law enforcement agency, commented that:

The overall number of victims trafficked in the EU is still unknown and only estimates are available. What is clear is the fact that the number of victims is much higher than the official statistics from investigated cases in Member States.³

At the national level, an IOM study conducted in 1998 in 25 European countries on behalf of the EC found that only 12 of the 25 countries surveyed could produce data on cases of trafficking in women and only seven countries on cases of trafficking in children.⁴ Eleven countries were able to supply data on the number of convictions for offenses related to trafficking in women; the combined total of such convictions in 1996, however, stood at less than 100. Recent IOM studies in other parts of the world, such as South-East Asia, South Korea, and Russia, have produced similar results.

In Central America and the Caribbean a recent major study concluded that:

Currently, no statistics are available to accurately quantify the magnitude of trafficking in the region or within particular countries.⁵

The lack of reliable figures, in addition to the fact that many commentators on trafficking repeat estimates derived from interviews with officials, means that many of the referenced statistics are rounded numbers that give little explanation of how estimates were made.

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Only a few countries are able to provide data on trends in trafficking over several years, making it difficult to accurately establish the extent to which trafficking may be increasing. Figures from Germany and the Netherlands (two countries that possess data on human trafficking) suggest that there has been a substantial increase in the number of victims of trafficking (mainly for sexual exploitation) during the last decade. The German Federal Criminal Office (*Bundeskriminalamt*) reports that in 2001 there were 987 victims of trafficking identified in police investigations of suspected cases of trafficking, a figure nearly 25 percent higher than the 1999 figure, which reported 801 victims (see *Table 1* for details of trends since 1994). Most victims recorded in these figures, however, are women; this is largely due to the German legal definition of trafficking, which is limited to the purpose of prostitution. Although German data do include information on the means of transport used, the way in which the victim was recruited, the current legal status and country of residence of victims, and the nationality of traffickers, there is virtually no information about the trafficking of men or trafficking for other purposes such as forced labor.

In the Netherlands, a recent report by the Dutch National Rapporteur on trafficking (Bureau NRM, 2002) cites figures based on the number victims of trafficking registered with the Dutch Foundation Against the Trafficking of Women (STV). This

report shows that the number of persons assisted by STV rose from 70 in 1992 to 341 in 2000 (see *Table 3*).⁶ Again, as with the case of Germany, the data refer primarily to cases of trafficking in women for purposes of prostitution and do not include trafficking in other sectors of work such as agriculture, sweat shops, and domestic work.

It is unclear to what extent the reported increases are due to a genuine rise in cases of trafficking or more due to better police enforcement efforts and improved assistance from NGOs. Certainly, in the case of Germany, it has been shown that the number of victims identified each year varies according to the priority given by police to combating trafficking.⁷ It should, however, also be recalled that the official figures are likely to indicate perhaps only the “tip of the iceberg.” STV, for example, reports that each victim of trafficking usually knows of at least one other person in a similar situation who has not received help from the authorities.

Although the full scale of trafficking is uncertain, the available data clearly indicate which are the most important source countries and regions for victims of trafficking. It is striking that, in the case of Germany, nearly 80 percent of trafficking victims in 2001 were from countries in Central and Eastern Europe, especially Belarus, Lithuania, Ukraine, and Poland (see *Table 2*). In the Netherlands, STV figures show that over the period of 1992-2000, 55 percent of victims originated from Central and Eastern Europe. Over the period of 1992-2000, however, the percentage of victims from the Central and Eastern European countries has been falling in relative terms as the number of women trafficked from African countries has increased (see *Table 3*).

WHY SO LITTLE DATA?

There are several reasons that help explain the paucity of data on trafficking. Human trafficking is an underreported crime for which the majority of cases remain undiscovered. Lack of data on the scale of trafficking can be attributed to the low priority given to the combating of human trafficking by authorities in many countries. The reason for low prioritization appears to be linked to two main factors: first, legislation is often lacking, inadequate, or not implemented, making the prosecution of traffickers very difficult and often impossible; second, trafficking convictions are often based on witness and/or victim testimony. Such testimony is hard to obtain as trafficking victims are either deported as illegal migrants or, if identified as trafficked persons, are often too frightened to testify. Inadequate legislation, for both prosecution and for victim and witness protection, means that the police authorities often prefer not to prosecute traffickers at all, with the knowledge that much effort only seldom results in a conviction.

In one of the most comprehensive studies on human trafficking in Europe, conducted by Kelly and Regan in the U.K. in 1999 on behalf of the British government, it

was found that the level of priority given by local police forces to combating trafficking has an impact on whether or not data are gathered.⁸ This study found that trafficking data are produced only where the local police forces monitor the local sex industry as part of their mandate to combat vice-related crime.⁹ Unfortunately, such monitoring is rare, resulting in the attitude that “a problem unseen does not exist.”

Another problem is that many governments and, to a lesser extent, NGOs are unfamiliar with trafficking; therefore, where relevant data do exist, they are not properly categorized as trafficking. A recent review of information sources in Central America and the Caribbean found that:

Existing data systems do not produce information that would assist in formulating a clear understanding of the phenomenon. Child welfare reports use the most basic classifications to register children either as juveniles in conflict with the law or at risk. Information that may be revealed in the course of treatment does not filter into generalized databases. Statistics on migration, where they exist, are rarely dis-aggregated by sex. . .¹⁰

WIDE RANGE OF INCOMPATIBLE SOURCES OF DATA

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Despite the lack of data from law enforcement sources, other, new sources of data are emerging as more agencies around the world take action to combat trafficking. The U.S. government, for example, reported that in 2001 it supported over 110 anti-trafficking programs in around 50 countries; in Europe, numerous agencies are implementing programs to combat trafficking. One problem, however, is that no single agency acts as a focal point for the collection, collation, or harmonization of statistics on trafficking either at the national or regional levels. An exception to this general picture is a new initiative started in June 2002 (described in more detail below) to establish for southeastern Europe a Regional Clearing Point on National Networks on Victim Protection and Assistance in Belgrade.

Another problem is that existing data are frequently program-specific. Thus, data are often based on the various trafficking definitions used by each individual agency and only cover those who have received certain types of assistance (e.g. persons participating in voluntary assisted return programs or those accommodated in shelters for victims of trafficking). Each agency gathers data according to its own needs, and, as a result, the same individual may appear in data produced by more than one organization. Data will also vary according to the resources of any given organization. Some are better financed and accord greater priority to data collection than others. In addition, some NGOs register first contacts with victims, while others monitor hotline calls or those eligible for temporary residence permits. Finally, some agencies compile data

over a one-year period, while others produce statistics covering the duration of a specific project.

RELUCTANCE TO SHARE DATA

At several levels, there is reluctance on the part of agencies within countries and between countries to share trafficking-related data. For instance, in a recent study of sex trafficking in the Americas, researchers found that the “little information that is being collected is not being meaningfully circulated.”¹¹ They go on to report that:

Throughout the region, researchers were told of instances where crucial information was not shared with appropriate authorities. For example, labor inspectors who knew of children working in bars and night clubs did not co-ordinate intelligence with police and prosecutors; judicial authorities have failed to inform consulates of trafficking cases involving their nationals ... lists of suspects involved in international trafficking is often unavailable to all border posts. Finally, NGO and civil society sources have valuable information that does not always reach government actors.¹²

In order to combat international trafficking, the sharing of information between countries is essential. One problem is, however, that at the international level, the sharing of information on trafficking tends to occur on an *ad hoc* basis, especially between countries of origin and destination. Some countries regard data on human trafficking as classified and, therefore, refrain from sharing such information. In addition, some countries have data protection laws prohibiting the dissemination of personal information, while some ministries simply adopt a policy of restricted distribution. Some agencies are reluctant to release data because their data is so poor. Authorities in destination countries may also be reluctant to share information with source countries when the authorities and law enforcement agencies in source countries are themselves believed to be implicated in trafficking. Finally, NGOs may be reluctant to share data for other reasons (e.g. to protect the confidentiality of the trafficked persons they assist).

DEVELOPING BETTER INDICATORS OF TRAFFICKING

The lack of data on trafficking is part of a wider problem of the relatively poor quality of data on international migratory movements in general. In July 2002, the United Nations Population Division drew attention to this problem by organizing an inter-agency meeting to discuss ways in which data on international migration could be improved and made more widely available. The meeting noted that the data needed to describe international population movements and provide governments with a solid

basis for policy formulation and implementation are far from complete. Thus, against a background of scarce and unreliable data and expanding demands, it becomes apparent that the proper and systematic coordination among those who collect and analyze data on international migration is imperative.

Reliable trafficking data can be compiled only when the appropriate capacity to produce it exists. One of the key recommendations that emerged from the inter-agency

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meeting on migration statistics is the need for international organizations and governments to provide greater technical and financial assistance to developing countries in order to enable them to collect better migration data. Therefore, in poorer coun-

tries it is important for capacity building projects intended to upgrade statistical systems to accord priority to the collection of data on trafficking.

The need for better use and coordination of existing data is particularly applicable in the case of human trafficking data. There is, now, a clearer international understanding of the implications of trafficking. An increasing amount of statistical data on trafficking from a variety of sources is becoming available as the number of counter-trafficking programs increase. It is likely that such data will improve as more NGOs, intergovernmental organizations, and others intensify their efforts to combat trafficking.

A mechanism to coordinate and standardize these disparate data collection systems and various indicators of trafficking, however, is still lacking. Much more needs to be done to improve the comparability of the limited amount of statistical data currently available from a wide variety of agencies. The Regional Clearing Point (RCP) in Belgrade for the Balkans is an example of what can be achieved through better data management. The RCP was established by the Stability Pact for a Southeastern European Task Force on Trafficking in Human Beings in order to ensure standardized regional data collection on the effectiveness and continuity of victim assistance and protection. The project is being implemented by IOM with the co-operation of International Catholic Migration Commission (ICMC).

The RCP will create a sound mechanism for the collection, consolidation, and analysis of information for the region. Through the collection and analysis of information from a wide range of sources, the project intends to foster a comprehensive understanding of human trafficking throughout the Balkans. This type of project is to be extended to other regions where IOM implements counter-trafficking programs.

Existing sources of information on trafficking should be fully exploited, including possible indirect indicators of trafficking. Although relatively few statistics relating directly to human trafficking exist, there may be other indicators which suggest that

trafficking is occurring. For example, it is well established that victims of trafficking often enter a country legally through the likes of an “entertainer” or “*au pair*” visa. A 1995 IOM study found that there had been a substantial increase in the award of such visas to young women from Russia arriving in Switzerland.

A more controversial indirect indicator of trafficking is the number of migrant women working in the sex industry of any given country. For example, a recent Europol report on trafficking provided figures of the number of prostitutes in the EU originating from non-EU countries. It was reported that in Italy, 6,000-7,000 prostitutes originating from non-EU countries and, in Spain 12,000. As Europol pointed out however, “not all foreign prostitutes are victims of trafficking, but a sizeable proportion is probably exploited to some degree.”¹³ Thus, this kind of statistic may be relevant in discussions concerning the extent of trafficking.

There are many other indicators that could provide more accurate estimates of trafficking, such as the number, gender, and origin of asylum seekers, figures on the number of illegal border crossings, statistics of departures of women leaving main countries of origin, as well as the demand for visas at foreign consulates for the main countries of transit and destination. In addition, airlines and other companies in the transportation business may be able to collect and provide information on travelers who are potential victims of trafficking.

Further research is necessary in order to more fully examine good practices regarding the collection and analysis of data on trafficking. Why are some countries able to produce more data on trafficking than others? Why, for instance, has Germany been able to publish statistics on trafficking since 1994, while most other industrialized countries have not followed suit? What lessons from particular practices could be learned and applied elsewhere?

IOM'S DATABASE ON TRAFFICKING IN SOUTHEASTERN EUROPE

The IOM Counter-Trafficking Module (CTM) Database has been developed to facilitate the management of information gathered from all IOM Counter-Trafficking and Return and Reintegration programs. It aims to strengthen both research capacity and understanding of the causes, processes, trends, and consequences of trafficking, thus enabling IOM to better target its counter-trafficking policies and programs.

CTM collects first-hand information from IOM field missions working on counter-trafficking. The mission staff carries out in-depth interviews, based on a standardized questionnaire, with all trafficked persons assisted by IOM. This interview allows IOM to understand their socio-economic and family background, their experience in migration, their recruitment by traffickers, the route taken, the violence and/or

exploitation they suffered, their current condition, and their needs in terms of health, protection, return, and reintegration. The information collected is entered into the mission's database and shared between missions directly involved in the assistance of a trafficked person. IOM also monitors the reintegration process of returned victims and enters this information into a database. Ultimately, all information is centralized in IOM Headquarters in Geneva.

This database was implemented in the Balkan region in 2002 with the intention of expanding it into a global database that gathers information from all IOM's Counter-Trafficking programs world-wide.

The Southeastern Europe database currently includes information on 826 victims of trafficking, all but one of whom are women and girls. These victims were assisted by IOM during the period May 2001 to December 2002. The database collects data on victims of trafficking who were assisted by IOM in the following countries and provinces:

- Albania
- Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM)
- Bosnia and Herzegovina
- Serbia and Montenegro
- Kosovo
- Bulgaria
- Romania
- Moldova

An initial analysis of the data suggests some interesting findings.

Socio-economic profile

- There is considerable trafficking not only between Eastern and Western Europe, but within Central and Eastern Europe (see *Table 4*). In 2001 and 2002 the vast majority of the 826 victims included in IOM's database came from Moldova, Romania and Ukraine.
- Over half of the victims were aged between 18-24, but a significant and disturbing minority of victims were children: 97 out of 826 (over 10 percent) were aged 14-17 and 7 were under 14 (see *Table 5*).
- Approximately one third of the victims had one or more children, though less than 10 percent were married. In Central and Eastern Europe, as in most industrialized countries, single mothers have an especially high risk of living in poverty.

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- Contrary to commonly held beliefs, the majority of victims did not originate from rural areas and most did not classify themselves as “very poor.” Only 257 out of 826 (about one third) came from rural areas. When asked to assess their family’s economic status, 17 percent said that it was “very poor” and 56 percent said it was “poor.”
- Most victims (60 percent) reported that they had been previously employed in their country of origin, mainly in the private sector.

Recruitment and trafficking process

- The majority of victims (494 out of 826) providing information on how they were recruited reported that they were contacted by someone in person, in most cases by an acquaintance or a “friend” (see *Table 6*).
- In most cases (over 75 percent) the recruiter offered the possibility of finding work abroad.
- Contrary to commonly held beliefs, many of the recruiters (41 percent) were women.
- A significant minority of victims had no intention of working in the Balkans and about 20 percent thought that they would be working in Italy.
- Nearly all the women (84 percent) said that they went abroad in search of work and 80 percent reported that they did not know that they were being recruited for work related to the sex industry.
- The most typical type of work promised was work as a waitress (21 percent), domestic worker (11 percent), or “dancer-entertainer” (11 percent).

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Exploitation in the destination country

- In the majority of cases (564 out of 826), the purpose of trafficking was sexual exploitation. There were only six cases of trafficking for domestic work and 36 cases of trafficking for labor in restaurants.
- In six percent of cases, women providing sexual services reported that they never used a condom and 38 percent reported that condoms were not used regularly. Nearly 40 percent were denied access to health care.
- Over half of the victims (54 percent) reported that they received no income for providing sexual services. Others reported receiving some money from time to time or at the beginning of their contract, but only 18 percent reported receiving a regular income.
- In eight percent of cases, the victim had previously been trafficked.
- Over half the cases of trafficking (58 percent) were discovered by the police; but in a significant minority of cases (23 percent), victims of trafficking es-

caped and sought assistance from the authorities.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

In recent years, progress has been made in the development of a common understanding of human trafficking and in the establishment of international legal norms regarding trafficking in persons. Much less progress has been made, however, in determining the scale and magnitude of human trafficking and in developing effective ways to collect helpful data.

Ultimately, data on trafficking will improve only when greater actions are taken to combat the problem. Unless governments and law enforcement agencies are prepared to combat trafficking with increased vigor and, at the same time, prepared to provide adequate protection to the victims of trafficking, the majority of trafficking cases will continue to go undiscovered.

There is also the potential for data to improve when more countries begin to enact and implement the necessary anti-trafficking legislation. Though this is likely to be a slow process, it is possible that data on trafficking will improve as a result of it

This article has argued that several measures should be taken to address the current data shortage. These measures include:

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Raising awareness about the need for better data

Data on trafficking will improve only if states and other agencies give priority to improving data collection. States could do this by establishing a focal point at the national level for the collection of trafficking data and, as a first step, “mapping out” relevant data collected by different agencies within the country.¹⁴

Investing resources in capacity building to enable poorer countries to compile better data, and ensuring that the collection of trafficking data is given sufficient priority

Even if there is a growing willingness to collect better data, many poorer countries lack the financial and human capacity to develop better data collection systems. It is important that projects concerned with developing a country’s capacity to create better statistical systems do not overlook the need to give priority to collecting data on trafficking.

Promoting a better use of existing statistics through national and regional fora


Even without a substantial investment of new resources, much more could be done to make the existing information regarding trafficking more widely available (e.g. by promoting the sharing of information among agencies working to combat trafficking both within and between states). The aforementioned RCP project in Belgrade is an

example of an important initiative in this direction.

Encouraging agencies combating trafficking to systematically collect data and develop common data collection systems

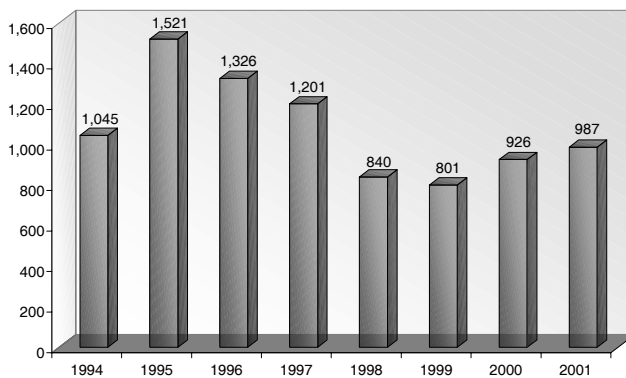
As illustrated earlier, IOM's counter-trafficking database provides an example of what agencies could do in order to collect data on trafficking in a more systematic and timely fashion. Although these data are program-specific, they provide a rich source of information about trafficking.

More comparative research to assess a wider range of sources of data relevant to trafficking and to identify effective data management practices

The number of studies on trafficking is growing, but most research on trafficking tends to be limited to one country, to be short-term, or to be rather limited in funding. If data on trafficking is to improve, more detailed comparative research to compare and assess relevant data sources across countries and effective identification of data management practices are needed. Such research could, for example, explore the validity of developing a broader set of indicators of trafficking to include indirect indicators—such as those discussed above. By adopting such an approach it is likely that estimates of the number of persons trafficked worldwide will become more accurate and reliable. 

TABLES

Table 1 - Victims of Trafficking Registered by the BKA in Germany



Source: IOM/German Federal Criminal Office, 2001

Table 2 – Recent Trends in Trafficking in Women: Germany

Trafficked Women Who Were Registered with the German Federal Criminal Office				
	1999	2000	2001	Total
Ukraine	174	115	128	417
Lithuania	88	162	119	369
Russia	91	140	73	304
Poland	115	74	84	273
Belarus	47	40	140	227
Czech Rep	55	74	Na	129
Latvia	20	43	40	103
Total	801	926	987	2714
CEECs*	712	755	681	2148 (79%)

* Central and Eastern European Countries

Source: IOM/German Federal Criminal Office, 2001

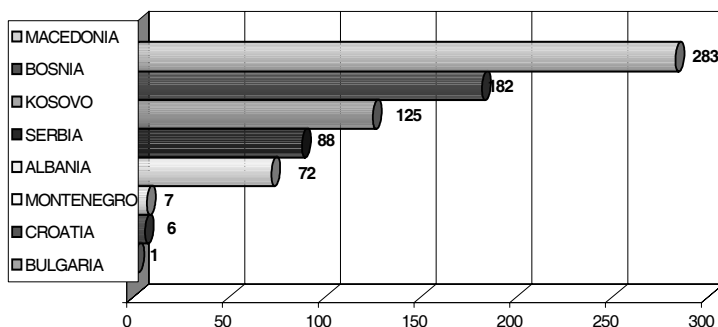
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Table 3 – Registration Data Relating to Reports of (possible) Victims of THB (over the Period 1992 – 2000)

Region/ country	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	Total
Central and Eastern Europe	31 (44%)	55 (63%)	115 (69%)	125 (78%)	77 (64%)	117 (65%)	131 (57%)	123 (43%)	134 (39%)	908 (55%)
Africa	5 (7%)	5 (6%)	8 (5%)	2 (1%)	13 (11%)	21 (12%)	45 (20%)	79 (28%)	101 (30%)	279 (17%)
Asia	12 (17%)	10 (11%)	13 (8%)	5 (3%)	14 (12%)	14 (8%)	15 (7%)	26 (9%)	26 (8%)	135 (8%)
Latin- America + Caribbean	17 (24%)	18 (20%)	25 (15%)	19 (12%)	5 (4%)	10 (6%)	24 (11%)	15 (5%)	7 (2%)	140 (9%)
The Netherlands	2 (3%)	- (-)	3 (2%)	4 (3%)	7 (6%)	8 (4%)	13 (6%)	13 (5%)	25 (7%)	75 (5%)
Middle East	- (-)	- (-)	1 (1%)	2 (1%)	- (-)	- (-)	- (-)	3 (1%)	2 (1%)	8 (0%)
Western Europe (excl. NL)	3 (4%)	- (-)	1 (1%)	2 (1%)	3 (2%)	1 (1%)	- (-)	6 (2%)	1 (0%)	17 (1%)
Unknown	- (-)	- (-)	- (-)	2 (1%)	2 (2%)	9 (5%)	- (-)	22 (8%)	45 (13%)	80 (5%)
Total	70 (99%) ¹	88 (100%)	166 (101%)	161 (100%)	121 (101%)	180 (101%)	228 (101%)	287 (101%)	341 (100%)	1642 (100%)

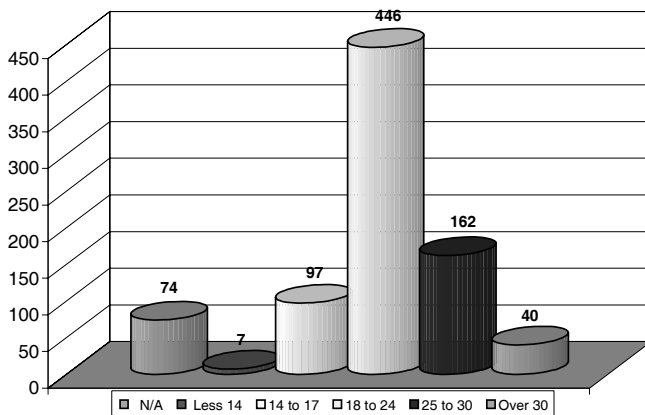
Source: STV, 2001

Table 4 – Countries of Destination of Trafficking Victims



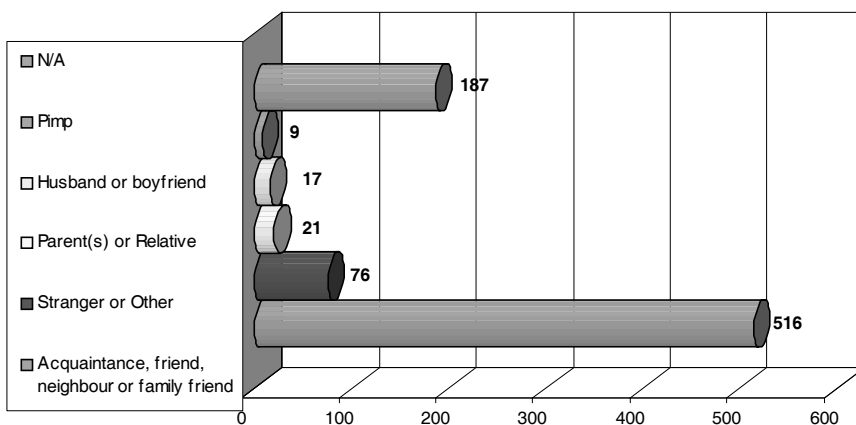
Source: IOM South Eastern Europe Trafficking Database

Table 5 – Age Range of Victims



Source: IOM South Eastern Europe Trafficking Database

Table 6 – Relation of the Recruiter to the Victim



Source: IOM South Eastern Europe Trafficking Database

NOTES

1. "Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children" and "Protocol Against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air", supplementing the "Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime," December 2000.

2. Julia O'Connell Davidson and Bridget Donelan, "Review of the Evidence and Debates on the "Demand Side of Trafficking," (Save the Children: Stockholm, forthcoming, 2003).

3. Europol, "Crime Assessment: Trafficking in Human Beings Into the European Union," (The Hague, 2000): 18.

4. IOM, "Trafficking and Prostitution: The Growing Exploitation of Women from Central and Eastern Europe," (IOM: Geneva, 1995).

5. IHRLI, "In Modern Bondage: Sex Trafficking in the Americas," (International Human Rights Law Institute DePaul University College of Law, Chicago, 2002): 79.

6. The total number of persons trafficked in the Netherlands may be somewhat higher based on other sources of information. See "Trafficking in Human Beings," First Report of the Dutch National Rapporteur, (The Hague, November, 2002): 50-51.

7. Frank Laczko, Amanda Klekowski von Koppenfels, and Jana Barthel, "Trafficking in Women from Central and Eastern Europe: A Review of Statistical Data," in *New Challenges for Migration Policy in Central and Eastern Europe*, eds. F. Laczko, I. Stacher, and A. Klekowski von Koppenfels, (Asser Press, The Hague, forthcoming, 2002).

8. Liz Kelly and Linda Regan, "Stopping Traffic: Exploring the Extent of, and Responses to, Trafficking in Women for Sexual Exploitation in the U.K.," (Home Office, Police Research Series, Paper 125, London, 1999).

9. Ibid.

10. IHRLI, 2002: 79.

11. Ibid.

12. Ibid.

13. Europol, "Crime Assessment: Trafficking in Human Beings Into the European Union," (The Hague, 2001).

14. IOM, "Challenges and Approaches in International Migration Data Management," Bali Conference Ad Hoc Expert Group 1, (Colombo, 14 March 2003).